

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Revisiting the Making of Hindi as a 'National' Language

Ganpat Teli, M.Phil.

Abstract

In the first quarter of last the century a consciousness building campaign was started among the literate people of north India. At that time as a result of a long lobbying process, Hindi language and Nagari Script had already been recognized the purpose of official usage. Thus, the leadership of this lobby started to demand a new status of the National Language for Hindi written in Nagari script. In the contest for the National Language status, Hindustani and Urdu languages were counterparts of Hindi. Supporters of both the languages – Hindi and Urdu – symbolized them with Hindu and Muslim community respectively. On the other side, Hindustani which was a colloquial language was supported by the camp of progressive writers and Gandhi.

Strong supporters of Hindi opposed the idea of Hindustani and advocated the usage of Sanskritized Hindi. They argued that Sanskrit is the pure and divine language of Hindus, so only Sanskritized Hindi can bear the cultural heritage of the community. They subscribed to the logic of *Devvani* and Mother Language. At the time of this debate the literacy level in India was very low. On other side, the supporters of Hindi were preparing a Language which was highly Sankritized, but did not belong to the common people, especially the marginalized groups of both Hindu and Muslim communities. This happened because Sanskrit language and its words were not used in large scale on a daily basis. The Sanskritized Hindi not only marginalized people of non-privileged social strata socially and economically, but also deprived them the opportunity to become a part of the knowledge process.

Key Words: India, Hindi, Hindustani, Urdu, Sankritization, Literacy, National Language, Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Unification.

Heterogeneity

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India is a land of heterogeneity; heterogeneity in geography, resources, demography, culture, language etc. Heterogeneity in the field of language is one of the major features of the country. In addition to the 22 Scheduled languages mentioned in the Indian Constitution, there are innumerable dialects spoken throughout the country. While, on the one hand, these diversities fill various colours in the collage of this multi-cultural country, on the other side history bears witness to many clashes, conflicts and disputes caused due to these diversities. In this context, language is no exception. With the emergence of the 'idea of India' in colonial period, language has become an issue of conflict and controversy.

The language problem in India emerged after the consolidation of the rule of the East India Company. Indians' involvement in the language dispute was a result of insecurity of employment and other gainful avenues. This involvement was defined on religious line according to the 'Divide and Rule' policy of the Company. Urdu, Arabic and Persian were assumed as the language and scripts of Muslims, and Sanskrit, Hindi and Nagari as of the Hindus. This development created a focal point of friction in Northern India: the tug-of-war between Hindi-Urdu-Hindustani for the position of the national or official language.

After consolidation of the rule, officers and staff of the Company needed the knowledge of the colony for the purpose of policy making. In this process, they started to explore India through various academic fields like history, archaeology, geography, anthropology, linguistics, etc. For the above mentioned purpose they set up College of Fort William in Calcutta, where John Borthwick Gilchrist was appointed professor of Hindustani. Gilchrist, in his work at Fort William, established differences between Hindi and Urdu and proposed Sanskritization of Hindi.

The Script Controversy

This controversy had originally started in the form of a script controversy. After theorization of this discourse at the College of Fort William; in the year 1837, government recognized Hindustani written in Persian script to be used in the courts of (then) North-Western Province (later renamed as the United Provinces). This was done as per the new policy decision. The Company installed English as a Language of higher courts and local respective languages of particular provinces to be used in the lower courts. Strong opposition was raised against this decision by the Nagari supporters and they started lobbying for the acceptance of their demand of replacing Persian by Nagari script (King, 1994). A process of consensus-building was started amongst the literate people of provinces in favour of Nagari-Hindi.

In 1868 a memorandum given to the government by Raja Shiva Prasad Sitarehind was a historical event in this movement. This memorandum not only linked Nagari script with the Hindu community and its heritage but also provided logic to the Hindi and Nagari supporters of the successive generations (Rai, 2000: 39-40). In 1900, this lobby had won its battle in Bihar and United Provinces where Nagari script was accepted as the script to be used in the courts and offices by the colonial government (Rai, 2000: 17-18). However, another ensuing battle was yet to be won.

Swadeshi Movement

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During the initial years of the 20th century, Indian Freedom Struggle was taking a concrete shape as the resistance against the colonial rule was becoming stronger. Various sporadic streams of resistance were merging together to form a larger force. The gap between resisting people and political leadership was reduced in a gradual manner. The *Swadeshi* Movement of Bengal was a glimpse of this new shape. This anti-British consciousness brought struggling people together, thus becoming a ground for unification. At this juncture, the idea of national symbols became important. These circumstances gave a new push to the issue of language and the Hindi-Nagari lobby started demanding the status of National Language or official language for Hindi with Nagari as its script.

Constitution of India

After Independence, the Constituent Assembly of India on 14th September 1949 declared “the official language of the Union shall be Hindi in Devnagari script” (Language in India, www.languageinindia.com 2002).

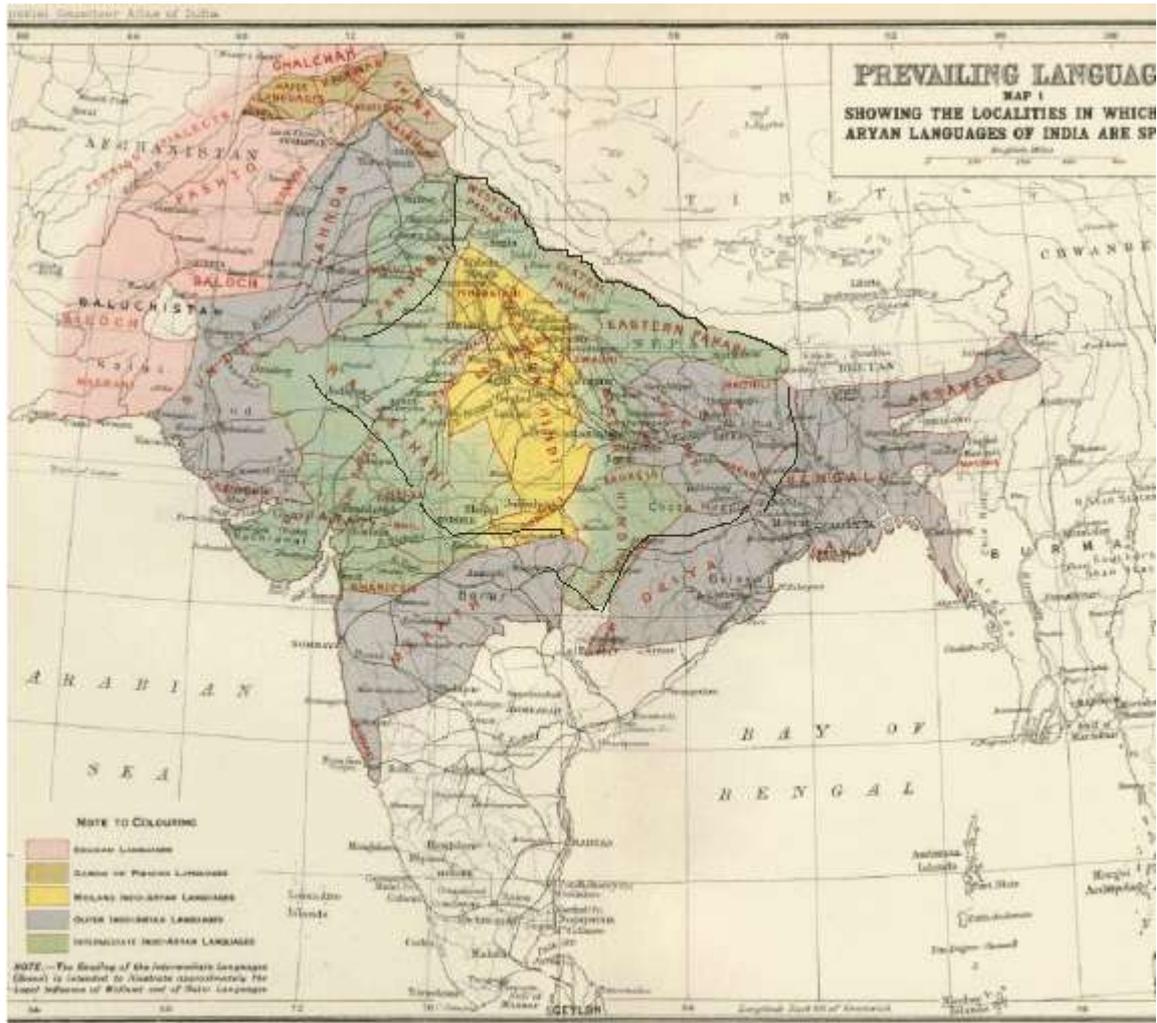
Streams of Language Controversy in Colonial India

This language controversy pertaining to Hindi manifested itself in two streams in the colonial India – firstly, between Hindi and other Indian languages (especially Tamil, Malayalam, Kannada, Telugu languages of Dravidian language family and Bangla). At another level, this controversy was an internal dispute between Hindi, Urdu and Hindustani.

In reality, Hindi, Urdu and Hindustani - all three streams shared a common constituency. At that time areas of the United Provinces, Bihar region of Bihar and Orissa, Rajputana, Central Province and Berar, Gwalior and central India were linguistically defined as linguistic region of the said languages - Hindi, Urdu and Hindustani. In this linguistic politics both the languages Urdu and Hindi were divided as languages of Muslims and Hindus, respectively. Both of these languages were contestants for the status of the national language. This was observed that this led to disharmonious relationship between the religious communities - Muslims and Hindus. Thus, in addition to Hindi and Urdu, a third concept was emphasised from the progressive and liberal section, i.e. Hindustani. These three streams favoured Sanskritized Hindi, Persianized Urdu and colloquial language respectively.

Defining Hindi Speaking Areas

The above mentioned provinces and states which were defined as Hindi speaking areas themselves had great linguistic diversity. Various languages such as *Braj, Awadhi, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Malvi, Bagheli, Bundeli, Chhattisgarhi, Marwari, Magahi, Kannauji, Mewati, Dhundhari, Mewari, Santhali* were spoken there (See: the map) and where some of these languages had/have great literary heritage. Linguists divided these languages into five sections as sub-languages and dialects of Hindi– Eastern Hindi, Western Hindi, Pahari Hindi,



Map: Hindi Belt in 1931 (The Imperial Gazetteer of India, Atlas, 1931)

Bihari Hindi and Rajasthani Hindi (Varma, 1966: 42). All these languages were placed as subordinate to Hindi, and their heritage was adopted as the heritage of Hindi. However, while doing so, the contemporary trends were ignored.

Projection of Nagari and Hindi as Symbols of Hinduism

In the process of lobbying, Nagari and Hindi were projected as the heritage of the Hindu religion and community and the rationale produced by the memorandum of 1868 by Shiva Prasad was repeated in support of their position. This relationship of Hindi and Hindu was mainly defined by using Sanskrit language as a prop. Thus, link between Sanskrit and Hindi was explored and Sanskritization of Hindi was initiated to justify this claim. In this process of Sanskritization they preferred Sanskrit vocabulary, instead of colloquial vocabulary. (However, on the other side, the process of Persianization of Urdu was also gaining momentum.)

Spread of Sanskritization

This process of Sanskritization was a prevalent trend in Hindi academia. Even newspapers refrained themselves from using words from the colloquial language and many Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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personalities and institutions were busy in this gigantic task of Sanskritization. Mahaveer Prasad Dwivedi, editor of *Saraswati*, codified Sanskritized Hindi. Simultaneously, Ramchandra Shukla did it in the field of textbooks. Purushottam Das Tandon who commanded influential position in Indian National Congress, was leading *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan*. Nagari Pracharini Sabha and Hindi Sahitya Sammelan both were founded for this purpose. Sampurnanand, Chandrabali Pandey, Niramal Kumari Sethi, Venkatesh Narayan Tiwari, Chakradhar Bhakhjola, Jagannath Prasad Shukla, Ravishankar Shukla, et al., were consistently writing in favour of Sanskritised Hindi under the banner of *Nagari Pracharini Sabha* and *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan*.

The Issue of National Language around the World

The issue of National language had been a part of history of many countries in the course of the consolidation of a unified national identity, particularly during the period of renaissance. Concept of nation state and nationalism were originally based on some kind of uniformity in the matter of race, ethnicity, culture, language, etc., but language was underlined as one of the most efficient elements in this regard. This concept of nation-state was satisfactorily applicable in the matters of small state. However, when applied to larger countries with heterogeneity in the demographic make-up, this concept proved inadequate in diluting the friction emerging out of identity politics.

During renaissance, European countries were also unified. In this process, a unified common language played a decisive role. For instance, in course of *risorgimento* (nineteenth century movement for Italian unification) in Italy, the question of national language had emerged. Peter Ives, while discussing *Gramsci's politics of language*, wrote that in Italy “the lack of national language, especially in comparison with France and England and to a lesser extent to Germany, was seen as a serious social and political problem” (Ives, 2004: 20). Thus intellectuals and activists supported and underlined the need of a common National language for the process of unification.

Two Different Positions Relating to Diversity of Languages

Antonio Gramsci related the issue of national language to his legendary concept of hegemony. According to Gramsci, unified national language would advantage the peoples of Italy, but he emphasized that this language must be created by people themselves. He believed that linguistic pressures are exerted only from the bottom upwards, so he criticized those who:

Would like artificially to create *consequences* which as yet lack the necessary *conditions*, and since their activity is merely arbitrary, all they manage to do is waste the time and energy of those who take them seriously. They would like artificially to create a definitively inflexible language which will not admit changes in space and time. In this they come head on against the science of language, which teaches that language in and for itself is an expression of beauty more than a means of communication, and that the history of the fortunes and diffusion of a given language depends strictly on the complex social activity of the people who speak it. (Gramsci, 1985: 27)

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Gramsci's idea on national language was contrary to that of the Russian theorists Bakhtin, Volosinov and Medvedev. The trio was against the concept of unification, but this opposition was based on different linguistic and social-political realities. According to Peter Ives, "Bakhtin, Voloshinov, and Medvedev faced circumstances in which consolidation, unification, and organization had negative connotations connected to Stalinism; in contrast, Gramsci looked to organization and unification as positive attributes that could help overcome oppression. In his view, the solution to the setbacks he and the workers' movement encountered in the *Biennio Rosso* (A period of two years from 1919 to 1920 was a period of intense social conflicts in Italian history. This was followed by the rise of fascism.) was a more unified and well worked out organization" (2004: 57). Despite this difference both camps were in favour of vernacular materialism. Actually, Italy was a country with less diversity in comparison to heterogeneous Soviet Union. The difference in situations led them towards different conclusions.

Italy versus Soviet Union

In Italy, it was experienced that a national language was necessary for the *Risorgimento*. The national language not only unifies the country but also helps in raising people's consciousness and spreading knowledge. For Gramsci, it was an important component of the progressive hegemony. Literacy is a fundamental condition for spread of any language. In Italy, in the course of *risorgimento* literacy rate was also raised. In 1861, about 75 per cent of Italian population was illiterate, but by 1911 the illiteracy rate had been reduced to about 40 per cent (Ives, 2004: 20). This growth in the literacy rate provided ground to the opening of a national language discourse.

Indian Situation: Limiting Language Choice Based on Low Literacy

However, In India, the situation was different. When national language debate was gaining momentum, the literacy rate amongst the masses was very low. In 1901, only 5.35 per cent people were literate. In 1931, when row over national language was on its peak, only around 9.5 per cent of the Indian population was literate. The literacy growth rate was also very low. Between 1941 and 1951 it grew to only around 16.1 and 16.67 per cent respectively (see-Chart). In these circumstances, where very few people were literate, the course of national language was going to be a limited action, not a mass action. That time,

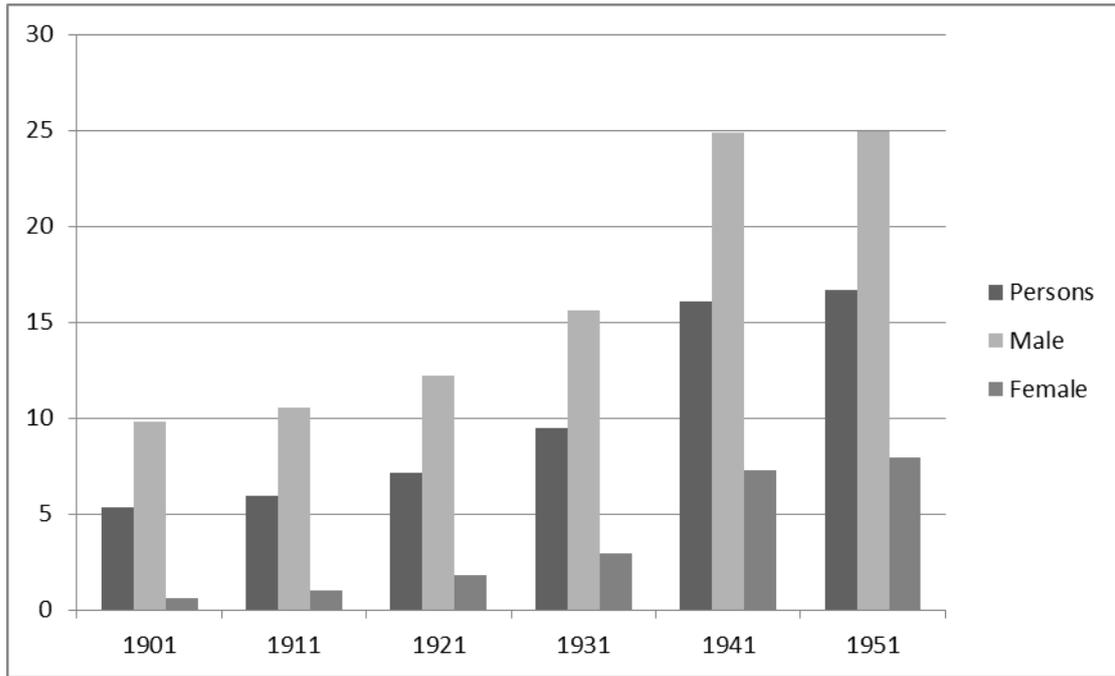


Chart: Growth of Crude literacy rate in India: (Chandramauli, 2011)

more than 80 percent people of the population weren't able to use that language. As mentioned earlier, due to the process of *Sanskritization*, usage of Hindi was restricted to a limited circle of literate people. The social composition of literates' community was not diverse because literacy spread only into upper social strata of the society and this section further divided into camps of different languages/dialects.

Political Processes and Effects of Sanskritization and Persianization

The trends of *Sanskritization* of Hindi and *Persianization* of Urdu, were limiting both the languages in literary circle only, because both of them were not colloquial languages. The locals were used to speaking their native languages like *Khari Boli*, *Brij*, *Awadhi*, *Bhojpuri*, *Maithili*, etc. Hence, both these languages were not associated with the common people, but with the literate people because Sanskrit and Persian were not in colloquial usage.

The pro-Sanskritization lobby was preparing an artificial Hindi that was highly Sanskritized and only literates would be able to gain knowledge and information, restraining those who were illiterate from accessing information and knowledge. Regional languages, which were defined as sub-languages of Hindi were used for interaction amongst illiterate masses and these languages were also the medium of knowledge dissemination and information sharing for them.

Language is not an isolated element. It is a mode of communication that could be learnt but it has an organic relationship in the social milieu, in which knowledge and creativity naturally develops. That is why educationists emphasize that elementary education be given in mother tongue or first language, but pro-Sanskritization lobby pushed Hindi on an exactly opposite route, and excluded regional languages along with tribal languages from the realm of journalism, education and academic discourses. These regional and tribal languages were mother tongues of the people from the so-called 'Hindi speaking' belt, but instead of

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their own languages being encouraged, the usage of Sanskritized Hindi was promoted. Though, Sanskrit language and its vocabulary were not used by native people in their day-to-day communication, they had to learn it. Most children who attended school didn't have much of a background, and thus Sanskrit language became only a technical necessity of the school curriculum. This further became a hurdle in acquiring knowledge and education. In the case of primitive tribes, Census of India 1931 observed that "the primitive tribesmany of them greatly handicapped in the acquisition of literacy by the fact that they are so-often given their primary education in a language which is not their own" (Hutton, 1933: 331). Census observed it only in the case of primitive tribes but this phenomenon was widely prevalent in other communities also.

Issue of Education via Mother Tongue

On the issue of regional language and education in the mother tongue, the pro-Sanskritized lobby was fanatic. They deliberately rejected any possibility giving space to the local languages. At the Haridwar session of the *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan*, *Janpad* resolution was passed in favour of regional language and literature (Chaturvedi, 1944: 1) and Rahul Sankrityayan favoured education in the mother tongue (Chaturvedi, 1944: 15) but both initiatives were criticized in the course of strengthening Hindi. Pro-Sanskritization lobby advocated centralization and opposed any kind of decentralization. Even the convener of the *Janpad* Committee Chandrabali Pandey was against this plan and he criticized the spirit of the plan and said "I don't give any importance to decentralization, I am fundamentally against it. I appreciate centralization." (Pandey, 1944:79-80) Needless to say, the process of 'nationalizing' Hindi was not broad-based and inclusive in its nature.

Arya Samaj and Sanskritization

On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, Hindi and Urdu languages were regarded as languages of the Hindu and Muslim communities respectively. Division on the line of religion was drawn in during the initial phase of this lobbying on the issue of scripts. Supporter of Nagari and later Hindi had carried Hindu identity in the public space. This identity correlated with their position on language. Earlier *Arya Samaj* played a decisive role in Hindi *Prachar* and related the language with Hindu community by the process of Sanskritization. According to Krishna Kumar; in course of India's reconstruction, Hindi "acquired the title of 'Aryabhasha' in Arya Samaj parlance, its Sanskritized form became a part and parcel of the movement's vision of a reformed Hindu society in which Vedic ideals would be practiced" (Kumar, 2005: 136).

Later, *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan* and *Nagari Pracharini Sabha* carried forward *Arya Samaj's* position and arguments. Ravishankar Shukla, a writer of *Sammelan* wrote about the issue, "we should not forget that despite millions of things, at last the matter of Hindi and Urdu is a matter of Hindu and Muslims" (Shukla, 1947: 72). Both these institutions had their branches in different parts of the country for facilitating Hindi propagation and even rulers of princely states were also involved in the issue.

Divine Nature of Sanskrit

In support of Sanskritised Hindi, the idea of divine nature of Sanskrit was invoked for

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Hindus while regarding it as the mother of Hindi language. In an editorial of literary magazine *Veena* this notion was expressed in the following words, “we are Aryans and Sanskrit has always been understood as our literary language” (1947: 516). Thus, using this argument Hindi was regarded as the elder sister of other Indian Languages (of course, excluding Urdu) and called for Hindi to be regarded as the national Language of India. This is a fact that during the 19th and 20th centuries Sanskrit was not a colloquial language. It might have been in usage hundreds of years ago, but it was not and is not the same in the present context. So, they declared that Sanskritized Hindi, a pure and divine language of Hindus, can only bear cultural heritage of the Hindu community.

This equation of Sanskrit and Hindi was also used as an argument in favour of Sanskritization of Hindi and its claim for the national language. *Nagari Pracharini Patrika*, an organ of the *Nagari Pracharini Sabha*, emphasised the relationship of Sanskrit and Hindi, “Sanskrit was the real national language of India, but now it can’t hold that prestigious status. Thus the language of the land, which is ‘same as the Sanskrit’ and ‘successor of the primitive tradition as well as bearer of contemporary concern’- i.e. Hindi, is the only natural successor of Sanskrit” (1940: 298). On the same track, Kanhaiyalal Manikyalal Munshi, who himself belonged to Gujarat, strongly stood in favour of this Sanskritization of Hindi, believed, “the so-called Sanskritization of Hindi and other languages is not a forceful activity. That is a natural re-purification of languages after the end of the invasion of foreign words” (Munshi, 1999: 26). He further declared that Sanskritized Hindi is the genuine national language and “the misconception about over-Sanskritization is spread by contemporary communal problems” (Munshi, 1999: 26).

Simultaneously, Gandhi, writers of Progressive Writers Association (PWA) and other Hindustani supporters proposed and tried to implement colloquial vocabulary instead of Sanskritized and Persianized vocabulary. This effort of the Hindustani supporters was criticized by the pro-Sanskritization Hindi lobby. Ravi Shankar Shukla commented on efforts of Gandhi and his Wardha committee in the following words, “Pretty and melodious slogan such as ‘bridging the gap between Hindi-Urdu’ means nothing but only removing Sanskrit words from Hindi and replacing [these] with Arabic-Persian words” (Shukla, 1946: 17). And similarly, an editorial of *Sarswati* expressed its displeasure for favour of local dialects, “some comrades undertook the responsibility of study of local dialects and adopting this narrowed circle, they put barriers in progress of Hindi” (1941: 91-92).

No Consideration of the Prevalence of Large Number of Tribal Languages in India

We already studied this tendency in the case of *Janpad Sammelan*. One point in this regard that should be mentioned here is that this lobby never dealt with tribal languages, which do not owe their origin to Sanskrit. Tribal languages have their own heritage and tradition. They belong to different language families, and thus did not fit in the logic of ‘all languages originated from Sanskrit and are therefore daughters of Sanskrit’.

At the same time *Rashtrabhasha Prachar Samiti* was founded by M.K. Gandhi. This *Samiti* worked mainly in the non-Hindi speaking belt with the aim of propagating *Rashtrabhasha* and Hindustani language. This institute carried forward Gandhi’s ideas on Language. Gandhi was in favour of Hindustani, which was defined by Gandhi in following words

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“Hindustani is the language which is spoken and understood and used by Hindus and Muslims both in cities and villages in North India and which is written and read both in the Nagari and Persian scripts and whose literary forms are today known as Hindi and Urdu.” (Gandhi, 1956: 113).

Inconsistency in Gandhi’s Stand

But Gandhi was not consistent on his stand in this regard. Initially he was in favour of Hindi or Hindi-Hindustani and in later years he came to support just Hindustani. He had not only presided over the annual sessions of *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan*, but also till 1945 he was a member of the *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan*. He resigned only after some of his followers questioned him over this duality of stand. However, he claimed that there wasn’t any contradiction between the ideologies of the Hindi Sahitya Sammelan and Hindustani Prachar Sabha (Gandhi, 1956: 133-34). Hence, Gandhi’s intervention in the matter of national language was not very effective. Progressive Writers Association also made intervention in this debate but even the use of Hindustani was not a justified solution for the linguistic diversity of India, because the issue of Hindi-Urdu-Hindustani concerned only northern India, and not the entire country. However, Hindustani used as an alternative would have been able to prevent the dispute between Hindus-Muslims, who were misusing languages for communal purposes; and masses would have benefitted.

Absence of Consistency in Arguments All Around

There was one special trend we can see in this debate that most of the personalities engaged in the controversy didn’t have a monolithic consistent position. Usually they showed inconsistencies and contradictions. Even people belonging to the same organisation expressed different views on different occasions. Their views were fluctuating according to the situation. If there was a gathering of Hindustani people, they mellowed down their tone and if there was a gathering of Pro-Hindi group they spoke in favour of Sanskritised Hindi. Occasionally these people also favoured Dialects and sub-languages of Hindi. However, this doesn’t mean that they were not consistent on their task, but this trend was a reflection of their tactics.

Impact of Sanskritization on Literary Activities, Educational Institutions and Politics

This pro-Sanskritization lobby had a considerable influence in the literary circles, educational institutes and politics. Many of these people had a strong relation with the Indian National Congress. Thus, they used various platforms to propagate Sanskritised Hindi. At one level, journals and magazines like *Saraswati*, *Sammelan Patrika*, *Nagari Pracharini Patrika*, and *Hindi* were standardizing Sanskritized Hindi and also producing knowledge and information in the same form of language. Amongst other methods, Sanskritised Hindi was put into usage by institutions like Banaras Hindu University and Dayanand Anglo-Vaidik institutions. Textbooks were the main area where this practice of Sanskritization of Hindi was most prevalent (Kumar, 2005: 137-43). Leader of this lobby included personalities like Purushottan Das Tondon, Seth Govind Das, and K. M. Munshi who were also members of the Constituent Assembly of India. Because of this influence Sanskritized Hindi was institutionalized in literary and academic circles and got the status of official language in the Constitution of India.

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Not Based on the Thrust or Quest for Knowledge

In India, the question of national language did not emerge as a result of the thrust for knowledge or renaissance but for the quest of political gain, i.e. status of national language or state language, which was going to provide not only a prestigious status but also gainful avenues and Sanskritized Hindi won the battle. This development led to unrest in other language regions. Anti-Hindi movement of southern India, especially in Madras, was a sheer expression of this unrest. On the other hand, Sanskritization of Hindi disabled majority of the people in education and other fields. This deprivation was even more for women and people belonging to the 'lower' and tribal castes, who already had extremely low literacy levels.

Changing Scenario

However, now-a-days, the scenario is changing gradually. Due to political-economic development and community level efforts, these marginalized people are able to access education. Also, following the legacy of Progressive Writers Association (PWA), Indian Peoples Theatre Association (IPTA) and other organisations, a stream of literary personalities engaging themselves with the concern of common people has emerged. They have been using colloquial language, exploring indigenous dialects and culture through their literary and academic works. The use of Sanskritized Hindi in academic and creative writing is decreasing and has now limited to its use in government offices.

Colophon:

This is a revised version of the paper presented in *Researcher at work, National Students Conference on Literary and Culture Studies-2011*, organized by the Centre of Comparative Literature, University of Hyderabad.

The author would like to thank Dr. Devendra Choubey, Dr. Jeetendra Gupta, Saroj R. Jha, Noorjahan Momin, Bhanwar Lal Meena, Om Prakash Kushwaha, Abhishek Kr. Yadav and the participants of the said conference for their input.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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The Status of Bangla and the English Language in Post-Colonial Bangladesh - Resistance versus Utility

**Sheikh Mehedi Hasan, Ph. D. Scholar
Adilur Rahaman, M.A. in English**

Abstract

There has been a considerable debate in the postcolonial world as to the language choice of the writers, since there is an inseparable connection between language, ideology and identity. Ngugi Wa Thiong'O (1986) argues that people should write in their ethnic languages to liberate their productive forces from foreign controls. On the contrary, Chinua Achebe is concerned with the pragmatic necessity of English. Bangladesh, being a former colony of Anglophone Empire, is not free from this debate.

In this study, the issues like how a language hegemonizes a community, how the imperial language in Bangladesh operates to re-colonize the mind of people are, addressed. Moreover, the paper examines the present status of Bangla in the face of the spread of English in Bangladesh and leaves the question of resisting linguistic imperialism to be considered.

Introduction

Language defines and determines one's place and identity in the world. According to Alastair Pennycook, language is an element of a broad semiotic system and it is formulated and

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infused with ideological, historical and political symbols (Akbari, 2008: 277). Therefore, language does not simply mean a set of sounds. It is completely intertwined with the lives of people. Sometimes, suppression of a language denotes subjugation of a community whereas enrichment of a language ensures the development of a nation (Siraji in Ullah, 2008: 34). A language demonstrates the identity of a person, his culture, values, and worldviews. Thus, using a language means viewing the world in a particular way.

For the last few decades, there has been a considerable protest against linguistic imperialism and hegemony around the world (see Shohamy, 2006 and Myers-Scotton, 2006). However, it is pitiful that in Bangladesh the scope for using Bangla is becoming narrower. In job sectors, multinational companies want their employees to be well-versed in English. People are indirectly being discouraged to learn Bangla, for it does not bring any material benefit. It just reminds us of the colonial education when British rulers patronized one group of Bengali community who mimicked English and excluded the other group who refused to be trained in English (Muhith, 1992: 37). Now questions are naturally raised whether we are being re-colonized by the English language and enriching someone else's language.

Colonial Language(s) Versus Ethnic Language(s)

Language, a source of empowerment, can be used as a tool of exploitation. It is, indeed, a discourse that is powerful enough to dominate a nation (Hasan, 2009: 43). Frantz Fanon (2008) in his foundational book *Black Skin, White Mask* underscores the violent role of a dominant language in shaping identity and culture of a colonized people. He (2008:8) puts it this way—"The negro of the Antilles (who represents every colonized man) will be proportionately whiter—that is, he will come closer to being a real human being—in direct ratio to his mastery of the French language". A nation, which possesses a language, possesses the world as knowledge and concepts are expressed and implied by that language. Fanon (2008:9) conceptualizes— "Mastery of language affords remarkable power". Moreover, "language shapes and develops a culture" (Hasan, 2009: 43)—a sensibility that is devastating enough to denounce the culture and custom of a colonized nation within itself.

Ngugi Wa Thiong'O, an African anti-imperialist writer and activist, denounced English and began to write in his own language. He argues that language has the power to imprison the souls of people. In addition, language is a means of spiritual subjugation. In his book, *Decolonizing the Mind: The Politics of Language in African Literature*, Wa Thiong'O (1986) recalls his experience in Kenya where English Empire marginalized ethnic languages, and imposed English on the people of that country. In 1952, Kenyan schools were taken over by the colonial regime and English became the language of formal education. In the Kenyan schools, speaking Gikuyu (an ethnic language) was forbidden; those who ignored this order received corporal punishment. In contrast, proficiency in English was rewarded by prize, prestige and applause. Literacy was determined by people's knowledge of the English language.

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Wa Thiong’O (1986:12) states— “thus language and literature [English] were taking us further from ourselves to other selves, from our world to other worlds”. They (the English Empire) systematically suppressed Kenyan languages and promoted English language and literature. He (1986:8) thus proposes that African writers should write in their own languages to liberate their productive forces from foreign controls:

“Why, we may ask, should an African writer, or any writer, become so obsessed by taking from his mother tongue to enrich other tongues? Why should he see it as his particular mission? We never asked ourselves: how can we enrich our languages?”

Chinua Achebe (1989), on the other hand, emphasizes practical implications of English in Nigeria. He holds that people with different nationalities can be combined by a neutral language, namely English. For instance, in Ghana, every class contains at least five language-speaking students. In this context, English can be a neutral choice. Achebe quotes from Bentsi-Enchill : “English is . . . the best vehicle for achieving national communication and political unification” (cited in Ashcroft et al., 2006: 271). He seems to believe that imperialism is not the result of disseminating English in India or Africa; European imperialism never forced natives to learn English; rather, people learned this language, considering its practical implications. However, Achebe’s argument effaces the true history of imposition of European languages and the Indian history testifies to such effacement.

What is wrong with the choice of language?

“The choice of language and the use to which language is put is central to a people’s definition of themselves in relation [to] their natural and social environment, indeed in relation to the entire universe” (cited in Hussain, 2007). Language cannot be separated from culture and identity. Linguistic and cultural symbolic system functions as a tool to socialize an individual, shapes his/her perceptions and persona (Kim, 2003). According to Banks, culture is a cluster of attributes such as values, beliefs, behaviour patterns and symbols unique to a particular group (ibid.) and language is the primary instrument in the adaptation and transmission of culture. Bourdieu states that “the value ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks and the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from larger networks of social relationships” (cited in Kim, 2003). Every time we speak, we are negotiating and negotiating our sense of self in relation to the larger social world, and reorganizing that relationship across time and space (Norton, 2009: 1-2).

Identity is viewed as a plurality construct. It is a person’s concept of the self and her interpretation of the social definition of the self within inner/outer group (Kim, 2003), which is constructed through language and it carries a person’s social position and power relation with society. Poststructuralist’s “subjectivity” concept offers two sets of relationship to understand a person’s identity: in a position of power and in a position of reduced power (Norton, 2009: 2). Some identity positions may limit and restrict opportunities; other identity

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positions may offer possibilities for social interactions and human agency. In Weedon's opinion, a person negotiates a sense of self through language and it helps a person gain access to powerful social networks that give her the opportunity to speak (ibid.).

Language carries axiology and ethics of a particular community; orature and literature affect the perception of people; that is, "how they look at their culture, at their politics and at the social production of wealth" (Wa Thiong'O, 1986:16). It is not possible to express moral, ethical and aesthetic values, using the language of someone else, since language contains the conception of right and wrong, good and bad, beautiful and ugly, courageous and cowardly, generous and mean (ibid., p-14). If we separate a person from his own language, he will lose his right to express, and eventually his existence in the world. Furthermore, renouncing one's own language and culture, for whatsoever reasons might be, only results in a state of dislocation and separation, which is akin to a psychotic condition, an identity crisis and national dilemma. A nation will lose its cultural originality if it fails to retain its language property. That nation will consequently be tinged with a sense of inferiority complex and thus try to adopt with the superior language and denounce its culture and identity.

Fanon (2008: 9) truly remarks—

“Every colonized people—in other words, every people in whose soul an inferiority complex has been created by the death and burial of its local cultural originality—finds itself face to face with the language of the civilizing nation; that is, with the culture of the mother country”.

How does a language hegemonize people?

“To speak a language is to take on a world, a culture” (cited in Hussain, 2007). Ives (2004) in his book *Language and Hegemony in Gramsci* discusses Gramsci's ideas of language and hegemony. Gramsci views language as political, which is evident in language policy, language education policy and day to day language of people. Hegemony signifies authority, leadership and domination. A group of people can dominate other languages, basing on their economic, political, social, and military power. For instance, capitalist hegemony constructs our everyday lives, emotions and concepts. We depend on language to interpret the world and create meanings. Gramsci's concept of hegemony contains both epistemological and philosophical elements. He states that philosophical arguments exist in common people, but they cannot articulate them. Philosophers use a certain kind of language to express their views and thus confound common people. For example, subaltern groups have their own concepts, worldviews and ideology, but they cannot express them through language. Consequently, they are dominated by those groups who can use language to manipulate others (Ives, 2004: 72-77).

Malhotra (2001) provides us with an interesting example to show how the relationship between language and hegemony works. For instance, the range of a particular word limits

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and restricts our thoughts. In economic context, the word “freedom” means—the freedom to exchange goods and money across borders. Swami Agnivesh, an Indian, questioned the concept of freedom in a conference of World Bank: “Why does freedom or free market not mean to open its borders to people, dismantle all immigrations and passports, in the name of globalization?” Thus the word “freedom” limits our freedom to think beyond what the West allows us to think. Malhotra (2001) puts it this way:

Skillful use of cultural language can and is used routinely to define a belief, subtly denigrate a community, appropriate another's ideas by clever renaming and re-mapping, and assert cultural hegemony over others . . . future norms, prejudices, and social positions among various groups will depend largely on the linguistic framework that becomes standard, making it imperative to participate in the process.

Malhotra (2001) offers another instance to demonstrate the connection between language and hegemony. There is a debate on “Creation” versus “Evolution”. In this debate, if we use English as our vehicle to think, we have only two options: “Biblical creation” and “Darwinian evolution”. We are offered to choose from these two alternatives. But Indian philosophy offers a different view regarding the evolution of consciousness—which is immanent and transcendent in nature. Thus, language excludes and hegemonizes knowledge, thoughts and ideas.

Sociolinguistic Condition of Bangla and its Implications:

The sociolinguistic status of Bangla can be examined in the light of its existing linguistic pedagogic condition and positional relativity with the dominant imperial language. So far as linguistic pedagogy is concerned, the national language curriculum did not make any systematic attempt to raise the standard of Bangla. Although NCTB (National Curriculum and Textbook Board) seems to be concerned about the learners’ improvement of four skills, it has failed to introduce any pragmatic methodology to teach Bangla. The process-oriented syllabus of NCTB (Bangla First and Second Papers) is admirable, but teaching and testing system is yet to be adjusted with the curriculum objectives. Siddiqui (2009) points out that the imposition of English at an early age has become catastrophic for the students’ language learning experience. With limited support from academic and sociological settings, learners find it difficult to acquire two languages simultaneously. This phenomenon is not only antagonistic to the cognitive development of the students, it leads to poor output in both L1 (Bangla) and L2 (English). Siddiqui (2009) remarks:

“The result was that by the end of the ten or twelve years of schooling the average students failed to achieve the desired proficiency in the mother tongue: poorly designed textbooks and inefficient teaching caused further damage. Nothing serious was done to raise the standard of textbooks, nor the quality of teaching”.

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Siddiqui's observation coincides with the consequence of Bilingual education policy of Singapore. Reviewing the effectiveness of Singapore's language policy, Wu Man-Fat (2005) points out that the compulsory bilingual education (English, Chinese, Malay and Tamil), as introduced in 1966 and 1969, was unsuccessful. Most of the students failed to master four languages simultaneously at both primary and secondary levels. To increase the literacy rate, government had to revise the bilingual education system in which students got the opportunity to learn only one language. Wu Man-Fat's finding (2005) implies that students learn better if they attempt to learn only one language at a time. However, L2 can be introduced gradually as the students grow older.

The other reason that lowered the standard of Bangla can be identified as the official attitudes towards publications. Standard writings and classics of Bangla literature, which are supposed to nourish the young minds, are not available in the market. As a result, the new generation remains ignorant of the best literary works in Bangla and fails to master the language. Siraji (2008:34) argues that without developing and enriching one's own mother tongue (here Bangla), it is a folly to expect national developments. However, most Bengali people tend to ignore this fact.

Any attempt to make Bangladesh an affluent nation would prove to be futile until and unless hundreds of writers, poets, and orators are produced in Bangla and history, philosophy and reference books are written and published in Bangla. Writing in other languages may ensure personal gain, but it will not help in making a developed nation.

We can consider the history of language enrichment and empowerment in the Arab world. When the Arabs started to conquer other countries, they enriched their language (Arabic) by translating history, culture and literature of the conquered. A great deal of books from Greek, Latin, Hebrew, and Chinese were rigorously translated into Arabic (Siraji in Ullah, 2008: 34). Since the European civilization emerged, books from Arabic, Persian, Chinese, and Sanskrit have been translated into English. English scholars are still working hard to enrich their language by translating books from other languages.

We read Freud, Fanon, Foucault, and Marx in English, since we have not translated these works into Bangla. As a result, our language remains deprived of the vast wealth of new developments in the domain of literature, philosophy, psychology and so on. Our intellectuals seem to be happy with a dwarf bilingual dictionary—that contains only fifty thousand entries (see Bangla Academy Dictionary, 2006).

Bangla vis-à-vis English

Exploration of sociolinguistic condition of Bangla in connection with English gives us an insight into understanding the ethno-linguistic vitality of the Bangla language. Literatures on the sociological status of the Bangla language recurrently blame the elites who appear to have

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negative attitudes towards Bangla. The rich class in the country seems to be interested in learning and enriching the English language.

Ibrahim (2008) states that the oppressed and underprivileged people have witnessed that those who live in posh areas and use luxurious cars do not speak in Bangla. In fact, a privileged elite class in Bangladesh has been formed through education in English medium, and attempts were made to provide an aristocratic space for the existing elites (in Ullah, p-1406). Ibrahim (2008) criticizes the intellectuals who designed the blueprint of blurring the wealth of Bangla and terms them hypocrites (in Ullah, p-1407). They are apparently spokespersons of Bangla, but send their offspring to English medium schools and envisage living in England or America. Most of the people in Bangladesh are nowadays educated in Bangla—but they are excluded from the job market. Only a few people educated in English are exploiting socio-economic opportunities.

Azfar Hussain (2007) rightly remarks:

...there are those deshi Shahebs in our country, ones who even go to the extent of taking pride in asserting that they cannot speak or write in Bangla, despite their Bangladeshi origin and their prolonged Bangladeshi upbringing. Think of some English professors in our country ones who can go on and on talking about staff like south Asian fiction in English, but who cannot tell you, for instance, who a Shah Muhammad Sageer is or who a Pagla Kanai is. Such folks can rightly be regarded as masquerading as the “educated” members of our society. And the lack of knowledge they happily show, full-of-themselves as they are, and the choice of language they make are by no means politically, culturally, and ideological[ly] neutral or innocent.

Resistance or utility?

The apathy of introducing Bangla in every sphere of life unveils our colonized mind and fake aristocracy. Some people feel proud of delivering speeches in English and keep an English book in their hands while traveling by train or plane. They declare boastfully—“I do not read Bangla novels” (Ibrahim in Ullah, 2008: 1407). Besides, the ideological enslavement of English medium students in Bangladesh is reflected in their lifestyle—their choice of literature, music, films, foods, and above all, their way of life. This re-colonization, of course, assists English nations in materializing their agenda of cultural, political and economic domination over peripheral and neo-peripheral countries. Sarker (2003:21) analyzes this fact in Indian contexts:

Needless to say that there is no colony visible here. Since Indians own central and state administrations, they are supposed to hold the liability and authority to devise laws for themselves. The Indian constitution itself determined the language policy. Nevertheless, an invisible power engulfs us as it did during the colonial regime. We are dominated by the notion: “if you know English, you would get prestigious

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jobs”. Formerly, “prestigious jobs” implied government services; however, fairly recently multinational jobs are in vogue. As a result, we are enchained by an internal colonialism economic in nature, which has replaced the former political colonialism (translated from Bengali).

However, can we totally deny the necessity of English? Can we do without English? Can we readily accept Raja Rao when he says: though English is not the emotional make-up of India, it is possible to infuse the tempo of Indian life into English (Ashcroft et. al., 2006: 276)? How can we bridle the monolingual (English Medium) trend of Bangladesh?

We would like to present two propositions. Firstly, our intellectuals can write in Bangla—whether it is research findings, philosophy, or voice of resistance. It will enrich the Bangla language and liberate us from the invasion of the colonizers’ language. If writers feel that global exposure is necessary, they can translate their writings into English. Secondly, to handle the “English Medium School” craze, linguists can propagate the advantages of bilingualism. For instance, Hakuta and Diaz (1985:320-344) in their article provide some research findings, underscoring the benefits of knowing more than one language.

The study of Bian and Yu shows that bilinguals outperform monolinguals while using language as a tool to monitor cognitive functioning and developing their ability to memorize information (in Hakuta and Diaz, 1985:340). In addition, they have more control over various steps in solving a problem. Ben-Zeev’s study (in Hakuta and Diaz, 1985) suggests that bilinguals have better analytical ability. In a matrix transposition task, bilinguals did better at separating and specifying the underlying dimensions of the matrix. Ben-Zeev mentions that “bilingual children seemed to approach the cognitive task in a truly analytic way” (cited in Hakuta and Diaz, 1985: 328). Cummin’s research lends a support for the view that bilinguals have better metalinguistic ability. He studied children’s awareness of the arbitrary nature of language in which bilinguals performed better (in Hakuta and Diaz, 1985). Hakuta and Diaz (1985:322) conclude that bilinguals outperform monolinguals in cognitive tests and subtests—even when group differences in sex, age, and socio-economic stature were carefully controlled. Bilinguals did better in verbal and non-verbal tests, in mental manipulation and recognition of visual stimuli, in concept formation and in symbolic flexibility. So, people may learn both Bangla and English with equal importance, but they must be aware of the ideological and hegemonic characteristics of the dominant language to resist the process of re-colonization.

Conclusion

From the onset of colonization, English became the language of domination and power. Some people of Bangladesh utilized this opportunity and they uplifted the position and prestige of English. As a result, Bangla has been neglected and the “wretched” people who are educated in Bangla receive no attention from the employers. Affluent people are now crazy to send their children to English medium schools, and these children are being brought up with a

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dogma that Bangla is not necessary for them. But it is high time we addressed the issue. Excessive concentration on the language of colonizers is likely to re-colonize the mind of the people. So, mass consciousness is necessary to ensure learning Bangla correctly so that it can broadly be used in the corporate world.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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“I almost learnt to learn”: Promoting Learner’s Autonomy through Project Based Learning in Access Classrooms

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Abstract

Project Based Learning as a method of language teaching has gained momentum in the last couple of decades. The method promises teaching not only language skills but life skills such as communication skills, team building and independent learning. The paper explores the impacts of Project Based Learning in English Access Classrooms, a project funded by the State Department of United States for the students studying in public sector schools in Multan, Pakistan. The results of the Project Based Learning are assessed by the analysis of data collected from the students through questionnaires and interviews. The results indicated that the project-based learning played a prominent role in not only improving the language skills of the students but it also made them autonomous learners. Based on the results of the study, Project-Based Learning as a teaching method is strongly recommended for other similar English Access classrooms.

Index Terms— English Access Micro-scholarship Program, Pakistan, Project Based Language Teaching

Introduction

Project Based Learning (PBL) is a method which incorporates language teaching along with other life skills such as problem solving, independent learning and presentation skills. Focusing on learners' needs, Project Based Learning makes the classrooms more student-centered. It allows the teachers to make the learning environment lively and use the authentic materials for language teaching. It encourages the learners to learn the language as they perceive the utility of their learning in their day to day communication.

The present study discusses the efficacy of Project Based Learning Method in creating learners' autonomy in English Access Micro-scholarship classrooms. So far, no such study has been conducted on Access Program in Pakistan. Sarwar (2000) has used a similar research framework to explore the impacts of Project Based Learning in promoting learner's autonomy among the college students in Pakistan. The present research has modified the research model used in Sarwar (2011) to better suit to the needs of the study. I will start with the introduction to the Access Program. After discussing the Research design, I will describe a model of Project Based Learning devised for the Access classrooms. I will then discuss the definition, characteristics and configurations of Project Based Learning which will be followed by the discussion on the results obtained through questionnaires and interviews.

A. English Access Micro-scholarship Program

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English Access Micro-scholarship Program is a project funded by the State Department of United States. The project aims at improving English Language skills of the students from the public sector schools, who are quite brilliant but are denied the possibility of getting higher education and better jobs because of their poor English language skills. Hence the project aims at bridging up the gap between the students from the government schools and English medium schools who are better trained in English language skills. The project also aims at teaching a syllabus approved by the State Department, on the history and culture of the U.S. Currently, the project is being administered in more than 85 countries and about 55,000 students around the globe have attended this program (website of the state department. http://islamabad.usembassy.gov/english_lang_programs.html).

The project started in Pakistan in 2000 and was introduced in Multan in 2006. 5 Government schools were declared Access Centres. 60 students from the government schools were inducted in each of the five centres. The Access classes are traditionally scheduled to be held for four hours after the school ends. The students are divided into two large groups and each group is taught for two hours by a Head Teacher and an Assistant teacher. However, the timings of the class vary in some of the centres according to the locality constraints for example, in Suraj Mianai Centre (a girls' centre), the attendance of the students in the second group was quite low because most of the students were not given permission by their parents to leave their homes late in the evening. Consequently, all 60 students were called for two hours, divided into two groups and each group was alternately taught by the Head Teacher and the Assistant Teacher.

Each Access Centre is equipped with 6 computers, portable speakers, a library consisting of around 300 books (fiction and non-fiction) and resource materials. The teachers are encouraged to keep the class rooms well-decorated, neat and clean. Access Program inculcates traveling with learning. The students get a chance to go on field trips and some of the very brilliant students also get a chance to visit United States on YES program for a year, Benjamin Franklin Program for 6 weeks or Access Workshop for two weeks.

Aims of the Project

The project aims at improving all four language skills of the students with special emphasis on the speaking skills. Furthermore, they are engaged in co-curricular activities such as debates, dramatics, poetry writing, role playing, singing, painting and community service. The two-year project is further divided into six semesters. World English Series, consisting of six books are the prescribed text books for Access Program by the State Department. In addition, the teachers are encouraged to use multiple resources for lesson planning. Lesson planning is centralized for all the five Access Centers. The academic team of ten teachers and a coordinator plan the lessons on

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weekly basis. Access Program aims at developing critical thinking among the students and making students the autonomous learners through a variety of teaching methods. One of such method is Project Based Learning. Access teachers and students report it as a huge success in terms of skill development, hence, the experience of PBL in Access classrooms warrants further analysis. The present study aims at finding out the answers to the following research questions:

How does Project Based learning help in developing Learner Autonomy among Access students?

The ancillary questions are:

Which activities in PBL encourage learner autonomy?

What are Access students' views on PBL?

What are the outcomes of PBL?

The Study

In this section, I will discuss the subjects, the instrument and the methods of data collection and analysis used in the study.

A. Subjects

The research participants are 52 students of English Access Micro-scholarship Program studying at Access Center Suraj Miani. All of them were female and their age ranged between 15 to 18 years. All the students chosen for the study were from public sector schools and they knew little or no English when they joined the program.

Students' responses were collected before they did project work through the interviews of 5 students, randomly selected and focus group discussion.

In the focus group discussion conducted before the project based learning was tried in the class, almost all the students reported that they considered their teachers responsible for their learning and none of them thought herself in-charge of her learning. In response to the question "Why are you studying the course of English Language at school?" most of the students reported that they are studying English language because it is a requirement to get the Matriculation degree.

None of them believed that they considered learning English language as an end in itself. S5 reported that she believed that the group work resulted in the wastage of time so she preferred studying individually. During an interview, S1 was asked if she were given a chance, would she

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like to learn English language. She replied that she considered herself “too stupid and dull to learn English language.”

When the students were asked if they could read a book and prepare posters on it, most of the students considered it impossible. The students selected for the study were not independent learners and none of them had ever done a project before. Moreover, the students from one particular Access Center were chosen to participate in the research because the researcher herself was the Head Teacher at Suraj Miani. Consequently, it was easy to access the participants and collect their feedback.

B. Research Instruments

The data for this study was collected through questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussion. Before the project work was done, the data was collected through interviews and focus group discussion, so that students’ views about learning and about themselves as learners could be explored in detail. At the end of the project work, the students’ responses were collected through the questionnaires and interviews.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part investigated the biographical information of the students such as their name, age, name of Access Center, time spent in Access Program, their interests and their score in English Examination for the last three years. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire which was developed by Pintrich et al. in 1991. The 7 point Likert Scale was changed into 5 point scale for this study. Furthermore, 32 items from the MSLQ were chosen and adapted for this study. The items chosen were further divided into 6 categories which were Intrinsic Value (4 items), Self Efficacy (7 items), Test Anxiety (5 items), Cognitive Strategy (10 items), Self-Regulation (3 items) and Peer Learning (2 items).

Other than questionnaires, the data was also collected through interviews. Out of 52 research participants, 5 students were randomly selected for the unstructured interviews. The students were ensured anonymity and confidentiality and they were encouraged to frankly share their experience. The pictures of the posters and reviews written by the students were also collected so that it could be analyzed later.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The MSLQ was administered at the end of the term when the students had already received grades for their project work. They were informed of the purpose of the survey and the fact that there were no correct or incorrect answers to any of the questions. They were asked to express

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their opinion by circling the right number given in front of the statement. The 52 questionnaires were collected and coded for further analysis. 5 students were randomly selected for interviewing. They were given codes S1, S2, S3, S4 and S5. A variety of themes were generated from the answers to the open ended questions, which were discussed in the later part of the paper. For detailed analysis of the students' responses, it is pertinent to understand what Project Based Learning is and how it was implemented in Access classrooms.

Theoretical Insights Into Project Based Language Teaching

Sarwar (2000) describes Project Based Learning as follows:

“a voluntary, collaborative or individual process initiated by the teacher to provide EFL learners a meaningful use of the target language outside the classroom. The contents of the project may or may not relate to the learners' prescribed curriculum. The focal aims are to give them opportunities to become fluent and confident in using English by utilizing and expanding their existing language repertoire.”

The definition is significant as it specifies that the project should be initiated by the teacher. Furthermore, the project should enable the learners to meaningfully use the target language in the real world. It enables the learners to communicate effectively. The method primarily targets the communication skills but it also focuses on life skills, such as critical thinking and team-building.

Similarly, Haines (1989) describes Project work as follows:

“Projects are multi-skill activities focusing on topics and themes, rather than specific language tasks. Students are closely involved in the choice of subjects matter within the project, decisions in working methods and timings and the form of the end product.” (p.110)

Haines (1989) focuses on the two characteristics of Project Based Learning, i.e., it is learner centred and it focuses on themes rather than the language tasks. Hence, the method is an extension of task based learning. Similarly, Stoller (2002) views project based learning as a method of language teaching that can be used in a variety of language teaching contexts:

“Project based learning should be viewed as a versatile vehicle of fully integrated language and content learning, making it a viable option for language educators

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working in a variety of instructional settings including General English, English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes and English for vocational/occupational /vocational /professional purposes, in addition to preservice and inservice teacher training” (p.109)

The definitions mentioned above view Project Based Learning as a multi-disciplinary approach, which is essentially student-centred. The teacher acts as a facilitator and the focus of the lesson is the topic or theme, instead of language skills.

Some of the characteristics of Project Based Learning, reported by Stoller (2002) are as follows:

1. “Project work is students-centred, though the teacher plays a central role in offering support and guidance throughout the process.
2. Project work is co-operative rather than competitive. Students can work on their own in small groups or as a class to complete a project, sharing resources, ideas and expertise along the way.
3. Project work leads to authentic integration of skills and processing of information from varied sources, mirroring real life tasks
4. Project work culminates in an end product (e.g an oral presentation, a poster session, a bulletin board display, a report or a stage performance) that can be shared with the others, giving the project a real purpose. The value of project, however, lies not only in the end product but in the process of moving towards the end point. Thus the project work has both a process and project orientation, and provides students with an opportunities to focus on fluency and accuracy at different project work stages.
5. Project work is potentially motivating, stimulating, challenging and empowering. It usually results in building students’ confidence, self-esteem and autonomy as well as improving students’ language skills, content learning and cognitive abilities.” (pg. no.)

A. Types of Projects

According to Stoller (2002), projects can be structured, un-structured or semi-structured.

Structured projects are determined by the teacher in terms of their methodology and

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presentation, semi-structured projects are determined both by the teacher and the students and un-structured projects are largely determined by the students themselves.

Haines(1989) describes the following types of projects:

- Information and research projects
- Survey projects
- Production projects
- Performance and organization projects

Information and research projects engage the students in collecting information by reading or searching the resource materials or using the internet for collecting materials. Survey projects necessitate students to collect data through questionnaires and interviews. However, Production projects are more suitable for the creative students with the artistic abilities, because such projects focus more on the photographs, illustrations and designs. The output of performance and organization projects is in the form of students' activities such as a drama performance, a debate or holding an election etc. which also develop creativity, critical thinking and administrative skills of the students.

B. Benefits of Project Based Learning

Vu Thi Thanh Nha(2009) points out the following merits of Project Based Language Teaching:

- Authentic tasks.
- Increased motivation
- A context is established.
- All four skills, reading, writing, listening and speaking, are integrated
- A flexible method.
- Other skills, such as interpersonal communication, are developed.

Project Based Learning focuses on using the target language for communicative purposes, hence, the students get an authentic input of the target language. They learn the communication skills they need in their everyday life. Furthermore, the students are trained

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to use their theoretical knowledge practically. Fried and Booth (1986) also highlight the usefulness of practical knowledge obtained through classroom teaching and its impacts on learners' motivation.

Hence, Project Based Learning bridges up the gap between theory and practice. Seeing language as a utility encourages the students to be more motivated to learn the language. Project Based Learning builds up a context in which the students practice the four language skills. The tendency is in contrast with the traditional classroom teaching where the language teaching is split up between different parts such as teaching of grammar, pronunciation, reading and speaking skills. Rather it integrates all four language skills. The quality results in allowing the students to be creative, innovative, as well as focus on the accuracy of the target language. The method has an additional merit of being flexible, as it caters to the different styles of language learning.

Project Based Learning is essentially student-centred, consequently, it makes the students in-charge of their own learning. The method results in developing other life skills, making the experience of learning more fruitful for the learners. Project work gives the students the chance of working with other group members and they learn to collaborate, share and develop a positive image of themselves as learners.

Project work enables the teacher to develop links between various disciplines, e.g. a history project done in an EFL class room allows the students to use language to describe history. Similarly, the students who are weak in the language skills might be good at something else e.g. drawing, geography etc. Consequently, all the students develop a positive image of themselves as learners.

Project based Language Teaching is quite flexible so it can be adapted to suit the needs of a variety of learners in a variety of contexts. Keeping in view the various learning environments where project work can be used, the role of the teacher is also variable and quite flexible.

C. Role of the Teacher in Project Based Language Teaching

PBL is essentially a learner-centred approach and the role of the teacher is only to facilitate the students in the process of learning. Chytilova (2007:19) points out that a teacher plays the following roles in Project Based Language Teaching:

a. Initiator

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The teacher usually decides when the project will start, how much time would be devoted to it and how would it develop and be evaluated.

b. Organizer

The teacher usually organizes the whole activity of the project. He/she plans the groups, the work to be done at each stage, the time allotted for each of the stages of the project and how the final display will be carried out.

c. Source of Information, Guide and Advisor

Though the project based learning is largely student-centred, the teacher is the source of information, guide and advisor. The teacher can help the students in collecting information, suggest the resource material or advice on how to present it.

d. Monitor and Referee

The teacher plays a role in monitoring how the project is being done. He/she makes sure that all the students participate and collaborate.

e. Evaluator

The teacher can play a role in evaluating the project. After the final display, the teacher can initiate a process of reflection on how the students achieved the final out comes of their project. The teacher can add his or her remarks as well.

D. Role of Project Based Learning in Promoting Learners' Autonomy

Cotterall (1995) describes Autonomy as “the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning.” (p.195-205) Hence, learners’ autonomy refers to the techniques used by the learners for being responsible of their learning. Zimmerman (1986) notices that autonomous learners monitor and control their learning by devising certain strategies. Similarly, Nejad (Cited in Yapping: 2005) believes that autonomy is a learned response that could be taught and developed in the class rooms. Consequently, learners’ autonomy is viewed as a skill which can be developed among the students through carefully planned techniques such as Project Based Learning. Yapping (2005) believes that autonomous learners are meta-cognitively, behaviorally and motivationally active participants in their own learning process. One of the aims of English Access Micro-scholarship Program is to make the students independent in their learning process, hence, Project Based Learning is viewed as an important instrument in achieving the objectives of Access Program.

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Implementation of Project Based Learning in Access Classrooms

In the present study, the ten-step procedure for implementing Project Based Learning given by Stoller (2002) was used:

A. Phase 1

Students and Instructor agreed on a theme for the Project.

The Access teacher showed the pictures of another project exhibition to the students. They were told that they can also do a similar project on one of the assigned books. The students were initiated to make groups of five each and select a name of their group. The students did a brain storming session on choosing an appropriate theme and a title of the exhibition.

B. Phase 2

Students and instructor determined the final outcome of the project.

Access teachers and the students decided which form their project should take. They chose from the options of writing a report, performing a skit on the theme of the novel, giving a Power point presentation and a Poster presentation along with oral presentation, preparing a brochure and a video. The students decided that their projects would be displayed in the form of posters. Placing card board models is an optional part of the presentation. The group leaders will prepare a 10 minutes presentation on the work of their group. They would also describe their experience of learning through project work.

C. Phase 3

Students and instructor should structure the project.

Once the final outcome was determined, the group leaders were asked to select one book from the Access Library, which most of the members of their group had read and they found it appropriate for presenting on it. The students and the instructor decided the ways of getting information to be presented. Since the students were assigned the reading projects, the planning of the projects included reading or re-reading of the assigned book. The students planned to gather information through internet, newspapers and resource books. At this stage, the teacher also specified an evaluation criterion of their project presentation, which was as follows:

TABLE 1
PROJECT ASSESSMENT RUBRIC

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Evaluation criteria on Tasks	Weightage
Having a clear idea of the kind of plot the assigned book has.	20%
Critical evaluation of some of the characters and analysis of the theme.	10%
Setting of the novel	10%
Some interesting observations about the book (the relevance with current Pakistani socio-political scenario)	10%
Poster presentation (the clarity of the visuals, appropriateness and relevance)	30%
Oral presentation (correct language, appropriate body language, maintaining an eye-contact)	10%
Team building skills and working in a group	10%

The students were promised participation certificates and a prize for the best group presentation. They were also promised a party by the Head Teacher on a good performance by the whole class. Phase 3 was completed in one week.

D. Phase 4

The instructor designed the activities to cater to the language needs of the students for the task of gathering information.

In this phase, the instructor assessed which language skills should be needed by the students for the task of gathering information. The students were supposed to read from internet, newspapers and books to gather information. Consequently, the language activities planned focused mostly on teaching the basic reading skills such as skimming, scanning and critical reading.

E. Phase 5

Students gathered information

Once the students were equipped with the required linguistic skills, they gathered information using internet, newspapers, resource books, encyclopedias etc. At this stage, the instructors helped the students by bringing pictures, materials, videos or by giving ideas on collecting the relevant material. All the students were asked to report twice a week on their progress in collecting the required information.

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F. Phase 6

Instructors prepared the students for the linguistic demands of compiling and analyzing information.

Once the students collected the information on their assigned topic, they started working on compiling it, choosing the most appropriate materials and summarizing it. For this purpose, the teachers planned the activities on précis writing, critical thinking and proof reading.

G. Phase 7

Students compiled and analyzed the information.

Once the students collected all the information, they had to compile and organize it appropriately for the presentation. At this stage the students within each group divided the work among themselves and started working on it. In most of the cases, they volunteered to work on the sections they felt comfortable working on.

H. Phase 8

The instructor prepared the students for the language demands of the culminating activity.

The instructor prepared the students for the final presentation of their projects. For this purpose, presentation skills were improvised through different classroom activities. The students gave mock presentations in the class and they were given feedback on various aspects of oral presentation skills such as voice quality and maintaining an eye-contact etc. Furthermore, the teachers reviewed all the material written by the students to be presented on the posters.

I. Phase 9

Students presented the final out-come of their project.

In this phase, the students planned the final outcome of their projects in the form of posters and card-board models. Each group prepared a ten minute presentation which was in some cases delivered by the group leaders and in other cases, delivered by the whole group. The principal of the Government Girls High School, Suraj Miani visited the poster exhibition of the students. Officials from the U.S. Consulate Lahore also attended the presentations and encouraged the students.

J. Phase 10

Students evaluated each-others projects.

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In the last phase, the students were asked to provide feed-back on the presentations of each group. They pointed out the positive and negative aspects of each other's work.

At the end of the successful completion of the project, 5 students were randomly selected for interviews and all the participants filled in the Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire, adapted for the present study. The following themes emerged as a result of the unstructured interviews:

Outcomes of Project Work: Themes Generated Through Interviews

Sarwar (2000) in a research on college students in Pakistan reported that lack of time, anxiety and group dynamics were the major problems encountered by the college students while doing project work. In the present study, Access students also reported the above mentioned three problems they encountered, in addition to another problem i.e. the lack of facilities. They also reported the impacts of Project Based Learning in making them autonomous learners.

A.Lack of Time

The project work from the first stage to the last was finished up in 2 weeks. However, almost all the students expressed lack of time as a major problem they encountered while working on the project. All the participants of the research were the female students and in their traditional setting, they were supposed to do house chores at home before coming to the school and after going back from the Access Class.

S4 mentioned that she could not do as well as she wanted to because she could spare very less time at home for studies. According to her, she had no time for herself and whatever time she spent on research was the time she was supposed to give either to her family or for doing house chores.

S1 shared her daily routine with the researcher. According to her account, she wakes up at 4 o' clock in the morning, washes the veranda of her home, feed the cattle, cooks breakfast for her younger siblings and washes clothes on alternate days before coming to school. When her regular classes are off at 2 o' clock in the afternoon, she rushes back to her home, takes her lunch and comes back for Access class. After going back from Access class, she is supposed to do washing, teaching her younger siblings (Her parents are illiterate and she is the eldest of her brothers and sisters), cooking the dinner and taking care of the cattle. She complained of having very little time for doing her home-work and according to her, project work added burden to her already hectic routine.

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S3 said, “I had to prepare for my Intermediate Board Examination and I could not spare enough time for my project work. If I had more time, I could learn much better.” According to the students’ responses, lack of time was seen as a major problem, primarily because of the fact that Access students belonged to the under privileged back grounds and almost all of them had to help either in taking care of their siblings or doing house chores. Furthermore, they had to cope up with their regular study programs so finishing up the project work in the allocated time was a bit difficult for some of them. The problem can be solved by allocating more time to the students for doing their projects.

B. Nervousness Due to the First Experience of Project Based Learning

Some of the students reported feeling quite nervous and tensed initially when they thought of working on the project.

S3 said, “I felt extremely confused and tensed because I had not done anything like that before.”

S5 mentioned, “When I came to know that we would be graded on the basis of our project work, I thought that I was not going to even pass my examination. I kept on thinking that I would fail.” Such responses indicate that the students had previously studied in a teacher-centered environment and taking the responsibility of their own learning was a completely novel experience for some of them.

C. Group Dynamics

The students also reported that while doing projects, their work was affected by the group dynamics.

S1 said, “Whenever the whole group sat down for working, everyone wanted to do things their way.”

S3 also expressed the similar problem, “Nobody could agree on one thing so all the group members were ready to fight all the time.” S3 was the only student who complained of not enjoying the project work because of group dynamics.

The rest of the students expressed that they enjoyed group work but they reported taking some time to get settled with each other. Such responses indicate that cooperative learning was a new experience for most of the students. Although group work is done in Access classes before as well, but doing something as important as formally presenting their project work in front of so many people was a new experience for them.

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D. Lack of Facilities

Some of the Access students reported having insufficient number of computers as a major hurdle in searching material for the project.

S3 reported, “We had only five computers at our center and only one computer could have the internet facility at one time. Project work taught us how to learn, but in my case, I almost learnt to learn.. If there were better facilities of research, I am sure I would have learnt even better.”

None of the research participants had any computer at their homes and they were not allowed to use internet cafés by their families because it was considered a morally bad influence on the female students.

I have chosen a phrase from S3’s remark as the title of my research paper because it best describes how the efficacy of the project work is affected by the ground realities faced by the Access students. Most of the students reported that the effectiveness of the project work could be increased in future by providing better facilities of computers and internet in Access class rooms.

E. Role of the Teacher

Teacher played the role of the guide and initiator.

S4 noted, “When we were stuck and could not think of how to work, our teacher gave us ideas.”

S3 reported, “Our teacher kept on helping us with vocabulary and language skills. The project really helped us to improve our English language.” Some of the students also reported that their teacher ensured that each group manages time effectively and all the members are engaged. The teacher assessed the knowledge of the students by asking questions from any of the group members about their group work at the time of submission of the project.

Results Obtained Through Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The results obtained through questionnaires reveal a significant change in learners’ beliefs about the process of learning and of themselves as learners. In the following section, the results obtained through MSLQ will be analyzed and discussed to evaluate the efficacy of the project work in making Access students the autonomous learners.

A. Intrinsic Goal Orientation

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Intrinsic goal orientation refers to the reasons for which a student participates in a task. Having an intrinsic goal orientation towards an academic task means that a student considers his/her participation in that academic task as an end in itself. The results obtained through the questionnaires show very high values of Intrinsic Goal Orientation:

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Intrinsic Goal Orientation and its 4 Items

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 1	52	2	3	5	4.4482	.569	.329
Item 2	52	3	2	5	4.310	.120	.34
Item 3	52	2	3	5	4.655	.53	.282
Item 4	52	2	3	5	4.2758	.83	.69

Item 3 (The most satisfying thing for me while doing my academic work is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible) has the highest mean (i.e. 4.655). Similarly, item 1 (While working on an academic assignment, I prefer material that really challenges me, so that I can learn new things) also has a high mean 4.4482. The results indicate that Access students see learning as an end in itself.

B. Expectancy for Success

Expectancy for success refers to performance expectation primarily task performance. It relates to the expectations of a student about how well, he/she is going to do in a task. The results obtained through MSLQ were as follows:

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of the 7 items of Expectancy for Success

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 5	52	3	2	5	4.4482	.626	.3924
Item 6	52	2	3	5	4.310	.630	.397
Item 7	52	3	2	5	4.2068	.923	.852
Item 8	52	2	3	5	4.3793	.760	.578
Item 9	52	2	3	5	4.4482	.624	.390
Item 10	52	2	3	5	4.5517	.622	.387

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Item 11	52	2	3	5	4.3793	.672	.452
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Item 5 (I believe I will get an excellent grade when my work is evaluated) and 9 (I expect to do well in my class) have the highest mean i.e. 4.4482. Item 7 (I am certain I can understand the basic concepts related to the topic assigned) has got highest Standard Deviation. The highest value obtained through data is 5 and the lowest value is 2 for item 5 and 7 which shows that the students' responses range quite a lot.

The results indicate that Access students in general expected to do well in their academic work, however, there are a few students who have doubts about how well they are going to do. The results obtained through interviews also reveal that the students doing projects for the first time had doubts about their performance initially. Most of the students developed a huge expectancy for success but the others did not, probably because of the fact that the Project Based Learning, as a method was being used in the Access Classrooms for the first time.

C. Test Anxiety

Test Anxiety negatively affects self-performance as well as, academic performance. It has two components: Cognitive component and emotionality component. Cognitive component refers to students' negative thoughts and emotionality component refers to physiological aspects of anxiety. Test anxiety is considered one of the major sources of poor academic performance.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the 5 items of Test Anxiety

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 12	52	4	1	5	3.2758	1.58	2.5
Item 13	52	4	1	5	4.0689	1	1
Item 14	52	4	1	5	3.3448	1.24	1.55
Item 15	52	4	1	5	2.8620	1.41	1.98
Item 16	52	4	1	5	2.7586	1.33	1.78

The results obtained through MSLQ reveal that the highest mean value obtained is of item 13 (When I am taking a test, I kept on thinking about those things that I did not know, or explored.) i.e. 4.0689 whereas, the highest Standard Deviation is of item 12 (When I think about evaluation of my project, I think about how poorly I am doing as compared with other students) i.e. 1.58. The lowest standard deviation is item 13, which shows its very less frequency of occurrence. The results indicate that the participants of the research have varied responses about their being

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effected from test anxiety with quite a lot of range between them. It implies that most of the students had less test anxiety as a result of Project Based Learning, but still the others had a lot of test anxiety probably because of the fact that it was the first time when Project Based Learning was done in the class.

D. Cognitive Strategy (Elaboration)

Elaboration strategy enables the students to store information in long term memory by building internal connections between different items learnt. It includes skills such as paraphrasing, summarizing, creating analogies and note taking. The descriptive statistics of the cognitive strategy of elaboration are given below:

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Cognitive Strategy (Elaboration) and its 10 items

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 17	52	2	3	5	4.5862	.67	.45
Item 18	52	3	2	5	4.4137	1.6	2.60
Item 19	52	2	3	5	4.4482	.72	.52
Item 20	52	2	3	5	4.5172	.82	.67
Item 21	52	2	3	5	4.5517	4.04	16.34
Item 22	52	2	3	5	4.3793	.707	.5
Item 23	52	4	1	5	4.6896	1.87	3.50
Item 24	52	2	3	5	4.4827	.69	.48
Item 25	52	2	3	5	4.3448	.69	.48
Item 26	52	2	3	5	4.5517	.06	.36

The highest mean is of item 23 (When I study, I try to outline material to help me organize my thoughts) whereas the highest standard deviation is of item 21 (While working on the academic assignments, I write brief summaries of the main ideas from the readings and concepts from the lectures) which show that its frequency of occurrence is quite high among the students. The students were given a lot of practice in summarizing, précis writing and looking for the main idea in *phase 6* of the project implementation. The highest standard deviation of item 21 shows that the students are using those skills to work out the final outcome of their project.

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E. Self-Regulation

Self-regulation refers to the students' ability to control their effort in spite of all the uninteresting tasks and distractions. Self-regulation is the effort management and it reflects a commitment to complete the tasks in the face of all the difficulties.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Self-Regulation and its 3 items

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 27	52	4	1	5	4.1379	.89	.08
Item 28	52	3	2	5	3.5862	1.15	1.34
Item 29	52	3	2	5	4.2413	.634	.402

Item 27 (I often felt so bored or lazy when I am working on academic assignments that I quit working before I finished what I was doing) has a very high range varying from the maximum value of 5 to the minimum value of 1. Item 30 (Even when the academic assignment was uninteresting, I managed to keep working until I finished) has the highest mean i.e. 4.2413 which shows that by and large, the participants remained motivated to finish their projects.

F. Peer Learning

Peer learning refers to the collaboration with one's peers to improvise the quality of learning and clarify the course material. It is considered to have a very positive impact on the process of learning.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Peer Learning and its 2 items

	Number	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Item 30	29	2	3	5	4.5517	.635	.404
Item 31	29	2	3	5	4.5862	.485	.236

Both the items 30 (While working on the assignments, I often tried to explain the material to a classmate) and 31 (I tried to work with the other students from this class to complete the course assignments) have a very high mean i.e. 4.5517 and 4.5862 respectively. Many students also mentioned in the unstructured interviews that the experience of working in a group had a very positive impact on their learning process.

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Conclusion

The study tells us that Project Based Learning as a method is highly successful in encouraging confidence among students in Access Classrooms. Access Classrooms comprise of the students from humble back grounds and one of the aims of English Access Micro-scholarship Program is to develop a positive self-image of students as learners.

While doing the projects, the students learn not only language skills but also life skills such as working in a team, self-regulation, self- motivation and time management. Their achievement exhibited in the form of their posters and the appreciation they received at the exhibition developed a very positive self-image of the students as learners. Furthermore, Project Based Learning helped to develop learners' autonomy among the students.

The results obtained from the questionnaires and interviews clearly indicated that Project Based Learning taught them skills to be independent learners. The method could be made more successful for future access classes by providing the students with better research facilities and providing more time for doing the projects. Learners' anxiety also needs to be controlled by providing more encouragement to the students so that the results of the learning could be made maximum.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA
Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow
Volume 12 : 1 January 2012
ISSN 1930-2940

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Teaching Diaspora Literature to ESL Students - An Overview

J. Abiraami, M.A., M.Phil.

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Abstract

Migration is a customary and acknowledged activity not only of animals and birds but also of human beings. It has been taking place since the historical past because it is a necessary and inevitable part of the developmental process. It is argued that people's movements contribute to the prosperity and a better way of life for the migrants. The origin of the English language began, only when the people who were living around the Black Sea moved towards Western and Eastern direction by around 3000 BC. The movement formed the Indo-European family of languages, from which the English Language evolved.

The term *diaspora* is synonym to the term migration. Migration – the human face of globalization attempts to show the relationship between culture and development. Traditions may undergo changes due to the change of social environment. Though migrants had enriched their social and economic status, migration also accentuates inequalities and losing their own identity in hostile environment.

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This paper explores the issues in defining *diaspora* and diaspora literature, outlines connections between diaspora writers and offers reasons for teaching diaspora literature to ESL students.

Introduction

Displacement and relocation is a part of human life. It can bring a lot of changes in one's life. Significant movement of population took place as result of economic deprivation and political upheavals in their land of birth.

The process of migration leads to mingling of culture and it gives a set of perspectives about the relations between ideas and practices of different people and their cultures. Hence diaspora writing paves the way for understanding the concept of 'displacement' and narrates a harsh journey undertaken on economic compulsion.

Focus of Diaspora

The emergence of the study of diaspora for ESL is fairly recent. It has been increasingly receiving academic and disciplinary recognition.

Research on diaspora is currently conducted from numerous perspectives including sociology, anthropology, human geography, international migration, post colonialism, political economy and communication. Generally speaking, diaspora is a minority community living in exile. But, at present, it refers to anybody living outside of their traditional homeland. It is used to describe the social, cultural and political formations that result from this displacement.

The Term *Diaspora*

Etymologically, the term *diaspora* is drawn from Greek meaning 'to disperse' and signifies a voluntary or forcible movement of the people from the homeland into new regions. A typical example of diaspora is given by the *New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus of English Language*: "the dispersed Jews after the Babylonian captivity". However, the terms *diaspora* and diaspora communities are increasingly being used as metaphoric definition for expatriates, expellees, refugees, alien residents, immigrants, displaced communities and ethnic minorities.

The Online dictionary <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/diaspora> presents the following description for the word:

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The history of the term *diaspora* shows how a word's meaning can spread from a very specific sense to encompass much broader ones.

Diaspora first entered English in the late 19th century to describe the scattering of Jews after their captivity in Babylonia in the 5th century B.C.E. The term originates from the Greek *diaspora*, meaning “a dispersion or scattering,” found in Greek translations of the Hebrew Bible (Deuteronomy 25). While this specific historical sense is still used, especially in scholarly writing, modern-day definitions of the Jewish Diaspora (often with an initial capital letter) can refer to the displacement of Jews at other times during their history, especially after the Holocaust in the 20th century. The term can also refer generally to Jews living today outside of Israel.

Diaspora also has been applied to the similar experiences of other peoples who have been forced from their homelands; for example, to the trans-Atlantic passage of Africans under the slave trade of the 17th through 19th centuries, which has been called the African Diaspora.

More recently, we find a scattering of the meaning of diaspora, which can now be used to refer not only to a group of people, but also to some aspect of their culture, as in “the global diaspora of American-style capitalism.”

Focus of Diaspora Literature Writers

Diaspora literature writers tend to portray the cultural dilemmas, the generational differences, and transformation of their identities during displacement. Their living in-between condition is very painful and they stand bewildered and confused. They are deeply attached to their centrifugal homeland and they caught physically between two worlds and this double marginalization negates their belonging to either location.

ESL and Diaspora

As learners of ESL, we can identify the tremendous creativity of the immigrant writers. Through their literary articulation, migrants took English as a means of communication and became spokesperson of his/her distinct identity and thereby put forth the motion of cultural distinctiveness. Their political unrest and the amalgamation of various issues like apartheid, ‘state of in-betweenness,’ and seeking for their identity are well expressed in their works.

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Some of the famous Indian diaspora writers are Bharathi Mukerjee, Jhumpa Lahiri, Salman Rushdie, Uma Parameswaran, V.S. Naipaul who have chosen literature as a channel to pour out their passions and emotions. They express their longing for their old country while at the same time they also portray an objective picture of Indian society. Though they migrated to different countries in search of better economic prospects, they consider 'India' as 'Home' a safe place, where there is no need to justify themselves to others. But, as members of diaspora they ought to redefine their own identity in the hostile environment. They are caught between two cultures and one can experience the conflict between the Indian ethos and the forces of marginal existence in the adoptive country.

A Wider Perspective

By analyzing their works, students of ESL can envisage the native consciousness of the immigrants. The diaspora discourses give an insight into the ethnic pluralism of different countries. It offers a fresh outlook and expands its vocabulary in order to accommodate the diversity of multicultural reality.

Despite the variations, a thread of certain common themes runs through the diaspora writing and learners of ESL in South Asia will be able to relate to the content easily.

The common thread includes the following:

- (i) They or their ancestor have been dispersed from a special original centre or two or more peripheral of foreign region.
- (ii) The displacement leads to mingling of culture which influences the beliefs and attitudes of individuals as well as those of the community.
- (iii) Traditions may undergo a change due to the change of social environment.
- (iv) They acquired the citizenship of the foreign countries and it becomes the usage of the host country.
- (v) They play a significant role in the lives and societies of the country of its adoption as well as the country of its origin.
- (vi) They have an international audience and an international mindset.

Conclusion

Extracting, appreciating and creating beauty is the main objective of studying literature. Interestingly, there is an interrelation between life and literature, literature and language and

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language and life. In any society, all these components are important and inseparable. Among them, life provides the base and then language evolves and using the language the literary works are created. In literature different writers have been influenced by different aspects and provide common basis for valid generalization. Diaspora literature made a significant contribution to Indo-English literature by its rich exposure to multiculturalism.

Though the sense of displacement may be an essential condition of diaspora literature, it is not experienced precisely with the same identity by all; it differs according to time and place. The spirit of exile and alienation enriches the diaspora writers to seek rehabilitation in their writing and establish a permanent place in the minds of readers. A large number of diaspora writers have given expression to their creative urge and have brought credit to the Indian English fiction as a distinctive force. Hence ESL learners can read and appreciate the great works of the diaspora writers and be aware of the intrinsic value of Indian Literature.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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The Applicative Suffix *-na* in K'cho

Kee Shein Mang, M. A.

George Bedell, Ph. D.

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The K'cho language is spoken in southern Chin State, Myanmar, primarily in Mindat Township. The population of K'cho speakers is somewhere between 10,000 and 20,000. K'cho has no generally accepted standard orthography; we have tried to follow the most widely used conventions, as seen in Jordan (1969) and *Ng'thu K'thai* (The New Testament, 2001) but supplemented by distinguishing long from short vowels (doubling the former) and tones (marked only for content words; a grave accent indicates a low tone and an acute accent a rising tone; unmarked syllables have a high tone). See Nolan (2002) for more details concerning K'cho phonology and orthography. Mang is responsible for the principal examples, and most of arguments and conclusions of this paper. Bedell is responsible for the structure diagrams and for the English text. Examples with chapter and verse citations are taken from 'Màtheiù' (the Gospel according to Matthew) in *Ng'thu K'thai* (2001).

Applicative *-na*. The K'cho language has a suffix *-na*, illustrated in (1) and (2).

- (1) *Ak'hmó noh k'khim luum-na(k) ci.*
child P knife play-na NF
The child played with a/the knife.
- (2) *Om lah Tam noh htung cuh ui thah-na(k) ci goi.*
Om and Tam P stick D dog beat-na NF DL
Om and Tam beat a/the dog with the stick.

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If the suffix *-na* is removed, the structure and meaning of the sentence must change, as illustrated in (3) and (4).

- (3) *Ak'hmó luum ci.*
 child play NF
 The child played.
- (4) *Om lah Tam noh ui that ci goi.*
 Om and Tam P dog beat NF DL
 Om and Tam beat a/the dog.

The verb *luum* 'play' in (3) is intransitive, with a single subject argument (*ak'hmó* 'child'). The verb *luum-na* in (1) is however transitive, with an object argument (*k'khim* 'knife') in addition to the subject. The postposition *noh* in (1) marks the subject of a transitive verb. It cannot appear in an intransitive sentence like (5), nor can an object appear whether or not *noh* is there as in (6) or (7).

- (5) **Ak'hmó noh luum ci.*
 child P play NF
- (6) **Ak'hmó k'khim luum ci.*
 child knife play NF
- (7) **Ak'hmó noh k'khim luum ci.*
 child P knife play NF

The verb *that* 'beat' in (4) is transitive with a subject argument (*Om lah Tam*) and an object argument (*ui* 'dog'). The verb *thah-na* in (2) is however ditransitive, with a second object argument (*htung cuh* 'the stick') in addition to the subject and object of *that*. Note that *noh* appears in both (2) and (4). But just as in (6) or (7), no second object may not appear without *-na*.

- (8) **Om lah Tam noh htung cuh ui that ci goi.*
 Om and Tam P stick D dog beat NF DL

When suffixed to a verb in cases like these, *-na* creates a derived verb with one more argument than the base verb, but without changing the status of the pre-existing arguments. Suffixes like this are often called 'applicative suffixes' and the verbs they create, 'applicative verbs'.

Stem Alternation. As illustrated in (1) and (2), *-na* appears followed by the consonant *k*. As argued in Nolan (2002), this *k* does not belong to *-na*, but is inserted following verb stems whose final syllable is open and has a short vowel before the tense markers *ci* (non-future) and *khai* (future). No such *k* appears in (3) or (4) since the phonological condition is not met. As shown in (9) and (10), when neither *ci* nor *khai* directly follows *-na*, no *k* appears.

- (9) *k'khim luum-na ne*
 knife play-na C
 playing with a/the knife
- (10) *htung cuh ui thah-na ni ne*
 stick D dog beat-na DL C
 beating a/the dog with the stick

On the other hand, any word meeting the conditions (here the inceptive auxiliary *lo*) will appear with *k*, as in (11) and (12).

- (11) *Ak'hmó luum lo(k) ci.*
 child play begin NF
 The child began to play.
- (12) *Om lah Tam noh ui that lo(k) ci goi.*
 Om and Tam P dog beat begin NF DL
 Om and Tam began to beat a/the dog.

The form *-na* which we see in (9) and (10) as well as in (1) and (2) when the *k* is excluded, has a high tone. But there is another form *-nák*, seen in (13) and (14), which has a rising tone and a final *k*.

- (13) *Ak'hmó noh k'khim a luum-nák ung*
 child P knife 3 play-na when
 when the child played with a/the knife
- (14) *Om lah Tam noh htung cuh ui ani thah-nák ung*
 Om and Tam P stick D dog 3DL beat-na when
 when Om and Tam beat a/the dog with the stick

Like many K'cho verbs, *-na* exhibits stem alternation: depending on the syntactic context and on pragmatic factors, either the stem I form (*-na*) or the stem II form (*-nák*) is used. In (1) and (2) we see the stem I form, but in (13) and (14) the stem II form. When *-na* attaches to a verb, that verb appears in its stem II form. Thus the stem I form *luum* has a low tone in (3) and (11), but the stem II form *luum* has a high tone in (1), (9) and (13). The stem I form *that* has a syllable final *t* in (4) and (12), but the stem II form *thah* has a syllable glottal stop *h* in (2), (10) and (14). Some K'cho verbs do not show such stem alternation; The phonological aspect of K'cho stem alternation is discussed in Nolan (2003). For a discussion of parallel facts from closely related Daai, see Hartmann (2002).

Interestingly, the auxiliary *lo* illustrated in (11) and (12) appears between the verb stem and *-na*, as in (15) and (16).

- (15) *Ak'hmó noh k'khim luum loo-na(k) ci.*
 child P knife play begin-na NF
 The child began to play with a/the knife.
- (16) *Om lah Tam noh htung cuh ui thah loo-na(k) ci goi.*
 Om and Tam P stick D dog beat begin-na NF DL
 Om and Tam began to beat a/the dog with the stick.

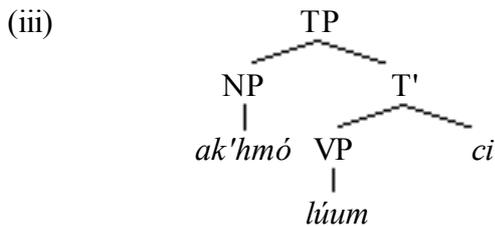
It also distinguishes stem I (*lo*) and stem II (*loo*) forms, the latter appearing in the same contexts as other stem II forms. Compare (15) and (16) with (11) and (12). Finally, we note that K'cho

has a postposition *on* 'with' which can have a meaning very similar to *-na* in examples like (17) and (18).

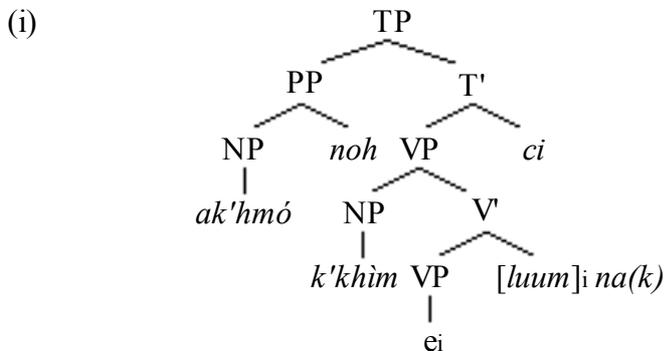
(17) *Ak'hmó cuh k'khìim on luum ci.*
 child D knife with play NF
 The child played with a/the knife.

(18) *Om lah Tam noh ui htung on that ci goi.*
 Om and Tam P dog stick with beat NF DL
 Om and Tam beat the dog with a stick.

Structures. For a sentence like (3) we assume a syntactic structure like (iii).



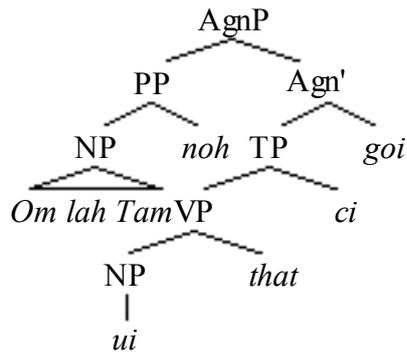
In (iii) the tense marker *ci* is the syntactic head (T); it combines with a verb phrase (VP) to form a tense phrase (T') which in turn combines with the subject to form a larger tense phrase (TP). In this example TP represents a full clause. If *-na* is present as in sentence (1) then the syntactic structure will be (i).



In (i) *k'khìim* 'knife' is the object of *-na* rather than of *luum* 'play'. That *-na* is a suffix rather than an independent verb is indicated by joining *luum* to it. That *luum* behaves as the syntactic head of the lower VP is shown by co-indexing it with an empty head verb (V). The symbol 'e' is not a K'cho word, but indicates that its syntactic position is empty; that is, contains no phonological substance. *Noh* is analyzed as a postposition (P) which combines with a noun phrase (NP) to form a postpositional phrase (PP).

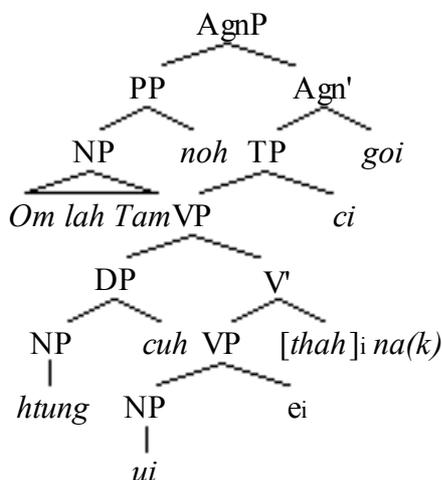
For a sentence like (4) we assume a syntactic structure like (iv).

(iv)

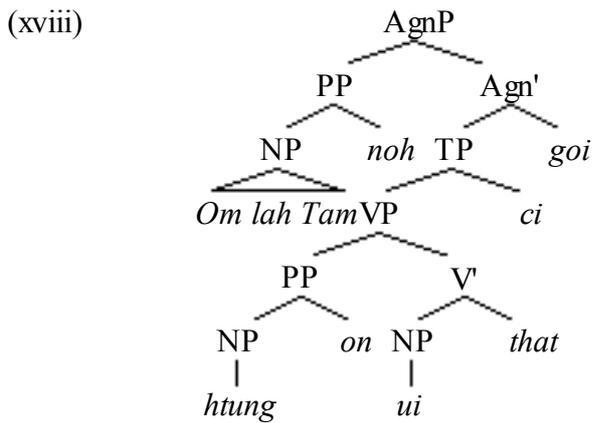
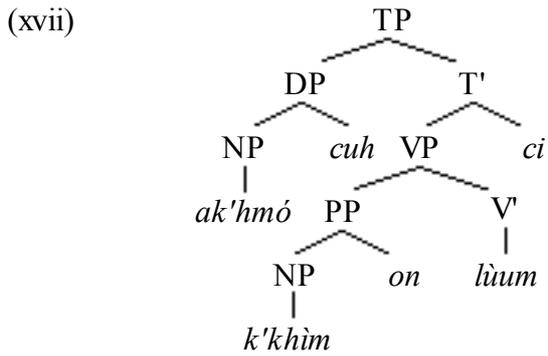


Structure (iv) differs from (iii) in several respects. Unlike *luum* in (iii), the verb *that* 'beat' in (iv) is transitive. The subject in (iv) is the conjoined noun phrase *Om lah Tam*, and the object is *ui* 'dog'. Structure (iv) contains the number agreement marker *goi*, indicating that the subject is dual. The particle *goi* belongs to the category Agn (number agreement), which combines with TP to form a number agreement phrase (Agn') and then with the subject NP to form a larger number agreement phrase (AgnP). The K'cho system of agreement between verbs and their subject and objects is described in Bedell (2000). In this example, AgnP represents a full clause. If *-na* is present as in sentence (2), then the structure will be (ii). Just as in (i), the presence of *-na* in (ii) introduces an object determiner phrase (DP; *htung cuh* 'the stick'), this time in addition to the object already there. The K'cho deictic *cuh* is roughly equivalent to English 'that'. NPs followed by *cuh* are normally definite; NPs not followed by *cuh* may be either definite or indefinite. According to this analysis, the object position in (i) and one of the object positions in (ii) are syntactically dependent on the applicative suffix *-na*. Both are understood as instrumental arguments corresponding to an English PP with *with*.

(ii)



Sentences (17) and (18) with a K'cho PP will have structures like (xvii) and (xviii).



Variations 1. An example which generally fits the pattern of (1) and (2) is seen in (20) and (21).

(20) *Om ka zèi-na(k) ci.*
 Om 1 pleased-na NF
 I like/am pleased with Om.

(21) *cun-ah ng'phāing'nà goi cuh kā zèi-na(k) ci gùì.* (20:24)
 D-P brother DL D not pleased-na NF PL
 They were not pleased with the (two) brothers about that.

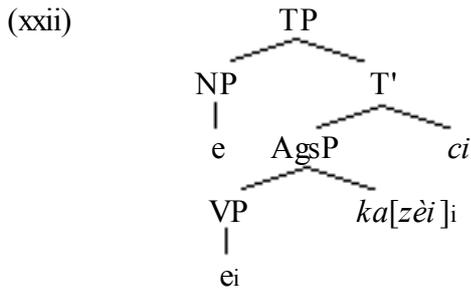
Here *-na* attaches to the stative verb *zèi* 'be pleased', and provides one of the most common ways to express affection or admiration in K'cho. Without *-na*, this verb (which corresponds to an English adjective) is strictly intransitive, as in (22).

(22) *Ka zèi ci.*
 1 pleased NF
 I am pleased.

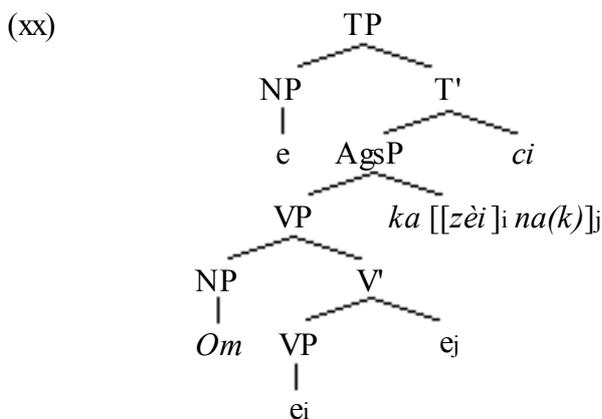
No sentence like (23) is possible.

(23) **Om ka zèi ci.*
 Om 1 pleased NF

Sentence (22) will have the structure shown in (xxii).



The subject of (22) is not overtly present, and in this case is identified by the first person singular subject agreement particle *ka*, which belongs to the category Ags. Though usually written as a separate word, its order with respect to the verb stem can be accounted for by taking it to be a prefix as in (xxii). Then the structure of (20) will be (xx), parallel to (i) and (ii).



The subject of (xx) is the same empty pronoun as in (xxii), and *Om* is the object introduced by *-na*. Judging by English 'like' this seems to be a direct (accusative) object, though judging by 'pleased' it would be oblique. In neither case does the object argument dependent on *-na* in (20) have the same meaning as those in (1) or (2). Therefore the instrumental meaning observed in (1) and (2) cannot be attributed to *-na* alone. It depends in part on the particular verb to which *-na* attaches. The verb *zèi* does not distinguish stem I and stem II forms.

Variations 2. An example less similar to (1), (2), (20) and (21) is seen in (24) and (25).

(24) *Tam noh Yóng k'chú-na(k) ci.*
 Tam P Yong wife-na NF
 Tam is married to Yong.

(25) *ani ah k'chú cuh a nà noh k'chú-na tu bà hlä, (22:24)*
 he P wife D his brother P wife-na also again OPT
 Let his younger brother also remarry the wife.

Here *-na* attaches not to a verb, but to the noun *k'chú* 'wife'. Thus there is no verbal sentence if *-na* is removed; an equational sentence as in (26) must be assumed.

(26) *Yóng Tam ah k'chú ah kya(k) ci.*

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Yong Tam P wife P be NF
 Yong is Tam's wife.

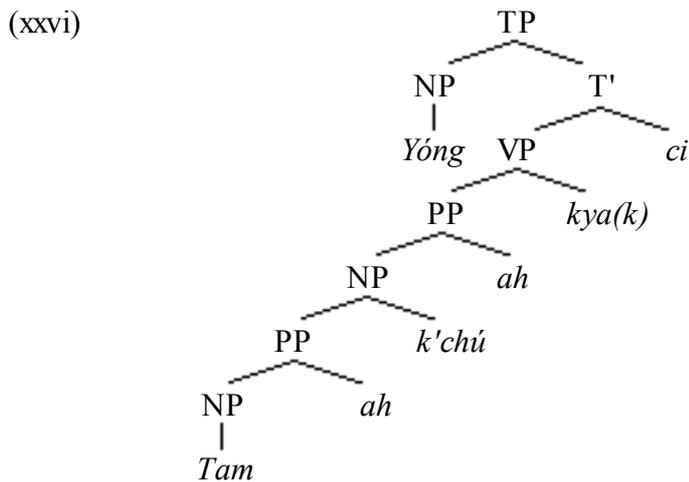
Note that the relation between (24) and (26) is slightly different than that between (20) and (22). While *Yóng* is the subject of (26), the argument introduced by *-na* (*Tam*) is the subject of (24) and *Yóng* is an object. This is more like a causative than an applicative construction. Also, (24) has an active interpretation in addition to the stative one glossed; that is, it might be glossed as (24').

(24') Tam married Yong.

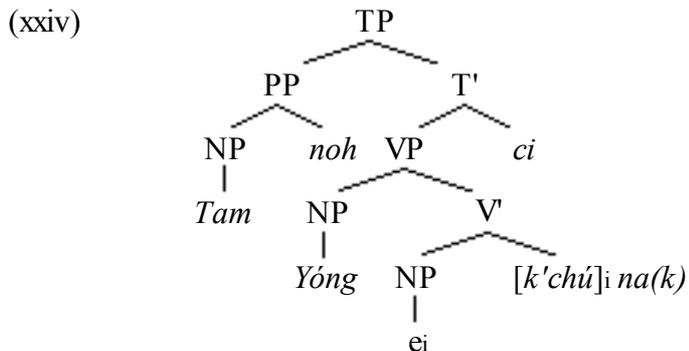
But (26) has only a stative interpretation, and cannot be glossed as (26').

(26) Yong became Tam's wife.

This additional semantic dimension is clearly to be attributed to *-na*. (26) will have the structure in (xxvi).



Of interest in (xxvi) is the K'cho copula *kya*, which somewhat mysteriously requires its complement (the predicate nominal) to appear with the postposition *ah*. The same postposition can mark a genitive. The structure of (24) will then be as in (xxiv). This is perhaps what we would expect if the copula *kya* is not a semantically full verb, but required in main clauses for morpho-syntactic reasons which do not arise when the verbalizing *-na* is present.



Variations 3. A similar example is seen in (27) and (28). Here *-na* attaches to the noun *ng'mìng* 'name'.

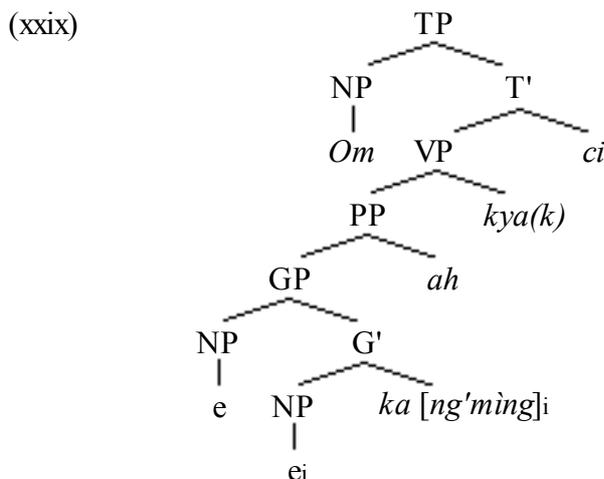
(27) *Om ka ng'mìng-na(k) ci.*
 Om 1 name-na NF
 I am named Om.

(28) *Mattheu ng'mìng-na(k) ci cuh (9: 9)*
 Matthew name-na NF D
 one (who was) named Matthew

As with (24) and (26), removing *-na* leads to the equational sentence (29).

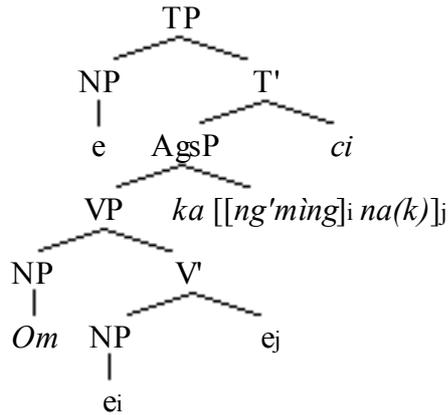
(29) *Om ka ng'mìng ah kya(k) ci.*
 Om 1 name P be NF
 Om is my name.

In this case too there is a readjustment of argument structure. In (27), the subject is empty and the agreement particle *ka* shows that it is first person singular. The name *Om* is the object of the verb *ng'mìng-na* and is present thanks to *-na*. In (29), the name *Om* is the subject and the empty first person pronoun is not an argument at all. The particle *ka* here shows agreement with this genitive. The structure of (29) will be (xxix).



Genitive agreement particles like *ka* belong to the category G; they combine with one NP (the possessed entity) to form a genitive phrase (G') and with a second NP (the possessor) to form a larger genitive phrase (GP). The head indicates agreement with the possessor, usually empty, and appears as a prefix to the head noun of the possessed entity. For a description of the the genitive in the related Lai language, see Bedell (2002). The structure of (27) will be as in (xxvii).

(xxvii)



As in (xxiv), the copula *kya* does not appear, and *-na* is suffixed to the head noun. As in the case of (24) the derived verb *ng'mìng-na* can be taken as active. In that case, the English gloss would be something like (27'), but (29) cannot be glossed as (29').

(27') I came to be named Om.

(29') Om became my name.

Notice that *ng'mìng-na* differs from the English verb 'name' in that it has no agent argument. That meaning is expressed in K'cho by using the noun *ng'mìng* as the object of a verb: *ng'mìng hlui* 'give the name'.

Variations 4. An example of particular interest is seen in (30) and (31). Here *-na* is suffixed to a stem *ka*, which is otherwise used as an anaphoric possessed noun.

(30) *Sin ah tumat ka ka-na(k) khai.* (Jordan, sv. *ka-nak*, p. 58)
 this P one 1 one-na FUT
 I will take this one (as my own).

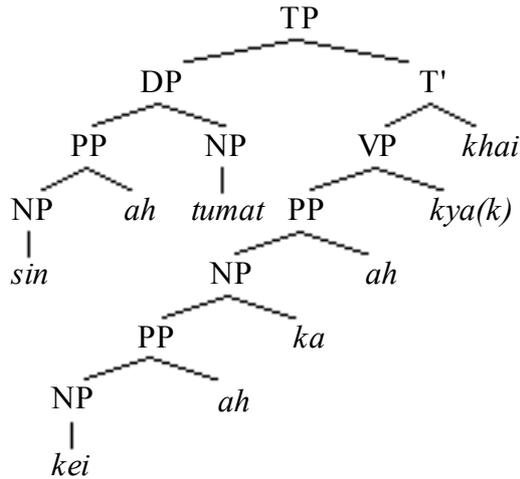
(31) *Khānmòpí lah khàwm'dek ka-na(k) ca pá aw,* (11:25)
 heaven and earth one-na NF-C father !
 Father, who have heaven and earth (as your own),

As in (26) and (29), an equational sentence may result here by removing *-na*, as in (32).

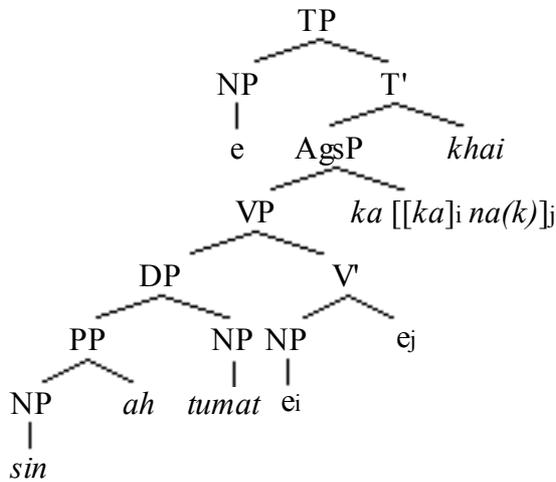
(32) *Sin ah tumat kei ah ka ah kya(k) khai.*
 this P one I P one P be FUT
 This one will be mine.

The meaning of ownership, clearly present in (30) and (31), comes from *ka*; but the subject argument in (30) and the related argument in (31) are introduced via *-na*. The structures of (30) and (32) will be (xxx) and (xxxii). (xxxii) contains an overt possessor *kei* 'I' without agreement. In (xxx) the first *ka* indicates subject agreement and the second is the anaphoric possessed noun.

(xxxii)



(xxx)



Jordan's Analysis. The first discussion of K'cho *-na* that we are aware of is that in Father Marc Jordan's *Chin Dictionary and Grammar* (1969). He mentions it under Auxiliary Verbs and Verbal Affixes: remark about the verb 'to have' (*Grammar*, p. 58). Numerous examples are to be found among the entries in the dictionary. Jordan was familiar with the full range of examples above, and notes the correlation of those like (24), (27) and (30) with the notion of possession. He says, however, that in an example like (33), *na* is 'a genuine verb by itself;' it is not to be confused with examples where *-na* is a suffix. (Jordan glosses this example as 'he owns land'. As should be clear from the following discussion, this gloss is somewhat misleading.)

- (33) *Khò-na(k) ci.* (Jordan, sv. *nak*, p.157)
 land-na NF
 He has it as his land.

It is not difficult to test this analysis: if *-na* is suffixed to *khò* 'land' then a person agreement particle will precede the derived verb *khò-na*; if it is an independent verb, such a particle will precede *-na*. Changing (33) to (34) with a non-third person subject, we see that *-na* is a suffix in this example also. (35) is not a possible K'cho sentence.

- (34) *Ka khò-na(k) ci.*

1 land-na NF
I have it as my land.

(35) **Khò ka na(k) ci.*
land 1 na NF

The same point can be made with a third person subject if (33) is changed to (36) where stem II is used. Stem II verbs have a third person agreement particle. Again, (37) is not a possible K'cho phrase.

(36) *a khò-nák ung*
3 land-na if
if he has it as his land

(37) **khò a nák ung*
land 3 na if

A sentence like (34) thus corresponds to one like (38) if *-na* is removed.

(38) *Ka khò ah kya(k) ci.*
1 land P be NF
It is my land.

(34) and (38) differ in meaning from (39) and (40).

(39) *Khò cuh ka ka ah kya(k) ci.*
land D 1 one P be NF
The land is mine.

(40) *Khò cuh ka ka-na(k) ci.*
land D 1 one-na NF
I have the land (as my own).

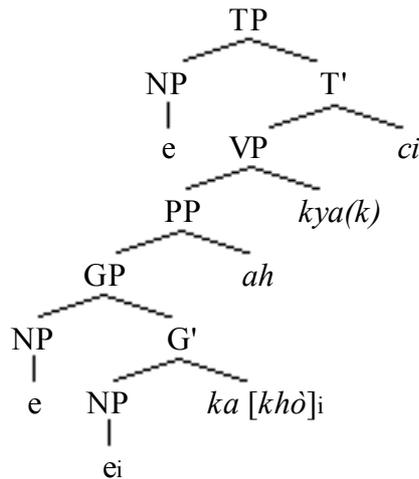
In (34) and (38) there is a particular piece of land identifiable in context and *khò* characterizes it rather than referring to it. If this land is called *Lunglai*, then (34) and (38) will become (34') and (38').

(33') *Lunglai ka khò-na(k) ci.*
Lunglai 1 land-na NF
I have Lunglai as my land.

(38') *Lunglai ka khò ah kya(k) ci.*
Lunglai 1 land P be NF
Lunglai is my land.

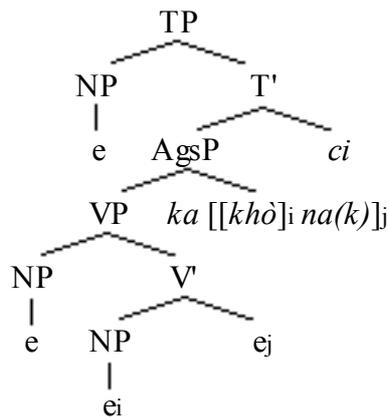
In (39) and (40), by contrast, *khò* refers to and identifies what it is that the speaker owns. The structures of (38) and (34) will thus be (xxxviii) and (xxxiv).

(xxxviii)



In (xxxviii), the empty NP attached to TP is the third person singular subject which refers to the particular piece of land whose ownership is under consideration. The empty NP under GP is the first person singular possessor of the land agreed with by the genitive particle *ka*, not an argument of any verb or noun.

(xxxiv)



In (xxxiv), the empty NP attached to TP is the first person singular subject agreed with by the subject agreement particle *ka*. The empty NP attached to VP is the third person singular object of *khò-na* which refers to the particular piece of land. (xxxviii) and (xxxiv) may be compared with (xxix) and (xxvii); the syntax is the same, but the semantic relation between a piece of land and the noun *khò* is different from the relationship between a name and the noun *ng'ming*.

Variations 5. There are at least two K'cho verbs which are homophonous with *-na* in both forms.

(41) *K'hngái ka na(k) ci.*
 earring 1 wear NF
 I wear earrings.

(42) *Ui noh na na(k) ci.*
 dog P 1 bark NF
 The/a dog barked at me.

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(43) *Ka lùu nà(k) ci.*
 1 head ache NF
 I have a headache.

(44) *Khò nàa ci.*
 rain continue NF
 It rained for a long time.

The verbs *na* 'wear (rings)', *na* 'bark at' have stem I forms with a short vowel and high tone. The verb *nà* 'ache' has a stem I form with a low tone; the verb *nàa* 'rain continually' has a stem I form with a low tone and a long vowel and thus is not followed by *k* in (44). They are all independent verbs as shown by the position of the subject agreement particle *ka* in (41) or the object agreement particle *na* in (42). Use of the auxiliary *lo* 'begin' will then give (45) to (48).

(45) *K'hngái ka na lo(k) ci.*
 earring 1 wear begin NF
 I began to wear earrings.

(46) *Ui noh na na lo(k) ci.*
 dog P 1 bark begin NF
 The dog began to bark at me.

(47) *Ka lùu nà lo(k) ci.*
 1 head ache begin NF
 My head began to ache.

(48) *Khò nàa lo(k) ci.*
 rain continue begin NF
 It began to rain continually.

And in a context requiring stem II, we will find (49) to (52).

(49) *k'hngái ka nák loo ung*
 earring 1 wear begin when/if
 when/if I begin to wear earrings

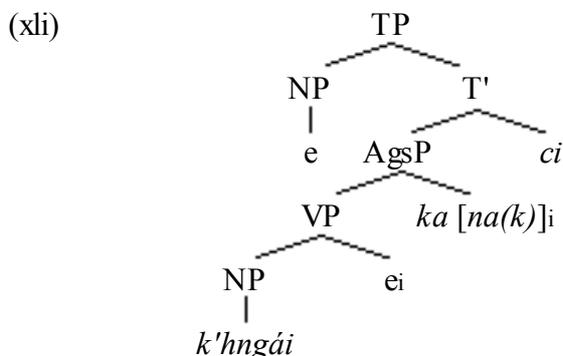
(50) *ui noh a na nák loo ung*
 dog P 3 1 bark begin when/if
 when/if the dog begins to bark at me

(51) *ka lùu a nat loo ung*
 1 head 3 ache come when/if
 when/if my head aches

(52) *khò a nàa loo ung*
 rain 3 rain begin when/if
 when/if it begins to rain for a long time

Comparing (49) to (52) with (15) and (16), we see another difference between the suffix *-na* and these verbs. If *lo* is present, *-na* must attach to it resulting in *loo-na*; no such reordering is possi-

ble with independent verbs. Note also that the verb *nà* 'ache' has a stem II form *nat*, and the verb *nàa* 'rain continually' does not distinguish a stem II form. The structure of a sentence like (41) will be (xli). Compare (xli) with (xx) or (xxxiv) above to see the difference between a suffix and a free verb.



Related Languages and Conclusion. Helga Hartmann (2001) has discussed in detail the uses of the cognate form *-naak/na* in Daai, closely related to K'cho and spoken in a neighboring area of southern Chin State, Myanmar. She recognizes three uses: free verb, auxiliary and nominalizer (p. 143). The 'free verb' type covers *-naak/na* preceded by a noun. (53) is the same construction as K'cho (24), and (54) as K'cho (33). (Examples (53), (54) and (55) are numbered (2), (6) and (7) in Hartmann (2001). The word-by-word glosses have been changed to conform to the ones used here for K'cho.)

(53) *Kah ning kkhyu-naak vai ni.* (p. 145)
 1 2 wife-na must EMPH
 I must indeed take you as my wife.

(54) *Shih Sa Ngjung kahnih jah lou-na kti e.* (p. 146)
 (name of mountain) 1PL 3PL field-na NF PL
 We planted our mountain fields on Shih Sa Ngjung.

(55) *Ah she nu kah mshun ah nah mlung-naak ta kah*
 3 cow female 1 hurt 3 1 heart-na if 1
veei-a lo she. (p. 146)
 place-DIR come let
 If he has a grudge against me because I hurt his cow, let him come to me.

In all three Daai sentences there are agreement particles which precede the noun followed by *-naak/na* and not *-naak/na* itself. We take this to show conclusively that *-naak/na* is suffixed to the noun and not a free verb. That is, Hartmann's 'free verb' type is *-naak/na* suffixed to a noun and her auxiliary type is the same form suffixed to a verb, just as we have argued for K'cho. Our point is not that Daai *-naak/na* or K'cho *-na* is in no way verbal. Both forms have verb type stem alternation; but this does not establish that they are themselves verbs. As can be seen in our structures (i), (ii), (xx), (xxiv), (xxvii), (xxx) and (xxxiv), we take K'cho *-na* to belong to the syntactic category V; but it is a suffix and not a verb. It is no more verbal when it is suffixed to a noun than when it is suffixed to a verb. Hartmann suggests that her 'free verb' type represents the

conservative remnant of an original verb meaning 'use', from which the other uses have derived through grammaticalization (2001; p. 155). We see no compelling reason to second this suggestion. It is perfectly plausible that Daai *-naak/na* and K'cho *-na* go back historically to a verb at some point; but it is equally plausible that attachment of these suffixes to nouns represents an innovation which occurred in Southern Chin languages and not elsewhere.

Hartmann's nominalizer type (p. 153) consists of nouns which are composed of a verb stem II followed by *-naak* (the stem II form of *-naak/na*). Such nouns are numerous in K'cho also. Jordan (*Grammar*, p.12) provides the following list of examples.

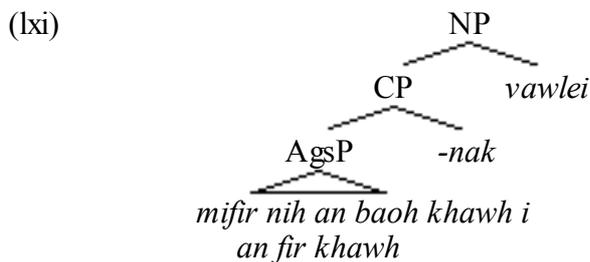
- (56) *ng'ngaihtüh-nák* 'thinking, meditation, reflection'
zùm-nák 'faith, belief (act of believing)'
zèi-nák 'joy, pleasure'
- (57) *kyóm-nák* 'beauty'
hlü'ng-nák 'height'
tan-nák 'value, preciousness'
- (58) *zùm-nák* 'belief (object of believing)'
äöp-nák 'hope, confidence (object of trust)'
m'hni-nák 'love (object of desire)'
- (59) *hteih-nák* 'means of going, transportation'
guk-nák 'means of writing, pen, pencil'
k'daih-nák 'stabbing weapon, spear'
- (60) *hteih-nák* 'place of going, road, path'
guk-nák 'place of writing, paper'
k'daih-nák 'place of stabbing, wound'

A revised analysis is given in So-Hartmann (2009, 3.3.1.6, pp. 69-70).

F. K. Lehman and Ceu Hlun (2002) have discussed the historical development of nouns like (56) to (60) in Chin languages, and the use of *-naak* as a marker of relative clauses in Lai. They regard 'abstract' nouns like (56) or (57) as representing a recent extension of earlier, more concrete nouns like (59) or (60). While their general view of the relation of nouns like (56) to (60) to applicative suffixes like K'cho *-na* seems plausible enough, we see no compelling reason to think that nominalizations referring to actions (56) or states (57) have not always existed. (Lehman and Ceu Hlun (2002) refer to the suffix *-na* or *-naak* as an applicative verb. Their use of the term 'applicative' is somewhat different from ours, as defined in the opening section of this paper.) At the same time, it is likely that numbers of such abstract nouns have been augmented by the need to create words for Christian theological concepts via Bible translation. Examples of *-naak* as a relative marker in Lai (from *Lai Baibal Thiang* 1999) are (61) and (62).

- (61) *[mifirnih an baoh khawh i an fir khawhnak] vawlei* (6:19)
 thief P 3PL break-in can and 3PL steal can-naak earth
 earth, [where thieves can break in and steal]
- (62) *[tluninn an in onhnak hna] inn* (10:11)
 lodging 3PL 2 offer PL house
 a house [where they offer you lodging]

In Lai, *-naak* is used in relative clauses when neither the subject nor an object is the locus of relativization. The structure of (61) will be (lxi).



This is a typical Lai relative clause consisting of a clause followed by a complementizer (*-nak* here) which modifies a head noun (*vawlei* 'earth'). Since *-naak* is a suffix, it will be attached to the final element of the clause (the auxiliary *khawh* 'can'). The suffix *-naak* attaches to the stem II form of verbs or auxiliaries which have stem alternation; *khawh* 'can' contrasts with the stem I form *kho*.

Lehman and Ceu Hlun (2002) argue that this relative complementizer *-naak* can be plausibly derived from a homophonous Lai suffix parallel to the K'cho suffix in (56) to (60). We find their argument persuasive, and in any case have nothing to add to it here. But we would like to emphasize the distinction between the diachronic and synchronic perspectives. Lehman and Ceu Hlun are primarily concerned with the historical development of cognate morphological forms in the languages under study. Sometimes we agree with their analyses and sometimes we do not, but regardless of the diachronic facts, we would insist on the following points about the synchronic structure of K'cho. First, that *-na* as illustrated in our examples is always a suffix. Second, that the suffix *-nák* seen in (56) to (60) is a distinct suffix. Because these words are nouns rather than verbs, it must belong to the category N in the same sense as *-na* belongs to V. One might assume that these nouns contain, in addition to the applicative suffix *-na*, an inaudible nominalizing suffix which attaches to its stem II form; but there is no motivation for such a suffix other than to derive the nouns from the suffixed verbs. While the applicative suffix *-na* is fairly productive (with some semantic restrictions), the meaning attached to the argument it introduces is not always predictable, and must be learned. The suffix *-nák* is less productive and the meaning which characterizes the derived noun is not necessarily the same as that of the argument. A case in point in our examples is *zèi-na* 'like, admire' in (20) and (21) versus *zèi-nák* 'joy, pleasure' in (56). Such discrepancies entail that *-nák* cannot be synchronically derived from *-na* in K'cho (or vice-versa). Rather it must be morphologically distinct; in fact a nominalizing suffix. Though this is not the place to present detailed arguments, it seems to us that, by the same line of reasoning, Daai *-naak/-na* is always a suffix, the Daai and Lai applicative suffixes are distinct from the nominalizing suffixes, and the Lai relative complementizer seen in (61) and (62) is also morphologically distinct from both the applicative and nominalizing suffixes *-naak*.

Abbreviations

- 1 first person
- 2 second person

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The Applicative Suffix *-na* in K'cho

3 third person
C complementizer (or conjunction)
D deictic (or demonstrative)
DIR directional
DL dual
EMPH emphatic
FUT future
NF non-future
OPT optative
P postposition
PL plural

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Kee Shein Mang, M. A. and George Bedell, Ph. D.
The Applicative Suffix -na in K'cho

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Cultural Barrier through Communication – As Explained in
Amy Tan's *The Joy Luck Club*

Lakshmi Priya, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate



Amy Tan

The Structure of *The Joy Luck Club*

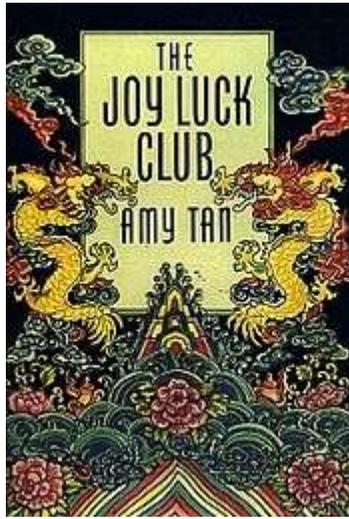
The Joy Luck Club is Amy Tan's first novel. The novel comprises of four sections, each proceeded by a fable.

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Jing-mei (June), the main and important character, is responsible for weaving all the four sections together. The four mothers in this novel are immigrant Chinese, the four daughters are the first generation Chinese-Americans. From the beginning of the novel, we discern one culture trying to dominate another, that is, Chinese culture asserting itself over American culture and vice versa.

The mothers are born and brought up in China; they try to implement Chinese traits and qualities on their daughters who have assimilated American lifestyle. The daughters avoid adopting or accepting the Chinese traditions. Due to lack of proper understanding of each other's perceptions, a communication gap develops. Mothers speak a mixture of fractured English and Chinese; the daughters speak English the way it is spoken in America. Jing-mei in the story "The Joy Luck Club" says:

"My mother and I never really understand each other. We translated each other's meaning and I seemed to hear less than what was said, while my mother heard more." (TJLC 37)

Change in Attitudes

The daughters in these stories are concerned only with American attitudes and habits. First generation children all go by their American names and not Chinese. For instance, Jing-mei is known as 'June' and this name is American, not Chinese. Jing-mei thinks that her mother's English is terrible, but her mother prides herself in her Chinese language.

Divergent perceptions and absence of a common language of communication have rendered each incomprehensible to the other language. As a result, they fail to fathom each other's feelings and likes and dislikes.

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Jing-mei hardly knows anything about her mother's life. "Something was always missing. Something always needed improving. Something was not in balance. This one or that had too much of one element, not enough of another" (TJLC 31).

Turn of Events – History Revealed and Realized and a New Hope

Only after the mother's death does she come to know of her past and her plans for the future which came as a shocking revelation. Jing-mei is taken aback that she has two sisters back in China. When her aunts tell Jing-mei that she is the one who has to tell everything about her mother, she feels inadequate as she really had not understood her well enough to be able to talk about her: "What will I say? What can I tell them about my mother? I don't know anything" (TJLC 40).

America is where Jing-mei's mother's hopes lay. In China she had lost everything, her mother, father, her first husband and two daughters, twin baby girls. She had believed that one can do anything in America. One could become rich and instantly famous.

Two Kinds

In "Two Kinds," another short story, we encounter Jing-mei and her mother again. When Jing-mei was young, her mother thought that Jing-mei could be a Chinese Shirley Temple. She wanted her to become 'child prodigy' while Jing-mei realized that only a few could achieve that status. She tried hard to become a prodigy to make her mother happy. When Jing-mei won the chess tournament, her mother coerced her to achieve a lot more. She wanted her to excel at playing the piano. This relentless pressure often led to acrimonious arguments and violence:

"Why don't you like me the way I am? I'm not a genius! I can't play the piano. And even if I could, I wouldn't go on TV if you paid me a million dollars" (TJLC 136). The mother asserts her parental authority and slaps her, "Who ask you be genius? ... Only ask you to be your best. For your sake. You think I want you be genius? Huh! What for! Who ask you?" (TJLC 136).

A Cultural Divide – Living Up to the Expectations of Parents

From this context we understand the exchange is a cultural divide, a clash of cultural values. Fostered on American lifestyle and American values, Jing-mei believes in freedom of speech and the right to choose her career, while the mother believes that it is her prerogative to govern her daughter's life. The parents feel that they know what is best for their children and pay no heed to where the inclinations of the latter lie.

Often enough failed parents drive their children into achieving what they could not. Jing-mei's mother's dreams are fuelled by the American dream that promises infinite success and

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infinite riches. The daughter is aware of her own limitations and is content to seek herself in more modest pursuits. But the mother has dreamt of seeing her as an American icon of success, something that she could not achieve as a child in China. Jing-mei cannot and does not want to live up to her mother's expectations. After a disastrous piano recital there is a major quarrel between the mother and daughter with the latter simply refusing to play anymore: "No! I won't" You want me to be someone that I'm not...I'll never be the kind of daughter you want me to be" (TJLC 141-142).

One's sympathies are with jing-mei as she is realistic about her shortcomings. But the mother fails to see eye to eye with her daughter. Sensing her daughter's belligerent mood, she classifies daughters by saying:

"Only two kinds of daughters. Those who are obedient and those who follows their own mind. Only one kind of daughter can live in this house. Obedient daughter! Jing-mei shouted. "Then I wish I wasn't your daughter. I wish you weren't my mother." "Too late to change this," said the mother. "Then O wish I'd never been born...I wish I were dead like them." (TJLC 142)

A Tragedy of Incomprehension

The story is a tragedy of incomprehension resulting from a clash of cultural values and generational divide. The mother belongs to the old world order and believes in the inalienable right of the mother to regulate and run the life of the daughter. She swears by the adage that mother knows best. The daughter brought up on the cultural values of the New World find it difficult to understand her mother's hawk-like attention to everything that she does. The do's and don'ts imposed by the mother leave her disenchanted. Her individual liberty is trampled upon by the mother's domineering and dictatorial attitude. East frowns upon the attitudes of the West.

Amy Tan the Writer and Her First Novel

Amy Tan is a first generation Chinese American writer who speaks English fluently, correctly and with ease, unlike her mother who is an immigrant Chinese and whose English leaves much to be desired.

In her essay titled, 'The Mother Tongue', she begins by talking about English language and its variations, or English as she calls it, in other countries. Being a writer she is acutely conscious of how language in general has the capacity to 'evoke an emotion, a visual image, a complex of idea, a simple truth.'" But happens when one's language stilted, truncated and charecterised by flagrant violations of even the simple rules of grammar?

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These ideas come up for scrutiny while talking about her book ‘The Joy Luck Club before an audience. She begins her lecture well enough until at some point she becomes conscious of the fact that her mother, who was also present, would feel lost, perhaps alienated, at listening to her daughter the way she was talking. Amy Tan realized that this was not the way she used English in her day-to-day conversation with her mother. She finds herself saying things like:

“The intersection of memory upon imagination” and “There is an aspect of my fiction that relates to thus-and-thus”, a speech filled with carefully wrought grammatical phrases...” (TJLC 923)

Her speech was characterized by ‘all the forms of standard English [she] had learned in school and through books, the form of English [she] did not use at home with [her] mother” (TJLC 923).

Personalizing the Story: Focus on Language Choice and Use

Amy Tan suddenly becomes aware that her mother would not be able to comprehend what she is speaking because she never used such type of perfect English at home with her. A sense of distancing, therefore, is visualized. Her mother would feel left out as she (Amy Tan) was using English language different from what they used at home to communicate with each other. It was a different linguistic register that was employed at home and this made for mutual comprehension, both intellectual and emotional. Her mother who is an immigrant Chinese is well versed in Chinese but not in English language. She uses fractured English combined with Chinese. Communicating with each other in this broken English helped build the bond of understanding between mother and daughter. Within the close family circle this fractured English seems perfectly legitimate. However grammatically incorrect it maybe, it has a local colour and flavor; it carries the essence of Chinese English but hearing her daughter speak in chaste English leaves the mother bemused. It is as though the daughter has suddenly lost her personality and sensibility.

This language has suddenly created different identities, with the mother being every bit a Chinese with her incorrect smattering of English and the daughter dwelling in America with her school learnt English with its stress on correctness of speech. The point that is focused is that in one context this fractured language creates intimacy, fosters ties and promotes family talk. In another context where interaction with a larger section of American society is concerned, this kind of Chinese English would become an impediment, resulting in social ostracism and discrimination. While talking to her husband Amy Tan would say without any inhibition: “Not waste money that way” (TJLC 23).

It sounds natural, however incorrect the expression maybe. The husband too does not sense it to be incorrect. They are on the same wavelength. But were she to change her syntax she would sound artificial, out of harmony with her social surrounding, predominantly Chinese.

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Amy Tan then goes on to give an example of the way her mother uses English. This is what the mother says about a gangster who had the same family name and who had made it big in life:

“Du Yusong having business like fruit stand. Like off the street kind. He is Du like DuZong – but not Tsung-ming Island people...Now important person, very hard to inviting him. (TJLC 23)

How many people will understand what she is saying? Some will understand and some may understand none of it. But to Amy Tan says:

to her ‘mother’s language is perfectly clear, perfectly natural and it is ‘vivid’, direct, full of observation and imagery.’” But, let us face facts, it is broken, fractured and limited English. It lacks wholeness, completeness, logic. “No wonder people in department stores, at banks and at restaurants did not take her seriously.” Do not give her good service. They even pretend they did not hear. (24)

One’s linguistic facility reflects one’s thinking. Amy Tan says that when she was growing up she felt that her mother’s limited English “limited my perception of her....I believed that her English reflected the quality of what she had to say” (24).

Well, that is a wrong perception on the part of the child. But one cannot deny the fact that one cannot express one’s thought unless one is well equipped in the language of communication. Not to know the language well enough is to run the risk of saying the wrong things. It is terrible situation.

Though Amy Tan has no problem with her mother’s language, there are others who frown upon it. Amy Tan cites examples to illustrate the difficulties her mother encountered in dealing with people. On each occasion she would ask the daughter to come to her aid and what seemed one moment an insurmountable hurdle would be sorted out in a jiffy. Amy Tan had only to talk to people on behalf of her mother and it was open sesame. The ability to speak the language correctly ensures social acceptance and a sense of belonging to a group or coterie. Failure to do so renders one an outcast or an outsider.

Uncertain and Vague Understanding of Mother

From her short stories we learn that Amy Tan’s understanding of her mother was uncertain and vague. The mother’s limited knowledge of English served as a barrier to effective communication with the daughter who understood English well enough but her understanding of Chinese was limited and what is more she made no attempt to learn her mother Tongue. The failure to communicate effectively has led to cultural conflict. Amy Tan remains an outsider to the Chinese culture and the life there. For the people acquiring a new language of

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communication, the problem is that they have a mother tongue which is used for all thought processes, but useless for communication and; the acquired language of communication (BROKEN English) is inadequate to carry the burden of their deeper emotions, feelings and thoughts. Translation fails and so does communication in this process.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Standard Colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil Dialect: A Comparative Phonological Study

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12 : 1 January 2012

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Standard Colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil Dialect: A Comparative Phonological Study

Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Abstract:

Bengali is an Eastern Indo-Aryan language of the Indo-European language family. Bengali has several dialects and sister languages. Chatkhil dialect in Noakhali region is one of them. Chatkhil dialect (CD) is a different dialect in Noakhali district for its individual phonological, morphological and syntactical features. In this paper I have tried to comparison between Standard Colloquial Bengali Language (SCB) and Chatkhil Dialect on the aspects of phonological features. There are some significant rules to determine consonants and vowel phonemes and allophones in this dialect. These entries components are discussed in this paper from the aspects of field linguistics.

Key Words: Dialect, phonology, diphthongs, standard Bengali, diglossia

1. Introduction

Bengali, also called Bangla, is the official language of Bangladesh and the Indian States of West Bengal and Tripura. There are over 200 million native speakers of this language across the world and it has the pride of place as the 5th most spoken language in the world (after Mandarin, Spanish, English and Hindustani (Hindi-Urdu)). Bengali is the second most commonly spoken language in India (after Hindi).

Bengali is an Eastern Indo-Aryan language of the Indo-European language family (Masica; 1991). Its immediate predecessor was 'Magadhi Apabhhransha'. From this emerged the three languages – Bengali, Oriya and Assamese. Bangla exhibits a strong case of diglossia between the formal, written language and the vernacular spoken language. This is a situation (diglossia) in a particular society when a language has two forms; the first of a higher prestige and the second of a lower prestige. While the latter is a colloquial tongue, the former is used in more formal contexts such as Government documents. The two standard written forms of Bangla; Shadhubhasha and Choltibhasha stand in sharp contrast with the spoken forms of Bangla, often referred to as Ancholik Bangla (Regional Bangla). Choltibhasha (literally, the current language) comprises the standard pronunciation of Bangla and thus serves as the basis for the orthography of most Bengali writing today. It is modeled on the form of the dialect spoken in the Shantipur region in Nadia district, West Bengal and districts bordering on the lower reaches of the Hooghly River. Three or four periods are identified in the history of the language: Old Bengali (1000 –

1400 AD), Mid-Bengali (1400 – 1800 AD) and Modern Bengali (1800 AD –) (Banglapedia; 2004). However, there are some scholars who believe Bengali is much older, perhaps going back to even 500 AD. Modern Bengali; this period witnessed the development of Bengali language as we speak it today. It developed through the writings, influential poets and many other great writers of Bengal and Bangladesh.

Bengali has several dialects and sister languages. 19th century linguist, Suniti Kumar Chatterji (1926) classified Bangla dialects into four broad groups: Radh, Banga, Kamarupa and Varendra; Sukumar Sen (1939) added one more and defined five groups of dialects: Radhi, Bangali, Kamrupi, Varendri and Jhadkhandi. Radhi is the basis of standard colloquial Bangla, spoken in wide areas of south-western Bengal. More modern classifications have separated twelve different dialects and derivatives spoken mainly in the Eastern regions of India and Bangladesh. The Bengali which is used mainly in Central Bengal around Calcutta and the Nadia districts. Kharia Thar, Mal Paharia, Saraki are derivatives and is the lingua of the tribal's of the Indian states of Orissa, Bihar and West Bengal. Northern Bengali dialects are Koch and Siripuria. Haijong, the official language of Nepal, has very close similarities to these Northern dialects. Other regional dialect of Bengali includes Rajbangsi, Bahe, Ganda, Vanga and Chittagonian. There are some minor differences in the usage of vocabulary and the pronunciation between the standard Bengali of West Bengal and Bangladesh (Shahidullah; 1965).

Dialects of Bengali language are the part of the Eastern Indo-Aryan language group of the Indo-European language family. Barishali (Barishal region), Noakhali, Rongpore, Khulna, Mymansingh, Sylheti (Sylhet region) are major spoken dialects in country. Chittagonian, Chakma and Rohingya are some of the many languages that are often considered dialects of Bengali. Although these languages are mutually intelligible with neighboring dialects of Bengali, they would not be understood by a native speaker of Standard Bengali.

Chatkhil is one of the smallest upazilla (A division of a District) of Noakhali district according to the area. This upazilla was established in February 2, 1977 (Islam; 1998). Chatkhil dialect is somehow the part of the greater Noakhali dialect. The distance from Chatkhil to Maijdi is about 100 sq. kilometers (Banglapedia; 2004). The recent development of communication system is unprecedented. The inhabitants of different areas of greater Noakhali immigrated in this area and put up permanent residence in the past. Most of the immigrant people came from Lakshmipur, Laksham, Camilla, Ramganj etc. A number of people emigrated from far-off greater Chittagong.

The total number of people coming from Hatiya is comparatively less for the cause of natural hindrances. In course of time another dialect i.e., *Chatkhil dialect* of Noakhali is created for these people of different origin living together. Now the individual Phonology, Morphology and Syntactic characteristics of Chatkhil dialect are present in this dialect.

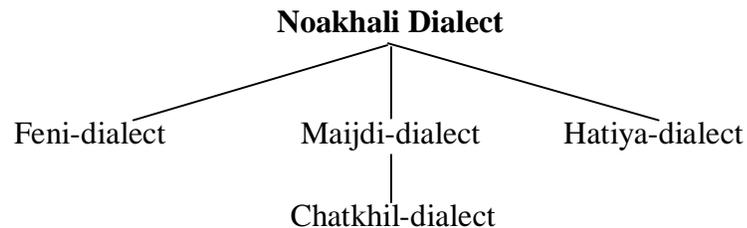


Figure – 1: The Origin of Chatkhil Dialect

2. Comparative phonological analysis

There are forty-eight letters in alphabet and arranged phonetically beginning with all of the vowels followed by the consonants, the semi-vowels and the breath sound. There are some sounds that are not found in indo-European languages but if care is taken in use of vocal organs the correct sound can be produced. According to the linguist's thoughts, a language can be better understood only if it approached from the perspective of what it sounds like and not how it is pronounced.

There are eleven vowels, twenty five consonants, five semi vowels and seven breath sounds in the alphabet. The consonants can be divided into five groups in accordance with the position of the mouth in which they are produced. The first group is produced at the back of the mouth and so is called "*guttural*". The second class is produced on the soft palate that is "*palatal*". The third is produced on the hard palate at the top of the mouth which called "*cerebral*". The fourth is produced on the teeth, is called "*dental*". The final group is produced with the help of lips and it's called "*labial*". (Ali; 2001)

2.1. Consonants

Standard Colloquial Bengali

/p/ /p^h/ /b/ /b^h/ /m/

/t̪/ /t̪^h/ /d̪/ /d̪^h/

/n/ /r/ /l/ /s/

/c/ /c^h/ /ʃ/ /ʃ^h/ /ʂ/

/t/ /t^h/ /d/ /ɽ/ /ɽ^h/

/k/ /k^h/ /g/ /g^h/ /ŋ/

/y/ /w/ /h/

Chatkhill-dialect

/p/ /p^h/ /b/ /m/

/t̪/ /t̪^h/ /d̪/ /d̪^h/

/n/ /r/ /l/ /s/

/c/ /ʃ/ /ʂ/

/t/ /t^h/ /d/ /ɽ/

/k/ /k^h/ /g/ /ŋ/

/h/

It is notable that the pronouncing aspirated consonants [/c^h//b^h//ʃ^h//ɽ^h//g^h/] of standard colloquial Bengali (SCB) are not present in Chatkhill dialect. As a result the contexts of sound are unique in this dialect and they are influenced by other consonants. The matter is discussed below with examples.

b^h > b: Labial, plosive, voiceless, aspirated consonants /b^h/ is turn into the bilabial, plosive, voiced, unaspirated /b/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[lab ^h]	[lab]	Profit
[b ^h alɔ]	[balɔ]	Good

t̪^h > t̪: Dental, plosive, voiceless, aspirated /t̪^h/ is turn into the dental, plosive, unaspirated, voiceless /t̪/ after the words in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[mat̪ ^h a]	[mat̪a]	Head
[lat̪ ^h i]	[lat̪i]	Kick

b^h > b: Bilabial, plosive, voiceless, unaspirated /b^h/ is turn into the bilabial, plosive, unaspirated, voiced /b/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[b ^h aɽ]	[baɽ]	Rice
[b ^h ul]	[bul]	Mistake

ḍ^h > ḍ: Dental-plosive, voiced, aspirated /ḍ^h/ is turned into the dental, plosive, voiced, unaspirated /ḍ/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[ḍ ^h an]	[ḍan]	Rice
[ḍ ^h ar]	[ḍar]	Borrow

ḍ^h > ḍ: Palato-alveolar, plosive, voiceless, aspirated /ḍ^h/ is turned into the Palato-alveolar, plosive, voiced, aspirated /ḍ/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[ḍ ^h al]	[ḍal]	Bark
[ḍ ^h el]	[ḍel]	A lot of

ḥ > c: Palatal, plosive, voiceless, aspirated /ḥ/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turned into the Palatal, plosive, unaspirated, fricatives /c/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[ḥal]	[cal]	Skin of tree
[ḥobi]	[cobi]	Picture

ḥ > ḥ: Palatal, plosive, voiceless /ḥ/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turned into the Palatal, voiced, unaspirated /ḥ/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[ḥ ^h ɔɽ]	[ḥɔɽ]	Strom
[ḥ ^h uɽi]	[ḥuri]	Basket

ḡ > g: Velar, plosive, voiceless, aspirated /ḡ/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turned into the velar, plosive, voiced, unaspirated /g/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[ḡ ^h uɽi]	[guri]	Kite
[ḡ ^h am]	[gam]	Suit

ɽ > r: Palato-alveolar, retroflex, voiced consonant /ɽ/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turned into the alveolar, plosive, voiced, unaspirated, retroflex /r/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[baɽi]	[bari]	Home
[maɽi]	[mari]	Root of teeth

p^h > h: Labial, plosive, voiceless, aspirated consonant /p^h/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turn into the glottal, voiceless, aspirated sound /h/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[p ^h ɔl]	[hɔl]	Fruit
[p ^h ɪta]	[hiɽa]	Tape

d^h > d: Palato-alveolar, plosive, voiced, aspirated consonant /d^h/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turn into the palato-alveolar, plosive, voiced, unaspirated /d/ in this dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[d ^h eu]	[deu]	Wave
[d ^h ol]	[dol]	A tom-tom

Some consonants of standard colloquial Bengali language are turn into another consonant in Chatkhil dialect. These kinds of examples are explained below;

p > h: Bilabial, plosive, voiceless, unaspirated consonant /p^h/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turn into the glottal, voiceless, aspirated, fricatives sound /d/ in this dialect.

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[pani]	[hani]	Water
[pan]	[han]	Betel-leaf
[pap]	[hap]	Sine

c > ɟ: Dental, plosive, voiceless, unaspirated consonant /c/ of standard colloquial Bengali language is turn into the palato-alveolar; plosive, unaspirated, fricatives sound /ɟ/ in this dialect.

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[bacca]	[baicca]	Kids'
[acc ^h a]	[aicca]	Ok
[cul]	[çul]	Hair

To consider the initial position of words we can see some consonants of standard colloquial Bengali language stand between those consonants of this dialect. Such as;

The sound /p/ is used as a labial plosive voiceless unaspirated consonant both in standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect. The sound /p/ of standard Colloquial Bengali is used in initial, middle and final position in a word. But we get the sound of /p/ in Chatkhil dialect used in the middle and final position in word as a compound consonant. Such as;

	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Final</i>
SCB	Side [paʃ]	lungi [t̪ɔpon]	Sine [pap]
Chatkhil-dialect	-	cauliflower [hulkɔpi]	Half [hap]

Though /ɽ/ is used as a rolling sound in both standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect, it is used in the middle and final position of word in standard colloquial Bengali language and /ɽ/ is pronounced in the middle positions in a word in Chatkhil dialect only. Such as;

	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Final</i>
SCB	-	Wrapping [moɽano]	root [ʃikɔɽ]
Chatkhil-dialect	-	Small sitting tool [hiɽa/heɽa]	-

It is notable that /ɽ/ sound turn into /r/ in the middle position of word in Chatkhil dialect.

/t^h/ is used as a palato-alveolar, plosive, aspirated, voiceless in both standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect and only /t^h/ is used in three positions in a word in standard Colloquial Bengali. But /t^h/ is pronounced initial position in a word in Chatkhil dialects only. Such as;

	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Final</i>
SCB	lips [t ^h ɔt]	field [mat ^h]	yard [ut ^h an]
Chatkhil-dialect	To push [t ^h æɽ]	-	-

/h/ is used as a glottal, fricative, aspirated sound in both standard Colloquial Bengali and Chatkhill dialect. In standard colloquial Bengali /t^h/ is used in three position (initial, middle, final) in a word. But in Chatkhill dialect /h/ is pronounced only initial and middle positions in a word. Such as;

	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>Final</i>
SCB	hand [haṭ]	Seheri [seheri]	shaha [saha]
Chatkhill-dialect	Leg [ha]	hell [ʃahannam]	-

Besides these, some consonants of standard colloquial Bengali are especially turn into the different sounds in Chatkhill dialect. The following examples are given beneath.

Somewhere glottal sound /h/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into /a/ in Chatkhill dialect.

	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
h > a	[haṭ]	[aṭ]	hand
	[hafɪ]	[afɪ]	Laugh
	[hãf]	[ãf]	Duck

An especial feature of Chatkhill dialect is that consonants are used as a vowel sound.

/ʃ/ sound of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into /h/ in Chatkhill dialect. Such as;

	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
ʃ > h	[ʃiŋ]	[hiŋ]	Horn
	[ʃaṭ]	[haṭ]	Seven

/t/ sound of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into /d/ in Chatkhill dialect. Such as;

	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
t > d	[mota]	[moda]	Fat
	[ãti]	[adi]	Bundle
	[ata]	[ada]	Coarse flour

/s/ sound of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into /ç/ in Chatkhill dialect. Such as;

	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhill-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
s > ç	[sikka]	[çikka]	-
	[sop ^h a]	[cop ^h a]	Sofa

/p^h/sound of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into /s/in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
p ^h > s	[ip ^h tar]	[istar]	Ifter

2.2 Vowels

The norm of teaching standard colloquial Bengali is that the explanation of vowels deferred till complete understanding of the consonants has been established. This is because a consonant includes a short vowel necessary to its pronunciation. Bengali words are not made up of a number of letters bunched together but of a number of sounds and while it is possible for a vowel to be a sound on its own, it is impossible for a consonant to be so. It is the vowel that determines the *Soor* or utterance of the word.

The number of oral vowels is same both in standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect that means we have got seven vowels during the study of this dialect.

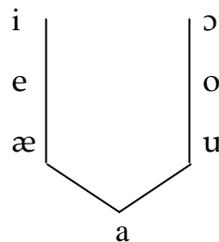


Figure – 2: Oral vowel sound of Standard Colloquial Bengali language and Chatkhil Dialect

Though, they have a similarity according to the numbers of vowels but the vowels of standard colloquial Bengali are pronounced as different vowels from Chatkhil dialect in different positions. The vowel changing process between standard colloquial Bengali language and Chatkhil dialects are described below;

i > æ: High-front vowel /i/ of standard colloquial Bengali is pronounced sometimes as a front low-mid vowel /æ/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[licu]	[læcu]	lichi
[ji]	[jæ]	Yes

e > a: High-mid front vowel /e/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the sound /a/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[rek ^h e]	[rai]	Kept
[nei]	[nai]	Nothing

e > æ: High-mid front vowel /e/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the front low-mid vowel /æ/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[leʃ]	[læʃ]	Tail
[ek]	[æk]	One

o > a: High-mid back vowel /o/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the low-mid vowel /a/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[b ^h alo]	[bala]	Fine
[kalo]	[kala]	Black

u > o: Back-high vowel /u/ of standard colloquial Bengali is sometimes turning into the back high-mid vowel /o/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[kumɽa]	[komɽa]	Pumpkin

o > ɔ: Back high-mid vowel /o/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the back low-mid vowel /ɔ/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[polau]	[hɔlau]	Pelau
[boɽɔl]	[boɽɔl]	Bottle

a > ai: Oral vowel /a/ of standard colloquial Bengali is pronounced as [ai] in Chatkhil dialect.

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[car]	[cair]	Four
[kal]	[kail]	Tomorrow

e > o: Sometimes high-mid front vowel /e/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turning into the back high-mid vowel /o/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[gengi]	[gongi]	A vest

a > ɔ: Low-mid vowel /a/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the mid-front vowel /ɔ/ in someplace of Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[na]	[nɔ]	No
[hã]	[hɔ]	Yes
[namaʃ]	[nɔmaʃ]	Prayer

ɔ > i: Low-mid front vowel /ɔ/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the high-front vowel /i/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[camɔc]	[camic]	Spoon

u > i: Back-front vowel /u/ of standard colloquial Bengali is turn into the high-front vowel /i/ in someplace of Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[caul]	[cail]	Rice

o > u: Back high-mid vowel /o/ of standard colloquial Bengali is pronounced as a back high vowel /u/ in Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[koti]	[kudi]	Ten million

a > i: Low-mid vowel /a/ of standard colloquial Bengali is pronounced as a high-front vowel /i/ in someplace of Chatkhil dialect. Such as;

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[mapa]	[mapi]	To measure
[jana]	[jani]	To know

<u>Sound</u>	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[i > e]	[licu]	[lecu]	Litchi
[u > i]	[caul]	[cail]	Rice
[e > a]	[rek ^h e]	[rai]	Kept
[e > æ]	[beca]	[bæca]	To sale
[o > a]	[kalo]	[kala]	Black
[a > i]	[mapa]	[mapi]	Measure
[e > o]	[gengi]	[gongi]	A vest
[o > u]	[koti]	[kudi]	Ten million
[o > i]	[camɔc]	[camic]	Spoon
[a > ai]	[mar]	[mair]	To bite
[a > ɔ]	[na]	[nɔ]	No
[o > ɔ]	[boɬɔl]	[bɔɬɔl]	Bottle
[u > o]	[kumɾa]	[komɾa]	Pumpkin

Table – 1: Changed of vowel sound of standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect

2.3. Nasalized Vowel: Standard Colloquial Bengali & Chatkhil Dialect

There are seven nasalized vowel in standard colloquial Bengali, which means all oral vowels have nasalized form present. These are given beneath-

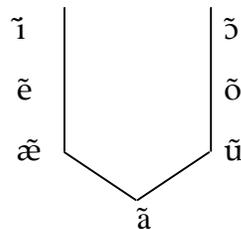


Figure – 3: Nasalized vowel sounds of standard colloquial Bengali

But in Chatkhil dialect we have got four oral vowels those have nasalized form during the study. These are;

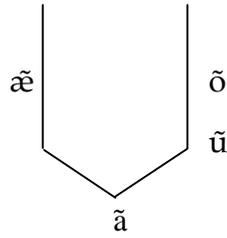


Figure – 4: Nasalized vowel sounds of Chatkhil dialect

	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
/ã/	[ãi]	I
	[hãp]	Snake
/õ/	[hõa]	Cucumber
	[t ^h õd]	Lips
/ã̃/	[tãa]	Taka (money)
	[bãa]	Curve
/ũ/	[tũi]	You

The nasalized vowel /ã̃/ of standard colloquial Bengali is become extinct of its nasalization in Chatkhil dialect.

<u>SCB</u>	<u>Chatkhil-dialect</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
[cãḍ]	[can]	Moon
[fãḍ]	[hand]	Trap
[bãḍ ^h a]	[banda]	Tide up
[kãca]	[kaca]	To green
[ãti]	[adi]	Bundle

4. Syllable Structure

The syllable structure of synonym words which are used in both standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhil dialect is given beneath –

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Syllable Structure</u>	<u>Chatkhill Dialect</u>	<u>Syllable Structure</u>
Today	[aɽ]	vc	[aiɽ]	vvc
No	[na]	cv	[nɔ]	cv
Tomorrow	[kal]	cvc	[kail]	cvvc
Boy	[c ^h ele]	cvcv	[hola]	cvcv
Yellow	[holuɖ]	cvcvc	[ɔilɖa]	vvccv
Bed	[bic ^h ana]	cvcvcv	[bicna]	cvccv
Sun	[ʃurʃo]	cvccv	[ʃuruɽ]	cvcvc
Bone	[haɽ]	cvc	[addi]	vccv
Stone	[paɽ ^h or]	cvcvc	[haɽr]	cvcc
Medicine	[oufɔɖ ^h]	vvcvc	[ofuɖ]	vcvc
Gave	[ɖiec ^h ilo]	cvvcvcv	[ɖicilo]	cvvcvcv

Table – 2: The comparative syllable structure of words used in SCB and CD (Dissimilarly)

The differentiation of synonyms words are highlighted in the following examples which are used in standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhill dialect. But we have got same syllable structure of words between these two. Such kinds of examples are shown beneath –

<u>Meaning</u>	<u>SCB</u>	<u>Syllable Structure</u>	<u>Chatkhill Dialect</u>	<u>Syllable Structure</u>
Net	[ʃal]	cvc	[ʃal]	cvc
Home	[baɽi]	cvcv	[bari]	cvcv
We	[amra]	vcvc	[amra]	vcvc
Eat	[k ^h ai]	cvv	[k ^h ai]	cvv
Fan	[palɔk]	cvcvc	[lalɔk]	cvcvc

Table – 3: The comparative syllable structure of words used in SCL and CD (similarly)

There are some differences of words sound in standard colloquial Bengali and Chatkhill dialect but sometimes these are showing the same syllable structure, sometimes it observed differences in some places.

Conclusion

Chatkhil dialect has distinct characteristics in constructing words and pronunciation. It has much more similarities with Noakhali dialect (Chatkhil dialect is a sister language of Noakhali) than standard colloquial Bengali regarding phonological features but they have more differences from the manner of pronunciation, such as the aspirated sound of standard Colloquial Bengali never pronounced in this dialect. So far the contexts of sound are unique in this dialect than Standard Colloquial Bengali and influenced by other consonants.

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12 : 1 January 2012

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Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Interactive Whiteboard Technology in English Language Teaching Classrooms in India

Archana Sharma, M.Phil.

Abstract

As English has become the connecting language in India and teaching English is an important sector in the education field, English teachers are facing various challenges either from existing technology or from students or from pedagogy etc. To face existing challenges, new methodology has been evolved to overcome the problem but success is not guaranteed. Educationists are not lacking behind in incorporating the technology in teaching English.

This paper will discuss one of the latest technical equipment, the Interactive Whiteboard (hereafter IWB), which is speedily being adopted in schools and institutions. It will also look at some possible advantages and disadvantages of using IWB.

Key words: Interactive Whiteboard, teaching, language, English.

Introduction

Language teachers try to incorporate various techniques, methods and electronic devices for audio-visual assistance. This time educators recommend Interactive Whiteboard

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technology for language teaching. Miller, Averis and Door, in their research on IWB in 2005, highlighted a number of specific features of this technology. They suggest that teachers find them quite easy to use; whilst they take longer to prepare material, there is a greater reward in terms of student interest. Materials can easily be adapted and re-used; visual and kinaesthetic learning styles are supported; retention/recall and sequential explanations are aided; improved planning, presentation, and revisiting; better motivation and attention on the part of students, particularly slower learners; interactivity is supported through questioning, software features and multimedia. (Miller et al, 2005)

The incorporation of IWBs into English for academic purposes was investigated by E. Cutrim Schmid in 2006. She researched how the IWB came to be used as part of a hands on approach using whole class interaction to collaboratively learn about English academic literary practices (Schmid, 2006). During a deep research on IWB one commentator noted,

‘in the hands of a teacher who is interested in developing the independent, creative, thinking skills of their students, (the IWB) will be used to further these purposes. . . . It’s not what you use it’s how you use it’ (Virtual Learning 2003b, p. 4).

IWB

Walter McKenzie said "A new age demands a new paradigm!" and IWB is the demand of the age. IWB is technical equipment with many attachments (peripherals). This equipment is a giant whiteboard which is placed suitably to the wall or on the movable stand, depending upon the facilities available in the institution. The position of the board is such that everybody can see the content on the board. One thing should be remembered before placing the whiteboard in the class that suitable arrangement should be done so that every student can reach to the length and breath of the board to do activity on it. This white board is not passive. Its screen becomes live when it is hooked up with computer and a projector. The projector is generally fixed on the ceiling. The desktop of the attached computer becomes giant and interactive when projector projected the image (which is on the desktop) on the whiteboard. This equipment works on touch screen technology and various softwares help running different programmes, required for teaching. These softwares bring interactivity and interest factor in the class. Audio visual devices are also attached to give completeness to this interactive whiteboard. Speakers are placed in the corners and the possibility of echo is kept in mind.

IWB in India

The entry of Interactive Whiteboard in education sector is very new in India. It is in the infant stage in India and has become popular especially in metro and other large cities where people are very much aware of this latest technology and its impact in teaching and learning language. There are lots of opportunities for IWB in India.

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“India's Education sector is likely to step up its IT spending to about USD 704 million in 2012, reflecting in a CAGR (compound annual growth rate) of 19 percent during 2007-2012 says the Springboard research report. Traditional education system has undergone a vast change moving out of the era of the blackboard, classroom and conventional methods of teaching to a more intelligent, digitised and smarter way of imparting knowledge. One of the major tools emerged in this changed education system is interactive whiteboard. According to Future Source Consulting, an independent global research company that tracks interactive whiteboard sales, about 7,500 (Rs. 75 Crore in value terms) IWBs were sold in India in 2009. The agency projects this to touch 28,000 units (Rs280 Crore) this year and 70,000 (Rs. 700 Crore) in the next. The various studies” (Pragya Gupta, 2010)

Smart Classrooms

Private institutions and English medium schools (private and self-financed) and colleges are changing the traditional classrooms into smart classrooms. The concept of smart class emerged with the realization of the fact that traditional blackboard classrooms are unable to hold the attention of the students of this tech-age. Though research has proved that the interactive whiteboard is indeed an interactive, innovative and effective tool in language learning, the use of IWB technology in language teaching in India is in experimental phase and research in various fields are going on to find its utility, potentiality, effectiveness, motivation ratio, its impact on teachers and students.

Reasons for the Increasing Use of IWB in Classrooms

There are mainly four reasons for the transformation of traditional blackboard classrooms in to IWB equipped smart rooms in language teaching.

1. Students relate English with the latest things, so they want every new technology in their language class.
2. Teachers are interested in bringing novelty to their teaching methodology in language teaching.
3. The present scenario of the tech-based education system encourages the country's decision makers to bring the latest technology to enable Indian students perform just as the students of other developed countries.
4. Versatile features of IWB enable language teachers to use well-plans lessons in the language class with all innovative ideas and novelty.

Now I will discuss these factors in detail.

Students

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Now-a-days students do not want the same dull, monotonous, teacher-centered, ineffective language classes. They want that their teacher must attract their attention in the class first and then start teaching the core elements. Teaching language should not be a bore and a burdensome exercise. It should be full of fun and interesting too. Half of the intended task is done well if the starting of the task is done well. Teacher must know the psychology of the students. Students want a methodology which fulfills their requirements and also want that they should be aware of the aims of each activity they do in the language class (where they will use a particular exercise in their practical life). Very often they require interesting topics and tasks which lead to the solutions of the problems they face. They need to manipulate things, examine them, and work with them, which means that teachers should provide students with resources that invite innovation in their ideas and exploration.

Below are given several preferences of the today's students:

- Want up to date knowledge content related to their course and other related external elements also.
- General awareness. What is going on in the world related to the subject?
- Want entertainment and fun.
- Need games based exercises.
- Need to know that the knowledge they achieve will be useful for their future life.
- Need changes.
- Want to try new techniques, machines and everything which is offered in the market.
- Expect to be taught how to learn

IWB may offer almost everything which is mentioned in the list above. In an Interactive way pupils either individually or in groups or teams practice all the skills and their motivation for learning a language might increase. As pointed out in the report of BECTA that it

".....encourages more varied, creative and seamless use of teaching materials; increases students' engagement, enjoyment, and motivation to a greater extent than conventional whole-class teaching; and facilitates students' participation through the ability to interact with materials on the board" (BECTA, 2003, p. 1).

Teacher

"With the help of technology, teachers will be leaders in the transformation of education around the world". (Barrett, Craig R. Intel)

Teachers are the pivot of any class. Technology, methods and electronic and technical equipments are only for the assistance of the teacher. Whatever technology or method is applied, the success of all these are in the hand of teachers. Teachers who are innovative
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and who believe in whole life-learning always try novelty in their classrooms. Today's teacher is not playing a role of dictator or only a lecturer or speaker in the class. He/she wants their students take part in discussion in the class. He or she knows that involvement in any activity leaves a deep and lasting impact on students. "Tell me and I'll forget. Show me and I'll remember. Involve me and I'll understand," so stated Confucius.

A teacher wants or should desire

- interaction among students
- group performance with individual performance
- innovative method to present things
- save time which is spent in writing on the board
- want to face the class most of the time
- speaks less and listen more from students
- to leave a positive impact on students
- a device which can help in presenting difficult topic in an much easier way

Helpful IWBs

Teachers love to use IWB in their English teaching class as it helps them in various ways.

- Present digital resources
- Graphics can be used for the exercise of data interpretation
- Reading comprehension text can be presented in one click
- Story writing exercise beautiful pictures or drawings can be projected at once
- Now a days many companies offer readymade curricular materials
- Students' works can be shared and discussed
- Videos and audios can help in listening and dialogue formation. It is really fun.
- Maps, encyclopedias, dictionaries, etc., can be used on the spot through Internet access.
- Movies and cartoons may help in listening and in comprehension.
- Grammar based games impact a lot rather than simple exercises in the book.
- Real situations like TV reports, live telecast of contemporary issue will make them good competent.
- It encourages participation of students in a learning activity.
- It increases peer activity.
- It engages students.
- It fascinates students so grab their attention and bring their attention in the class.
- With its peripherals it allows watching a video and playing with it. It may be paused many times for stressing on a topic and then re-played again.
- Contents for reading can be presented on one click, so it saves time.
- It can remove the content in another click.

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- It offers the facility of saving the data used in a particular lecture or recording a lesson which can be used for further classes or absent students.
- It is a great tool for visual learners because of the large screen.
- It is very easy to use either with a special pen or fingers.
- Stress on all the skill of language like reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Challenges to IWB Technology

Though much has been said about the positive impact of the IWB in English teaching, it is also found that some language teachers have identified the negative impact as well. They found that the readymade content is not sufficient and preparing new content for the class is very much time-consuming. Most of the teachers in India, even in cities, are not very much tech-savvy. So they found it a tough job to operate the various features of IWB. Some teachers declare that these tools are nothing but costly accessories to decorate the classroom. They strongly believe that teachers should be the center of the classroom.

“Though smart classrooms were the need of the hour, they could never replace teaching by talking.” (Eduadmin, 2011)

Sometimes the problem arises with regard to the operation of the IWB such as technical problems with the board, internet problems, etc. which make it difficult to keep the equipments intact for the lecture. If in the midst of use the IWB breaks down, attention of the class is totally distracted. If any intervention exists then concentration is disturbed. Training the teachers in the use of the boards and maintaining their motivation also pose challenge in implementing the IWB in language classes. Not only the high cost but its maintenance cost is also a great challenge to the administrators.

Conclusion

No doubt that the teacher is the central and most important part of a classroom but with the help of positive attitude and innovative ideas and with a tool like IWB in their hands, they can perform in a much better way.

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**Occupational Stress and Turnover Intentions among the
Non-Governmental Organizations' Employees**

**Fauzia Khurshid, Ph.D., Zahir Uddin Butt, Ph.D. and
Bushra Muzaffar**

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions of the Non-governmental Organizations' employees of Pakistan. It is a descriptive correlation study.

For the measurement of occupational stress, the Revised Occupational Role Stress Inventory (OSI-R) based on 60 items and for the measurement of turnover intentions, continuance organizational commitment scale was used (sub scale of organizational commitment questionnaire).

Study was conducted in two parts; first part was concerned with the pilot study, for this purpose a random sample of 30 NGOs employees was collected from 3 NGOs, among them 10 males and 20 females.

In order to determine the psychometric properties of research tools data was analyzed with various statistical techniques such as, alpha reliability co-efficient, items total correlation, inter-scales correlation.

The result of the pilot study indicated that due to insignificant items total correlations, items no 11, 47, 52, and 53 of OSI-R were excluded from scale. Continuance organizational commitment scale is based on 6 items, all items have significant correlation with the total scale therefore, and all these were retained in the scale. In

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Organizations' Employees

the Part II a stratified random sample of 100 NGOs employees were collected from 10 selected NGOs of Islamabad. Among them, 43 males and 57 females, the data was analyzed with various statistical procedures to test the results hypotheses. The result shows that there is significant positive relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions.

Result shows that permanent employees experience less stress as compared with contract employees. Moreover, female employees have higher occupational stress than the male employees. Managers experience higher occupational stress as compared with other staff members.

INTRODUCTION

The present turbulent environment of NGOs requires managers and employees to reexamine their behavioural practices. Working in NGOs is an inherently a stressful profession with uncertainties, long working hours, ethical dilemmas, difficult community and conflicting work demands. The physical and psychological demands of this profession often make its employees more vulnerable to high levels of occupational stress and turnovers. Job stress can be defined as harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not harmonize the capabilities, wherewithal, or requirements of the employee's personality.

Occupational stress organizational and turnover intentions have long been concerns for employees and employers because of the impact and influence they yield on work performance. In today's world, stress has become a world's wide phenomenon, which is virtually there, in some form, in every work place. Nowadays employees are working for long hours, as the rising levels of responsibilities require them to exert themselves (Omolaro 2008).

The role of NGOs related to the development in different fields as in education, health, women welfare, etc., as was the case in most developing nations. This range of activities varies from one country to the other. The history of Pakistani NGOs has its roots back in the time of Partition. Although not directed to as NGOs at that time, many voluntary organizations were planning to provide humanitarian aid to refugees pouring into the country and to help victims of public riot.

During the first few years of Pakistan, many of these NGOs concentrated on rehabilitation and basic services as health and education. Some of these voluntary organizations are active even today, although their role may have changed today. The number of Nongovernmental Organizations within Pakistan is increasing day by day,

NGOs have evolved in different directions and they present a wide variety of programs and structures. More common activity of NGOs relate to charity, relief and welfare-oriented provision of services in health, education and financial support for the under privileged, handicapped, widows, orphans, etc.

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Some of these activities focus on provision of basic services where government facilities are either not available or are inadequate, with an emphasis on critical needs, not on community participation or long-term sustainability or empowerment for the beneficiary population. Some other activities of NGOs are more developmental in nature and involve attempts to address long-term needs, while dealing with specific community or sector problems (Zia, 1996).

Most of NGO employees are busy in the promotion of developmental initiatives at grassroots level, working in rural poor and urban slum areas. Their services include education, health, and provision of clean drinking water, disaster management, relief and rescue in order to help community members.

Taking into the account the nature of work NGO employees are engaged in, occupational stress is considered to be a part of their jobs that can sometimes lead to turnover, that is, permanent withdrawal from an organization. This results in increased recruiting, selection and training cost. The high turnover rate can disrupt the efficient running of the organization when knowledge and experienced personnel leave and replacement must be found and prepared to assume positions of responsibility (UNDP, 2002).

Beehr () defines role stress as ‘anything about an organizational role that produces adverse consequences for the individual’. Schuler () identified stress in organizations as an increasingly important concern in both organizational research and practice. Tucker-Ladd (1996) described common behavioral effects resulting from prolonged occupational stress including hyperactivity, outbursts of emotional preoccupation with a certain situation, holding a grudge, excessive worry, irritability, changing habits excessive sleeping, insomnia, poor memory, crying feeling, scare and irritation with delays. The pressure to perform often makes people self-conscious and this elevated self-consciousness disrupts their attention and increases occupational stress. It begins to deteriorate employees’ physical and mental health and some people choose to escape through absenteeism and turnover. Some workers face problems such as lack of social support, skepticism of local community, exposure to life threatening security risks. They feel that ultimately they themselves are responsible for their own safety and security, which contributes to their increased levels of stress.

In a human resources management context, turnover is the rate at which an employer gains and loses employees. Simple ways to describe it are “how long employees intend to stay” or “the rate of traffic through the revolving door”. Turnover is measured for individual companies and for their industry as a whole. If an employer is said to have a high turnover relative to its competitors, it means that employees of that company have a shorter average tenure than those of other companies in the same industry. High turnover can be harmful to a company’s productivity if skilled workers are often leaving and the worker population contains a high percentage of novice workers. Recognition, this is the most common way of separation. Employee leaves his job and employment with his employer to pursue better opportunities. The process of terminations usually perceived negatively by employees. There can be many reasons for an employer to terminate the contract of employment but some of

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the common reasons are non-performance, indiscipline, misconduct and theft (Robbins, 2010).

When we study the NGOs employees in the Pakistani context, keeping in view the phenomena of stress and turnover intentions, we may find that NGOs employees are expected to work selfless and face pressures due to threatening work environment and high degree of occupational stress. Moreover the salaries and facilities provided to NGOs employees are not so attractive as compared to other sectors this may be the major cause of turnover in the NGOs sector (TVO, 2004).

Previous researches established that occupational stress is positively related to turnover intentions, absenteeism and tension Van de Ven (2002). In the Pakistani context no direct study is found which investigate the occupational stress is relation of employees turnover intentions in the NGOs sector. Therefore, through this study researchers intend investigate the occupational stress in relation to NGOs employee turnover intentions.

Problem Statement

The study examined the relationship of occupational stress and turnover intentions in non-governmental organizations' employees. Another aim is to explore the role of certain demographic variables such as gender, age, qualification, job experience, nature of job and job position in determining the level of stress and turnover intentions among the NGO employees of Pakistan.

Objectives

1. To study the relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions of NGO employees.
2. To find out level, causes and dimension of occupational stress experienced by NGO employees.
3. To investigate the role of certain demographic variables including, gender, age, qualification, job experience, nature of job and job position in determining the level of stress and turnover intentions among the NGO employees.

Hypothesis

1. There is positive relationship between occupational stress & turnover intentions.
2. Female NGOs employees have higher occupational stress and turnover intention than male NGOs employees.
3. Highly educated and experienced NGO employees have higher occupational stress and low turnover intentions than the less educated and less experienced ones.
4. Employees working on permanent basis have low stress and lower turnover intentions than the employees working on the contract basis.

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5. Managers experience higher stress and lower turnover intentions than other the staff members.
6. Higher income level is inversely related with occupational stress and turnover intentions.

METHODOLOGY

The present research is a descriptive correctional study that seeks to explore the relationship between stress and turnover intentions.

Research Instruments

In this present study for the measurement of occupational stress of NGOs employees, OSI-R adapted by Butt (2009) was used and for the measurement of turnover intentions Continuance Commitment Scale of OCQ was used to measure (sub scale of organizational commitment questionnaire developed by Mayer and Allen).

The OSI-R is a self-report inventory consisting of three questionnaires.

Occupational Role Questionnaire: It consists of 15 items; this scale measures the role overload, role insufficiency, role ambiguity, role boundary, responsibility and physical environment

Personal Strain Questionnaire: It consists of 16 items, this scale measures vocational strain, psychological strain, interpersonal and physical strain.

Personal Resources Questionnaire: It consists of 29 items, this scale measures coping mechanism utilized by the subjects, creation self-care, social support, and rationale /cognitive coping.

Respondents were asked to rate of the each of 60 item on five point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

For the measurement of turnover intentions the Continuous Commitment scale of OCQ was used which was comprised of 6 items.

Establishment of Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

In order to determine the reliability and validity of research instruments, pilot testing was conducted on a sample of 30 employees of registered NGOs .Among them 13 male and 17 female employees, their ages ranged from 20 to 40 years, income level ranged from 10,000 to 50, 000.In order to check the items effectiveness the item total correlations were computed. The correlation coefficient ranges from.11 to .84 **. It was found that item no.11, 47.52,53 were not significantly correlated with total scale. Therefore these insignificant items were excluded from the scale and rest of 56 items were retained for the main study

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Main Study

The main study was designed to explore the relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions in the NGOs employees of. It further investigate the effects occupational stress on turnover intensions due to demographics variations such as job position qualification, job experience, gender, age, nature of job and monthly income.

Population

All the employees working in the NGOs sector of Islamabad were included in population of this study but due to limited time and resources it was not possible to collect data from them.

Sample

The target population of this study was all graduates and post graduates employees of NGOs. The sample of this study was collected through stratified random sampling from the ten NGOs, located at Islamabad such as, MAID, Nusrat Jan Trust, Pakistan Girls Association, BRAC, AGA Khan Health Center Islamabad, Focus Humanitarian, Hashoo Foundation, AKRSP Mountain School Trust and Action Aid Pakistan (10 employees from each organization). Workers those involved in unskilled labors were excluded from the sample.

The sample consisted of 100 respondents among them 43 were male and 57 female employees, their age ranged from 20 to 40 years. The qualification level ranged from graduation to M Phil.

Procedure

The respondents contacted at their NGOs and information about the purpose of study was provided to them. After that OSI-R and continuance organizational commitment scale were given to them with request to complete these scales in one sitting by selecting appropriate response category which they considered more appropriate.

Results

After data collection, the whole data were transferred to the computer and analyzed with the help of SPSS .16.

Table 1

Correlation of Subscales and Total scale of OSI-R with Turnover Intensions					
Subscales	ORQ	PSQ	PRQ	OSI	Turnover

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ORQ			
PSQ	.59		
PRQ	.49	.56	
OSI-R Total	.84	.87	.76
Turnover	.89	.74	.94

Table 1 describes the inter-correlations of the subscales and total scale of OSI-R with the continuous commitment scale. It illustrates that there is a positive relationship between the occupational role stress and turnover intention, meaning that higher occupational stress leads to higher turnover intentions in the employees.

Table 2

Levels of Occupational Stress Experience by the NGO Employees (N=100)

Level of Occupational Stress	n	Percentage
Mild Stress	25	25%
Moderate Stress	46	46%
High Stress	29	29%

Table 2 portray levels of occupational stress experienced by the NGOs employees, 25 % employees experience mild stress, 46% experience moderate occupational stress whereas 29% employees experience high level of occupational stress.

Table 3

Gender Wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on OSI and Turnover Intentions (N=100)

Subscales	female (n=43)	Male (n=57)
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	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire 8.51		48.91 9.62		45.21
Personal Strain Questionnaire	124.37	8.13	122.53	7.17
Personal Resources Questionnaire 229.54 9.81		231.30 16.19		
OSI-R Total 25.49	404.58	33.94		397.28
Turnover 3.125	21.57		2.62	16.81

Table 3 represents the gender wise differences of NGO employees. The result shows that female employees have higher mean score on all subscales of OSI-R than the female NGOs employees. The result further illustrates that female employees have also higher turnover intentions than the male employees.

Table 4

Age Wise Comparison of Employees of NGOs Sector on OSI and Turnover Intentions (N=100)

Subscales above	20 -30 (n=44)		30-40 (n=45)		40 & (n=11)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire 48.27 7.90		44.73 9.34		44.64 8.84		
Personal Strain Questionnaire 13.26	122.39	4.48	124.09	5.42	128.00	
Personal Resources Questionnaire 231.18 5.32		228.64 10.93		231.71 15.64		
OSI-Total 26.48	395.65	20.27	400.44	29.9	407.45	
Turnover 3.435	21.41	3.068	19.91	2.859	16.00	

Table 4 shows the age wise differences. The result indicates that the older employees have higher mean score on all sub scales OSI-R than the younger employees. As far as the turnover intentions are concerned that younger NGOs employees have higher turnover intentions than the older NGOs' employee.

Table 5

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Qualification Wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on OSI and Turnover Intentions (N=100)

Subscales	M Phil (n=7)		Master (n=69)		Graduation (n=24)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire 10.57		45.33	4.67	44.88	8.82	42.80
Personal Strain Questionnaire	120.50	6.28	123.65	7.10	125.08	5.53
Personal Resources Questionnaire 210.12 11.97		234.14	9.99		229.96	13.56
OSI-R Total 28.07		399.97	20.94		398.49	29.48 378
Turnover 1.949		19.17	3.656		18.18	2.940 15.01

Table 4 represents the qualification wise comparison on occupational stress and turnover intentions. Result shows that M Phil degree holder employees have higher occupational stress, while graduate employees have least stress. As far as the turnover intentions are concerned the graduate employees have lowest turn over intentions and M.Phil degree holders have higher turnovers intensions.

Table 5

Job Experience Wise Comparison of Employees of NGOs Sector on OSI and Turnover intentions (N=100)

Subscales above 7year (N=12)	1-3year (n=38)		3-7year (N=50)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire 52.73 6.30	45.08	9.53	44.40	9.08
Personal strain Questionnaire 13.21	121.79	5.11	126.26	5.16 124.25
Personal Resources Questionnaire 230.50 15.52	229.87	16.53		233.58 8.63
OSI-R Total 407.48 35.03	396.74	31.17	404.24	22.87

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Turnover	19.18	3.092	17.70	2.915
15.85	2.539			

Table 5 shows the job experience wise comparison, the result indicates employees with less work experience have lower stress and higher turnover intension as compared with employees with more work experience.

Table 6

Type of job –wise Comparison of Employees of NGOs sector on OSI and turnover intentions (N=100)

Subscales	Permanent (n=25)		Contract (n=75)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire		44.64	7.61	45.23
9.87				
Personal Strain Questionnaire	122.28	5.74	123.67	6.81
Personal Resources Questionnaire		223.12	11.99	
231.03	13.19			
OSI-R Total	389.92	232.95	399.93	29.87
Turnover	15.72	3.458	19.43	2.844

Table 6 shows the type of job wise comparison between permanent and contract employees of NGOs, result shows that presents that contract employees have higher occupational stress than permanent employees. The result also indicates that turnover intentions are also higher in the contract employees as compared with permanent ones.

Table 7

Income-Wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on OSI-R and Turnover Intentions (N=100)

Subscales and above	Up to 10000 (n=20)		20000-30000 (n=43)		30000 (n=37)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Occupational Role Questionnaire	57.15	6.302	45.84	9.803		
44.32	9.357					
Personal strain Questionnaire	125.75	6.060	121.02	5.289		
120.51	8.112					
Personal Resources Questionnaire	231.10	13.768	231.58	15.296		
228.38	8.877					

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OSI-R Total	410.00	20.586	399.44	24620
397.22	18.691			
Turnover	22.70	3.702	18.63	2.829
16.57	2.824			

Table 7 shows the income wise comparison between NGOs employees' score on OSI scale. The result indicates that the employees with the income of up to 10,000 experience higher stress and higher turnover intentions as compared with employees with higher the income groups.

Table 8

Job Position- wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on OSI-R and Turnover Intentions

Subscales	Managers (n=24)		Trainers (n=31)		Staff (n=45)
	M	SD	M	SD	M
Occupational Role Questionnaire	44.92	5.96	40.19	11.03	
	39.93	8.02			
Personal strain Questionnaire	125.96	4.29	124.00	9.47	123.04
	5.26				
Personal Resources Questionnaire	230.21	7.40	231.42	18.26	
	229.58	10.77			
OSI-R Total	401.09	17.65	395.61	38.76	392.55
	32.07				
Turnover	13.92	2.603	16.77	2.883	15.07
	3.292				

The table 8 shows job position wise comparison of the NGOs employees. The results indicate that managers have higher mean scores on all subscale of OSI. As far as the turnover intentions are concerned trainers scored higher on this dimension. Manager experience higher stress due to the nature of their job, but they have lower turnover intentions as compared to the other staff members.

Discussion

A stress is dynamic condition in which one is confronted with an opportunity or demand related to what he one desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be uncertain and important. Although all type of stress is not bad it can have a positive , value when it offers potential gain, such as pressures of heavy workload and deadlines a positive challenge that enhance the quality of their work and the satisfaction they got from job. Stress is bad when it keep employees from reaching their goals. Most of the occupational stress is associated with demands and resources, demands are usually responsibilities, pressure, obligations and uncertainties that employees face in their work place whereas resources can use to resolve the demands (Robbins & Judge).

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The first objective of the study was to study the relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions of NGO employees. Second objective of the study was to find out level of occupational stress experienced by NGO employees. The third objective was to investigate the role of certain demographic variables including, gender, age, qualification, job experience, nature of job and job position in determining the level of stress and turnover

In this study various hypothesis were formulated to test the research objectives. The first hypothesis of the present study was that there is positive relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions. The result of present study shows that occupational stress and turnover intentions have a positive relationship. So, stressful situation can become of the cause of the turnover intentions. Both stress and turnover intention effects psychological adjust of the employees.

Gender wise comparison of occupational stress and turn intensions reveals that female NGOs employees have higher occupational stress and turnover intention as compared to male NGOs employee.

Age is an important variable which is directly related various behavioural outcomes. Age is inversely related with absenteeism and turnover. In this research the phenomena of age was also explored and it was found that aged employees have higher score on all sub scales of OSI-R than the younger employees as far as the turnover intentions are concerned in the NGOs sector aged employees possess a higher turnover intentions than the younger employees.

Qualification and Job experience are potent variables in explaining turnover intensions therefore fourth hypothesis of present study was related to this variable that highly educated and experienced NGO employees have higher occupational stress and low turnover intensions than the less educated and less experienced ones. Results shows that experience workers are less likely to quit their job as compared with the younger ones. Whereas qualification is concerned, more qualified employees have higher turnover intentions as compared with the less qualified one.

The employees, working on permanent basis, experience lower stress and lower turnover intensions than the employees working on contract basis. The result confirms that contract employees have higher mean scores on all subscales of occupational stress inventory than permanent ones. The result also indicates that turnover intentions are also higher in the contract employees as compared with permanent ones. This may be due to the factor that contract employees are committed for short time period.

The results indicate that manager have higher mean scores on all subscales of OSI-R. Managers experience higher stress due to the nature of their job, as far as the turnover intensions are concerned managers have lower mean score as compared to the other staff members.

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Results for the variable income show that stress level is higher among the employees with low-income level and least reported stress was found among the employees with higher income group. Higher income is negatively related with turnover intentions. Employees with low income have higher score on the turnover intentions.

Findings

1. Female NGOs employees have higher occupational stress and higher turnover intentions as compared to male employees.
2. Aged NGOs employees have higher occupational stress and turnover intentions as compared to younger one.
3. Employees having M. Phil degree have higher occupational stress and turnover intentions as compared to the employees having less qualification.
4. Employees with more work experience have higher stress as compared to employees with less work experience.
5. Employees working on contract basis have higher occupational stress and turnover intentions as compared to employees working on permanent basis.
6. Level of income affects the stress and turnover intentions of NGOs employees. Employees having low income have higher stress and lower turnover intentions as compared to employees having high income.
7. Managers have higher occupational stress and lower turnover intentions as compare to the other employees of NGOs sector.

Conclusion

On the basis of finding of study following conclusion were drawn.

1. There is positive relationship between occupational stress and turnover intentions.
2. The demographic variables such as gender age, marital status, and qualification, and job experience, type of job, job position and income affect the occupational stress and turnover intentions of NGOs employees.

Recommendations

The result of study portray that gender affects the stress and turnover intentions employees. Findings show that female employees experience high stress and turnover intentions as compared to male employees. It could be due to their multiple roles which they are playing especially compounded by the homework interface (Copper Bright, 2001, Siu, 2002). It is recommended that organization may carefully design the tasks related to female keeping in view the socio-cultural environment of the area. Moreover management may provide the stress management training to female employees in order to reduce the occupational stress and turnover intentions.

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Result showed that contract employees have higher stress and turnover intentions as compared to permanent employees. So it is recommended that organization may provide job security and moderate workload of contract employees in order to reduce the occupational stress and turnover intentions.

Level of income also affects the occupational stress and turnover intentions of NGOs employees. Employees having low income have higher stress and higher turnover intention as compared to employees having high income. So it is recommended that organization may start employee's assistance program to the needy employees.

It is recommended that management may provide a comfortable work environment to all employees and counseling and guidance service may be provided to all employees this would help to deal with stress related to work or family.

It is recommended that NGOs management may provide a supportive work environment which may help the employees to perform their job effectively moreover clarity about the role d responsibilities are required which can facilitate coping and reduce turnovers intentions of NGOs employees.

Results indicated that managers have high stress but low turnover intentions as compared to other employees of NGOs. So it is recommended that organization may provide stress management training so that they may able to handle stressful situation effectively.

Significance of the Study

Stress is detrimental for the affective psychological functioning and work performance of the employees. This research is exclusive that relationship between occupational stress and turnover intension was first time explored in the NGOs settings. Turnover is one of the negative consequences of occupational stress. In this study occupational stress was measured studying relation to turnover intentions of the employees. Results make it clear that most of the NGOs employees experiencing high or moderate level of stress, as stress can have very serious effects not only on the psychological and physical functioning on the employees, which can consequently leads to low productivity and conflict prone behavior. Therefore, the finding of this study may help NGOs management to develop a strategy for stress management which will eventually reduce the turnover in their organizations.

This study also provides knowledge of existing literature of stress and turnovers intentions in the context of NGOs sector of Pakistan the finding can use to enhance the organizational effectiveness and productivity.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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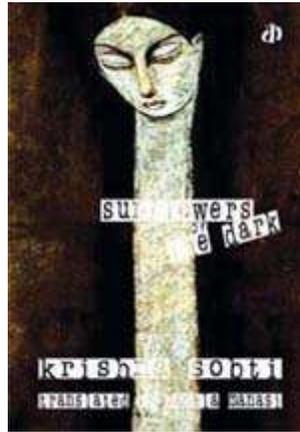
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Protest as a Replacement Model: A Study of Krishna Sobti's *Sunflowers of the Dark*

Ashok Verma

Anshul Arya



Sunflowers of the Dark

The aim of the present research paper is to approach Krishna Sobti's *Sunflowers of the Dark* – the English translation of her Hindi novel *Surajmukhi Andhere Ke* (1972) – from the perspective of the protagonist's protest against oppression. Ratti, the protagonist, asserts and thus poses a challenge to the oppressive forces by maintaining an eyeball-to-eyeball contact. The stance she takes assumes significance in the light of the position generally taken by the Indian women. Normally, Indian women put on all shame

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and blame allowing the oppressor a safe passage. Therefore, Ratti's spirited resistance against the multiple socio-cultural forces assumes becomes all the more significant as it throws open new avenues for the Indian woman. It offers a strong basis for the replacement model as suggested by Chaman Nahal, the famous Indian English novelist and critic. As such, her journey is the journey of Indian woman towards self-realization. However, before moving any further, it is necessary to locate Krishna Sobti, the veteran Hindi novelist, in the Indian literary tradition and see how she, through her works, perceives the feminist issues in the Indian context.

The Author Krishna Sobti and Her Works



Krishna Sobti 1925 -

Krishna Sobti (1925-) is known for her portrayal of strong women characters. Mitro of *Mitro Marjani* (1966) for instance, is a live manifestation of Sobti's uninhibited portrayal of female sexuality. Mitro is what can be called physicality incarnated. Mehak of *Dilo-Danish* (1993) strongly asserts herself on the father of her children once she grows into awareness that she has been exploited throughout her life by the conniving lawyer.

Similarly, the girl of the *Listen Girl!* (1991) rejects the conventional life after marriage and therefore decides against tying the nuptial knot. Such characters have remained etched on the psyche of the reader ever since the books were published. These characters are assertive, open about their needs and desires and strong willed. However, honesty towards themselves as well as the outer world remains the hallmark of their personalities. It is this characteristic which gives them courage and inner strength to call a spade a spade. They will simply be not cowed down by the outside pressures.

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Ratti, the Protagonist

In Ratti, Sobti has created a strong character, perhaps stronger than the girl of *Listen Girl!* It is because Ratti prefers to face the situation rather than shying away from it like the girl. While the girl of *Listen Girl!* chooses the escapist model of resistance and decides not to marry at all in order to escape the trials and tribulations of married life like her mother, Ratti boldly takes the challenge of asserting herself on those who have wronged her in any way. Even as a teenager, she could not be prevailed upon when she was not in the wrong. Whatever happened to her as a child was not her fault; so why should she bear the burden of shame all the time?

Thus, Ratti surpasses all women characters of Sobti in not only resisting oppression but also subverting the oppressive structures of power through resistance. Subhash Chandra also links Ratti's protest to Chaman Nahal's replacement model in which the Indian novelist maintains that protest could be "one of the bases on which the replacement model can be constructed" (Nahal 32).

The Replacement Model

Here it would not be out of context to refer to Nahal's replacement model. In his essay "Feminism in Indian English Fiction", Nahal elaborates upon his concept of a replacement model for Indian women. He avers that in the present scenario when the orthodox model has been brought down, there has to a replacement model for woman to fall back upon, the way man has the rhetoric of custom or tradition to fall back upon and enjoys the prerogative to continue to wield power. This is how he puts it:

I would like to examine whether we have a replacement model in feminine fiction. It is very difficult to construct a replacement model. One cannot escape the myths—the conditioning myths with which one has grown up. Unless we construct new myths, we cannot construct a replacement model.... the replacement models are to be constructed in the context of the myths we already have. (31)

Further, Nahal suggests that there could be various bases on which this replacement model could be constructed. These bases include protest, defiance as well as

conformity. The bases of protest and conformity may be contradictory, but they lead to a replacement model.

The Traumatic Experience

In the novel *Sunflowers of the Dark*, Ratti, the female protagonist has to bear the traumatic experience of a rape-bid while in her teens. This single incident leaves an indelible impression on her mind and heart and she is not able to overcome the perpetual anguish caused by the incident. The after-effects are none-too-cheering. In fact, they are equally obnoxious.

What further worsens the situation for Ratti is the mindset of the society that holds her responsible for the accident and constantly reminds her of the misfortune by incessant bantering. Ratti's schoolmates concoct vulgar stories about her sexuality and she becomes a butt of their comments. Even after years, this incident mars her relationships with men and thwarts her attempts to realize her womanhood.

There are many occasions where Ratti is unable to consummate her relationship with her male friends. There is something that sends her freezing at the last moment and she withdraws. Frustrated, her male friends allege her to be sexually perverted. She remains an enigma for them. However, Ratti is finally able to attain consummation and self-actualization through Diwakar, a friend who understands her well and helps her forget the ghosts of her past that continue to haunt her and mar her present.

Attack and Challenge from Two Fronts

Ratti's protest in the novel is witnessed at two fronts. First, she is faced with the challenge of defending herself against the searing comments passed by her adolescent classmates about the accident and her resultant status of an outcaste. Second, she has to wipe out the after effects of the cruel, violent transgression on her individuality. At any front, it is not a walk over for Ratti. Sobti here shows the multiplicitous and impervious nature of dominant power structures wherein Ratti's classmates club together against the victim—a situation that is, at least seemingly, insurmountable. Shyamali, Ajjju, Pikku, Dimpy, Pashi – all gang up against her. Even her parents in a way fail to provide

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emotional succour to Ratti: “They seemed to be looking at her with Aju and Dimpy’s eyes” (37). It seems as if she were all alone to fend for herself.

Determined Resistance

Ratti handles this multiplicity of the oppressive forces by reacting violently rather than accepting her marginalized status submissively. She thrashes the scandal-mongers handsomely and takes pride in the fact that “she had it in her to defend herself” (43). When her parents seek an explanation for her ‘unruly’ behaviour at school – not caring for her version – she starts throwing down the dishes from the dining table. Even after being slapped and thrashed, her resistance does not abate and she stands firm. Finally, the parents realize their mistake in not being able to understand their daughter’s perspective. It shows clearly that even as an adolescent, Ratti chooses the base of protest to assert herself rather than retreating in anonymity. She hits back vehemently and violently at all those who want to push her back to the corner. She takes up cudgels on her schoolmates, her parents and society at large and is ready to fight as she confides in Asad: “I will not weep. I’ll fight each one of them” (SD 43).

Solace and Comfort from a Source

Asad is the only person who shows maturity and provides support to the girl. Amidst all accusations, he consoles Ratti with his caring words – the words that have a balmy effect on her bruised soul and give her a new vigour to face the challenges. When she is accused of being a bad girl, Asad cheers her up with the following words: “Look here, Ratti, look at me. Now listen to me. Ratti will always remember that she is a good girl. Sweet and brave” (45). These soothing words have a magical effect on the girl’s drooping spirits and she feels happy and light as a flower. Sobti only hints at a budding love relationship between Ratti and Asad who dreams of getting the girl as his bride and it seems that she too has no objection to this relationship. However, the boy dies a sudden, premature death with the result that Ratti is left all alone to fight the cruel, intimidating world.

Sexual Protest

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The second form of Ratti's protest which she resorts to as an adult is more complex and subtle. It manifests not in an overtly violent manner but it no doubt proves to be more effective. This mode of protest is sexual. The power exerted by the unidentified rapist is something she cannot forget easily. Now that she is an adult, self confident woman, she is no more vulnerable. It is now her choice that matters. She can always say no if she does not want to give herself. She cannot submit herself meekly to a male who like the unidentified rapist wants to overpower her using brute force. Ironically, all her male friends fail the test of love. To her great dismay, she finds them interested either in her body or her womb. In either case, Ratti would be a plaything – a role she can never accept.

Forced Withdrawal and Sadistic Pleasure?

In fact, her male friends do not recognize her individuality, her otherness leaving Ratti with no other option except withdraw herself. Subhash Chandra appears to be right when he comments in this regard: “Almost all of them brazenly crave for her body which she tantalizingly denies them. At times she appears to willing, but an indefinable inability to give herself grips her and she snaps the connection” (Chandra 117). Hurt, as her male friends feel, they label her as a ‘cold’ woman. Their harsh words bother Ratti no more as she has had enough of such experiences. There is a long list of her male friends including Sripat, Jainath, Ranjan, Bali, Sumer, Jagatdhar, Rohit, Bhanurao, Subramaniam etc.

Here one might accuse the protagonist of deriving sadistic pleasure out of her outings with boyfriends. But the fact is that Ratti is in search of a partner who can treat her on a par and thus genuinely help her understand and realize her womanhood and overcome the sense of shock. Actually, she is suffering from a psychological ailment and is striving hard to find a remedy. She wants a partner who approaches her with selfless companionship and not with lustful motives.

Nobody, however, bothers to understand her problem. The easiest possible conclusion people can arrive at is that she derives sadistic pleasure in tantalizing her male friends and thus threatens the social structure with her unorthodox way of living.

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Ironically, they do not see anything wrong in entering into a physical relationship outside marriage because they are males and the entire blame is put on the girl only. To quote Chandra again:

There is, at the back of her mind, a lingering but potent desire to assert herself and not to give herself, if she does not want to. Nobody can reach her sexually, if she is reluctant. It is her body, therefore her desire is sacrosanct. Her desire has to be respected by the body seekers.... She seems to celebrate the quest for personal independence. (118)

Restoration

Ratti's protest at the sexual level against those seekers of her body thus becomes a means of realizing her self. In denying her body to those males, Ratti regains her self confidence which was shattered by the rapist years ago when she was just a teenager. Sobti does reasonably well to present the protagonist's social neglect and seclusion in a matter-of-fact manner because to sentimentalize the trauma would have robbed the novel of its main thrust – that of one individual's coming to terms with oneself and defeating the ghosts of the past.

After several bitter experiences, however, Ratti happens to find a true companion in Diwakar. Right from the beginning, Diwakar shows keen interest in Ratti when he first heard about her from a common friend. It's not that they plan to get married. The man is already married. Likewise, Ratti too harbours no such romantic ideas about getting married to him. All she wants is healthy companionship through which she can realize herself. Diwakar too seems to be mature enough to see and recognize Ratti as an individual. He emerges as a genuine interpreter of Ratti's malady; and he frees the girl of all her inhibitions, reservation, mental blockades. When Ratti goes numb at the idea of trespassing into another woman's field, this is how he convinces her: "Whatever is happening within this common threshold, let it happen. Don't hold back, Ratika. No truth is absolute. The room that you saw is real. But it is also true that your nearness fills me with a joy that I've never felt before" (94-95). Here Diwakar's reaction to Ratti's numbness is radically different from that of her other male friends who grow restless and resort to accusations in the same situation. What they cannot understand or rather do not

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want to understand at all, Diwakar does and thus finds the key to her heart. Ratti also acknowledges it: “Do you know Diwakar, you have hit upon Ratti’s secret telephone number” (89). With his selfless companionship, Diwakar successfully rinses out the scar engraved on her psyche. The painful memories are replaced by the poetic, musical, blissful union of the two divergent forces:

Moving astride, Diwakar cradled Ratti’s head with a hand, and she tore off the cover, pulling him down into her depths. As her body danced to his rhythm, a spiraling pleasure, sharp and new, coursed through her. And Ratti seemed to laugh from behind the veil of her mind and body. Diwakar paused for a second to look into her eyes, and then he lost himself. A fish writhing on the shore was swept in by a whirlpool, and hearing Ratti’s silent scream, Diwakar too found his release. When he parted, pearls cascaded down her legs, lighting up Ratti’s decades-old darkness. (97)

‘Cold’ Woman Blossoming Like a Flower

The author too succeeds in proving that woman’s body is a sacred, sanctified thing and it cannot be won over without her willingness. In Diwakar’s company, the same Ratti who was termed as a ‘cold’ woman, blossoms like a flower and is able to exorcise the ghosts of her past. Their union is in fact based on the principle of equality and mutual respect and therefore fruitful and fulfilling.

Through Ratti’s open contravention and the resultant subversion of the prevalent power structures related to sexuality, Sobti makes a bold statement. Ratti’s escapades with her male friends are not in good taste of the dominant social norms. A girl is not supposed to roam freely with her male friends in late evenings otherwise she is viewed as a loose woman. If the male friends happen to be married, she is considered responsible for creating tension between the husband and the wife. Sobti however renders Ratti, apart from dignity and strength of character, a defiant attitude towards the sham morality standards of the society. Ratti therefore need not justify her actions to anyone. Whenever someone tries to enter her personal space by suggesting something about her behaviour and so on, she curtly shows him the mirror.

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No Sense of Guilt

Ratti harbours no sense of guilt for whatever she does because she is honest to herself. She is clear in her perception and does not wear a mask. She openly accepts what she is or does. In this sense, she is more moral and ethical than her male friends who are basically hypocrites. They proclaim themselves to be the ‘custodians of morality’ but do not practice it themselves. To them, she appears to be a wench deriving sadistic pleasure out of her affairs with males, married and unmarried alike. That’s why they use for her judgmental phrases like “A heartless woman,” “A cold woman” etc. Ratti is amused at the hypocritical behaviour of people who otherwise would call themselves honest and respectable.

Against Conventional Social Fabric

Ratti, at the surface, seems to be threatening the close-knit structure of Indian society by her carefree roamings with her male friends; something which is objectionable from the traditional point-of-view. Here it must be kept in mind that both the protagonist and the novelist repose deep faith in the Indian values. As such, her version of individual space and freedom does not exclude the concept of family. Her concept of feminism is thus broad and in consonance with the Indian society. A critic on Sobti also supports this view when she comments: “Sobti surprises us, shocks us, even shakes us but does not rip everything in one go; rather she tries to join things together” (Aggrawal 28 English translation mine). This viewpoint is supported by the textual details as well. When Sripat brings her to his own bedroom, it becomes impossible for Ratti to go ahead as the room is the sanctum of another woman. She says: “How could you imagine that to love each other we have to live this lie of Una’s room?...The Sripat I wish to know should have been outside this room” (82-83). In her search for a companion, Ratti would never like to be blamed as a trespasser. Deeply rooted in the Indian culture and ethos as she is, she can never ruin a family. Being a woman, she cannot betray another woman. This becomes clear at many points in the novel when she pulls herself back due to such reasons.

A Milestone in the Journey of Self-actualization of Women

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In this sense, Ratti is an important milestone in the journey of Indian woman towards self-actualization. She can be called an emancipated woman with a modern concept of womanhood and her rights. She is economically independent, and open-minded. She is courageous and does not accept subservient status ever in her life. Having undergone a traumatic experience in her teens, she does not let the incident crush her personality and mind. In spite of the fact that the incident has left her aghast and few people can really provide the kind of emotional support she needs, Ratti successfully maintains her equilibrium. Through Ratti, Sobti shows how a woman can assert herself rather than lamenting her marginalized status and looking upwards for some divine help. In this sense, she rejects the idealistic, utopian solutions and adopts a practical, down-to-earth stance towards the real life problems.

Thus, Ratti emerges as a strong female individual who serves as a replacement model through her feisty protest. She successfully resists against the duplicity and multiplicity of the structures of power and is able to create her own individual space in a tradition-bound society. It is in protest that her potential for the de-hegemonization of the oppressive structures lies and she becomes one of the strongest voices of woman against oppression in the contemporary Indian fiction.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Effect of L2 Learning on Learners' Perception of Culture - A Case of Iranian Young Learners Compared with Their Parents

Gholam Reza Zarei

Abstract

The current paper is intended to investigate if learners of English who have been taught special books (Interchange Series) would come to perceive cultural issues differently compared with their parents as their regular cultural guides.

To conduct the study, a researcher constructed questionnaire of cultural components was administered to the two groups of participants. The first group involved English language learners about to complete the 3 volume Interchange Series program in a language institute. The second group consisted of the learners' parents who did not know English except for a few grammatical rules or some general greeting and basic interpersonal sentences.

The results indicated that learning English extensively transforms the language learners' perceptions of cultural issues as compared with their parents whose

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cultural perceptions were domestically inclined. It can be concluded that textbooks may make learners conceptualize the world as portrayed therein.

Key words: L2, Culture, English language, Iranian learners, Interchange series

Introduction

Culture is usually defined as an ingrained mode of behaviour and perception inextricably bonded with language. It can satisfy biological and psychological needs formulated as conceptual networks or mental constructs of realities (Brown 2007). As Halliday (1978) says, mental constructs or semantic networks are sociologically grounded and need to be realized externally through the medium of language. As such, language is social semiotic used to symbolically encode and carry over the underpinning socio-cultural values. It must be noted that Halliday (ibid) tends to transcend this limit by suggesting that 'language neither drives culture nor is driven by it' (p. 296). He believes that the relation is not one of cause and effect but rather one of realization, i.e., culture and language coevolve in the same way as do meaning and expression.

Of course, this conviction seems to hold valid in relation to the first language. Removed from its main original cultural bed where possibly no causality can be speculated, a foreign language seems to have some directional bearing on the new language learners' perception of the world.

Admittedly, the scene of learning a foreign language cannot be clearly set up when it comes to the question of culture and language interplay. Several scholars stress the inalienable and consolidated nature of the two on different grounds, i.e., lexical, discursal, ideational, textual, etc., indicating that a foreign language to be learned cannot be dissociated from cultural elements and that a language curriculum devoid of culture would fail in developing communicative competence in the language learners (e.g., Genc and Bada 2005).

In the same vein, some have even pushed the limits further and postulated that learners of another language can achieve linguistic goals provided they desire assimilation, or to a lesser degree, acculturation (Schumann 1976). This radical stance assumes that cognitive and affective gaps between the two languages need to be bridged by converting to the new language cultural norms. Also, Brown

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(1980) attributes the failure in mastering a second language to the learners' inability to bring the linguistic and cultural development into synchrony.

In contrast, some other scholars refuse to approve of the need for cultural conversion as a pre-requisite to learning another language. Stevick (1976) talks about the fragility of students in the face of learning a culture different from their own, which may arouse some feeling of alienation and estrangement. In the same line of thinking, Zarei and Khalessi (2010) caution that incorporation of foreign language culture into the instructional materials could account for some students' failure in learning a foreign language as they may desire to get rid of the unsolicited cultural impositions.

Also, Adasko, Britten, and Fahsi (1990) discovered nothing motivating in using Western culture, but rather breeding learners' dissatisfaction with their own culture. Sometimes this opposite force even grows more intense in regard to the English language, portraying a totally negative picture of the language with lots of unpredictable consequences (Chatterjee 1993).

A third trend which stands half way between the two above reviewed opposite camps does not accept either way absolutism in regard to culture and language. Rather, it emphasizes a culture fair curriculum where cultural awareness and intercultural competence find prominence (Alptekin 2002) and students are supplied with strategies to cope with the cultural differences. This position implies that foreign language pedagogy should help learners feel at home in both international and national cultures, avoiding those patterns which are alien, irrelevant, or sometimes adversarial. Likewise, Widdowson (1998) suggests that instructional materials should include native-nonnative and also nonnative-nonnative interactions as well and discourage the exclusive use of native norms as many language learners do not use them in authentic settings.

All in all, the issue, as it seems, cannot be driven home successfully, and there is always the danger of losing either sight of the trees for the forest or that of the forest for the trees. This is to indicate that the golden mean may call for the inseparability of the culture and language, though this combined entity can be manipulated in such a manner that more or less weight is given to one of the two components.

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As such, it can be claimed that textbooks are always carriers of values with different orientations. Therefore, textbooks are expected to impart both knowledge of language and the target culture simultaneously. In that direction, the present study intends to compare and contrast the effects L2 books can have on young learners learning English through Interchange Series.

Drawing on Vygotsky's (1962) sociocultural constructivist theory, we may argue that young learners of L2 are more likely to undergo a process of constructing realities through a new channel of communication. In order to illuminate the issue further, this study also compares young learners with their parents to see if they go different ways when exposed to new cultural issues.

Research Purpose

As language symbolically represents a microcosm of culture and social values, language learning textbooks necessarily embody cultural values and thus learning the language via such books is believed to leave its culturally inclined mark on the learners. To cast light over the issue further, this study aimed at discovering if English language learners who were taught a special series of books (Interchange) come to prioritize the cultural issues differently from their parents who have not studied the books and are thus expected to be culturally most influential in the family.

Participants

The participants of the study comprised two groups. The first group involved 16 male students from the 2nd year of junior high school to the 2nd year of senior high school and ranged in their age from 11 to 15. This group had started learning English in an Isfahan based institute, Iran, through Interchange Series about two years before and were about to finish the 3rd volume. The second group consisted of the same number of parents as the learners in the first group, ranging in their age from 42 to 55. They were different in their education from high school diplomas (6 people) to the majority of bachelors (8 of them) and two masters. As revealed in their questionnaires, the parents knew little English, few grammar rules, greetings, and general English conversational statements. It must be noted that the learners were asked to require their mothers and fathers to jointly complete the

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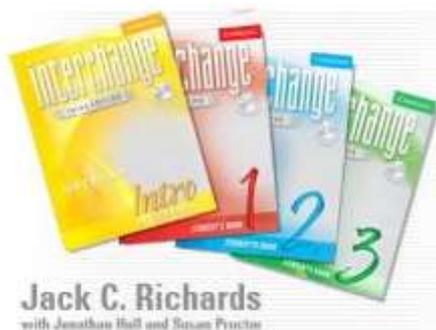
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questionnaire so that the result would represent the family's perception more coherently.

Materials



To collect the data, a researcher-constructed questionnaire was used. The questionnaire consisted of 20 questions, in each of which a general topic (e.g., entertainment) was introduced, followed by 4 relevant choices (e.g., A. Dance (Western) B. Harakate Mozun (for dance in Iran) C. Violin (Western) D. Santour (an Iranian musical instrument), for the same general topic 'entertainment').

The topics and two of choices were supposed to represent 'Western cultural issues' already used in and thus extracted from Interchange Series by Zarei and Khalessi (2010). The other two choices were Iranian counterparts for the Western choices.

The participants were required to rank the four choices (from 1 to 4) in the order they found them most preferred to the least one. The questionnaire was supposed to unfold the participants' cultural priorities. Upon the construction of questionnaire, the researcher asked two colleagues to read and improve the quality, and also piloted it with 7 sample students to get rid of ambiguities. The order of choices, appropriateness of choices especially the Iranian ones, and transparency of instructions were all considered and improved.

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Then the following rating scale (Table 1) was designed for the evaluation of results. Based on the four choices used for each general topic, it was realized that the learners would rank each item in one of the six possible orders of preference, indicating different degrees of cultural effect.

The first three orders started with a ‘Western’ choice and received the scales of 'very strong', 'strong', 'moderate', collectively representing the so-called ‘Western Inclination’ and the second three orders initiated with an ‘Iranian’ choice’, which were thus assigned 'weak', 'very weak', and 'no effect', collectively representing the so-called ‘Iranian Inclination’.

The last 'no effect' scale indicates that no Western choice was given the first or the second place in the order; in other words, the priority was given to the two Iranian counterparts (e.g. for 'entertainment', the choices Harakate Mozun (for dance) and Santour (an Iranian musical instrument) both of which considered Iranian may be used first, thus showing 'no effect'). The opposite extreme rate is 'very strong' where the first two places are given to the Western choices, indicating the strongest case of ‘Western Inclination’.

Table1. Questionnaire rating scale

Inclination	Possible Orders of Preference			Rating Scale
1. Western	1. a. Western	b. Western	c. Iranian	1. Very Strong
	d. Iranian			
	2. a. Western	b. Iranian	c. Western	2. Strong
	d. Iranian			
	3. a. Western	b. Iranian	c. Iranian	3. Moderate
	d. Western			
2. Iranian	1. a. Iranian	b. Western	c. Western	1. Weak
	d. Iranian			2. Very Weak
	2. a. Iranian	b. Western	c. Iranian	Weak
	d. Western			3. No Effect
	3. a. Iranian	b. Iranian	c. Western	
	d. Western			

Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered first to the 1st group in their institute class and then taken home by the same learners to be filled by the 2nd group, i.e., their parents. The parents (mothers and fathers) were asked to do the task jointly so that we would get a better representative family perspective.

Before starting the job, learners were briefed on how to do the task and were also trained to guide their parents through. Parents were additionally asked for their knowledge of the English language. All the participants were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of information received in order to help with the responsibility to be fully discharged, thus increasing the response validity of the inquiry. They were asked to rank the four choices of each item in actual order of preference (1 for the most preferred and 4 for the least preferred) depending on their own priority for the words. The first group finished the task in almost 15 minutes and the second group's questionnaires were returned a week later.

Results

This study sought to throw light over the culture and language relationship as it unfolds within foreign language learning milieu. The focus was on the effects that particular books can produce on the learners. To that end, two groups of participants, namely, English language learners and their parents participated in the research. Both groups were asked to prioritize their perceptions of some cultural issues, which have been extracted from Interchange Series.

The results, as shown in the following table (Table 2), clearly confirm that these language learners display a skewed cultural orientation as regards both groups.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage of the two groups' performance on questionnaire

Cultural Topics	Frequency				Percentage			
	Group 1 (N=16)		Group 2		Group 1 (N=16)		Group 2	
	W	Ir.	W	Ir.	W	Ir.	W	Ir.
1. Entertainment 1	14	2	6	10	87.5	12.5	37.5	62.5

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2. Social relations	14	2	5	11	87.5	12.5	31.25	68.75
3. Clothes	11	5	8	8	68.8	31.3	50	50
4. Place 1	11	5	7	9	68.8	31.3	43.75	56.25
5. Music	15	1	10**	6*	93.8	6.3	62.6	37.5
6. Market/Exchange	11	5	5	11	68.8	31.3	31.25	68.75
7. Food	16**	0*	4	12	100	0.0	25	75
8. Holidays	15	1	5	11	93.8	6.3	31.25	68.75
9. Names	9*	7**	2*	14**	56.3	43.8	12.5	87.5
10. Celebrities	12	4	4	12	75	25	25	75
11. Sport	15	1	7	9	93.8	6.3	43.75	56.25
12. Films	13	3	8	8	81.3	18.8	50	50
13. Animals	11	5	5	11	68.8	31.3	31.25	68.75
14. TV/Radio	15	1	3	13	93.8	6.3	18.75	81.25
15. Entertainment 2	15	1	4	12	93.8	6.3	25	75
16. Education	12	4	6	10	75	25	37.5	62.5
17. Place 2	14	2	4	12	87.5	12.5	25	75
18. Cinema	14	2	6	10	87.5	12.5	37.5	62.5
19. Miscellaneous 1	15	1	7	9	93.8	6.3	43.75	56.25
20. Miscellaneous 2	16**	0*	4	12	100	0.0	25	75
Total	266	54	110	210	83.1	16.9	34.37	65.62

W= Western; Ir.= Iranian Inclinations

**=Max; *=Min

However, the difference is that one group (young learners of English in Group 1) is sharply oriented towards Western side while their parents are domestically inclined. As can be seen, Group 1 goes for the western choices of cultural issues (with 83.1 percent) all derived from the books they have been taught, versus 16.9 percent of preferences given to the Iranian cultural equivalents. In contrast, their parents show a maximum percentage of 34.37 for such Western choices and 65.62 for domestic ones.

Further details also reveal that while young learners give maximum preference to 'Food' and minimum to 'Names' of Western inclination their parents prefer 'Music' most and 'Names' least on the Western list.

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The findings of the present study may indicate that the language textbooks used exert a strong force in shaping the learners' cultural perception of the world. Of course, one needs to exercise caution in interpreting the results as there are many other intervening factors at work within a two year long program of learning English. Regardless of extraneous variables playing a part in the results, we observe that the two groups stand in stark contrast with each other.

As can be seen, the frequencies and the ensuing percentages reveal that figures are almost inversely proportional to each other (in the two general categories of 'Western Inclination' vs. Iranian Inclination').

Discussions and Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that young learners of language tend to diverge from the way their parents come to perceive the world around them and that learning a foreign language is to a large extent a way of socially constructing certain identities. Though it is not 'a magic carpet ride to another culture' (Robinson-Stuart and Nocon 1996), culture learning is a process through which language learners come to experience, perceive, interpret and feel the world around (Brown 2007).

As shown in this study, it may be claimed that culture as inseparable part of language can penetrate into the language learner's modes of thinking and feeling, and consequently release as behavioural outputs. Of course, it must be noted that these remarks are not supposed to verify the strong version of language and culture interface which stresses the interdependence of the two for learning the language (acculturation). This point seems to require a different research design to come up with reliable results.

Another important point to remember in regard to the results is that this study focused on language learners within age range of 11-15, the period best viewed as formative. The formative years constitute the learners' cognitive, affective, and cultural filters and thus arm them with these mechanisms to perceive and interpret the world accordingly. This is to say that young learners are more prone to the cultural effects of the instructional materials. This finding is in line with Vygotsky's (1962) claim that thought reflects conceptualized actuality and in this case the learners have conceptualized the realities through the lens of a foreign language.

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Compared with their parents, these young children build up their world within what is presented to them through the extracurricular activities of learning a foreign language, thus moving beyond the predetermined limits of their family.

Also, the special cultural context, Iran, where our participants have been placed triggers us not to read too much into the results. Though not approved by every scholar, the idea of oriental culture considered as collectivist, uncritical, obedient, etc. (Kumaravadivelu 2003) may also account for our subjects' rather convergent behaviours.

This helps us remember that the oriental culture holds written materials in high regards with some sort of sanctity associated. The idea can be evidenced further by referring to a Persian proverb, which roughly reads, 'speech is air and wind', implying that say what you wish to but avoid leaving a record, say, written record. So, books are highly valued for the messages they deliver to the learners.

On the whole, the results reached in this study are to be taken as suggestive rather than definitive as a multitude of issues might work for or against any attempts made for illumination of the culture-language relationship. Also, though young learners of English are brought up by their parents and the parental care provided is believed to be sometimes stringent and meticulous, we need to remember that the mass media, society in general, school as an important nurturing milieu, and the overall structure of the new generation life style fostered by the peer pressure may all variably account for the cultural changes the youth experience.

The English language books may be considered one crucial factor among many others. Also, the reader needs to remember that there are lots of other factors which may have affected the results in this study, ranging from specificity of instrument, subjects, cultural contexts, to subjects' age, gender, number, sociocultural and family backgrounds. Therefore, the results of the study have to be cautiously interpreted or generalized.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Engaging History through Postmodern Strategies - Coetzee's Fiction in Context

Imran Ahmad, M. A., B.Ed., M.Phil. (English)



John Maxwell Coetzee

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Engaging History through Postmodern Strategies - Coetzee's Fiction in Context

Castigating Instance of Postcolonial Literature

Postcolonial literature assumes not only an interrogative and castigating stance to the colonial practices of domination and exploitation but also explodes and explicates the means through which such enterprises are set in motion. In its attempt to provide a scathing attack of the exploitative strategies of the imperialistic Empire, postcolonial literature not only exposes the hidden agenda of colonialism but also generates many forms of narrative/linguistic strategies through the process of abrogation, appropriation and modification.

Re-writing Hegemonic Discourses

Taking recourse to a number of such indigenous narrative strategies, postcolonial literature attempts to counter, deconstruct and re-write the dominant hegemonic discourses. Writing from the postcolonial perspective, writers take recourse to a number of strategies like folklore, myths, orature, proverbs, local legends, etc., in their counter-narratives. The attempt to incorporate these indigenous or native structural patterns/features in their narratives is “a conscious attempt to move away from European styles and influences” (Pramod K Nayar, 2008: 222) and thus to develop an indigenous political position.

Writers from different erstwhile colonies of Asia and Africa, as a result, make an extensive use of such strategies in their writings to provide an alternative version of the European discourses of denigration and exploitation.

Africa’s Postcolonial Literature

In the African context all this becomes evident from the very first generation of postcolonial writers in English. Beginning with Amos Tutuola the list would go on to

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include novelists like Chinua Achebe, Gabriel Okara, Wole Soyinka, Ngugi wa Thiong’O and Ben Okri.

All these writers have in one way or the other experimented with their indigenous narrative and stylistic tools and succeeded in grafting them onto the western novel. The experimentation which among other things included the appropriation and modification of the western form through a process of indigenization was not simply to adapt the form to carry the peculiar African socio-cultural experiences, but a means of “interrogating and undermining the monologic control of the Western forms”(Pramod K Nayar, 2008: 229).

Thus, the experimentation was not only technical but also a political move. By taking recourse to the indigenous content and form, the African novelists not only revived their rich cultural heritage but also began to counter the European discourses about Africa. The attempt at experimentation was, in a way, a step towards “decolonizing the mind” from the complexes of denigration and vilification.

The experiment with linguistic devices and other narrative strategies did not, however, confine itself only to the application of such literary devices as folklore, myths and proverbs but became even more complex, radical and experimental with those writers who come under the sway of postmodernist theories. For example, Buchi Emecheta, Ben Okri, Bessie Head, J M Coetzee, and others who play with the form of the novel.

The experimental fervour remains confined not only to writers from such postcolonial societies as East Africa and West Africa but made itself evident in “South African English Literature” as well. (By “South African English Literature” is meant the literature originally produced in English by both black and white South African writers. Oral literature and translations from the indigenous languages into English are excluded). There are, however, degrees of variation in their experimental approach towards English language.

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Approaches Toward English Language

In the post-colonial societies where English language has been looked upon as an intruder and a colonizing language, its “abrogation” and “appropriation” at the hands of the postcolonial writers became necessary to manifest a political move.

Situation in South Africa

In the context of South Africa, however, the case is different owing to the position and history of English language. It is seen less as a colonizers’ language than Afrikaans. During the period of apartheid (1948-1994) Afrikaans shielded English language from the stigma of being a colonizer’s language since apartheid was enforced in Afrikaans.

In contrast to Afrikaans which was the language of the authoritarian regime, English was “seen as a neutral language of liberation and black unity” and was “chosen as language of communication by the ANC and other black liberation organizations during the struggle” (Phil Van Schalkwyk, 2006:10).

The socio-political and historical reality of South Africa, especially during the apartheid era, was instrumental in shaping every aspect of the life of South Africans including their literature. The historical reality led to the creation and maintenance of fragmented life-structures which in turn created different worldviews and sensibilities. As a result, comprehensible and inevitable differences between the two strands – “black writing” and “white writing” – of South African English Literature are quite discernible. Nevertheless, the concerns of South African writers with the monolithic issue (apartheid) of their history remained a consistent and constant concern.

All South African writers, black and white, condemn the absurd and virulent policies they were forced to live in. In fact, it was expected from them “to write about the one

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monolithic issue..., namely racial injustice” (Phil Van Schalkwyk, 2006: 11) and as a result we come across explicit variations in their approach to this issue. As opposed to the vibrant, defiant and celebratory tone of the black writers, the white writers focus on individual dignity and liberty. The difference in approach is also manifested in the contrasting tones and styles of writers of the two races. Whereas the black writers prefer a pungent and realistic description of the oppression inflicted upon them, the white writers take recourse to an oblique and a variety of subtle devices to explore and analyse the absurdity of the system (John F Povey, www.questia.com).

Coetzee on Socio-political Dilemmas

J M Coetzee, one of the seminal exponents of white English writing in South Africa, also engages in highlighting the socio-political dilemmas of his country. His desire for racial harmony in order to achieve a racially harmonious society places him within the circle of other white South African writers like André Brink, Breyten Breytenbach, Nadine Gordimer, and others. However, Coetzee’s approach to the subject and the techniques through which he renders his themes mark him different from the rest. His “fiction remains unmatched in South Africa for its multivalence, formal inventiveness, and virtuoso self-interrogation of narrative production and authority” (David Attwell, 1998: 166).

Distinct Approach of Coetzee to Dilemmas of South African Society

Coetzee’s approach to the dilemmas of South African society, fractured and dislocated by the malevolent policy of apartheid as if moving towards a general holocaust, is different from both his black and white fellow South African writers. And, no doubt, his approach to interrogate and highlight the crucial issues of his society has won him more detractors than defenders; it has its own vivacity and stands quite idiosyncratic. His engagement

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with the problematic issues besetting South African society is a committed one although different from writers like Nadine Gordimer, André Brink, Alan Paton and Athol Fugard.

Coetzee's method seems "to be less straightforward, more ambiguous" (Robert M Post, www.questia.com) in comparison to these writers who portray the South African socio-political vicissitudes realistically. "[I]n South Africa, life under apartheid seems to demand a realistic documentation of oppression" (David Attwell, 1993: 11) and white South African writers have taken recourse to various modes of realism to present a realistic picture of socio-political oppression.

Coetzee, however, could hardly be identified with such a group of writers. Nor could he squarely fit into the Movement (Black Consciousness) represented by writers whose "position was one of self-recovery and self-affirmation in response to the negations of racism" (David Attwell, 1993: 28).

This does not, however, mean that Coetzee avoids engagement with the socio-political scenario of apartheid South Africa. To "a number of South African critics, particularly belonging" to the Left wing politics, Coetzee's "aestheticism" might seem "politically irresponsible, or simply irrelevant," (Graham Huggan, 1996: 3) or he might not "strike one primarily as an 'anti-apartheid' writer" (Graham Huggan, 1996: 4) for not portraying a pure and violent confrontation between colonizer and the colonized, but this does not amount to his being irresponsible and blind to the oppressive colonial issues for which apartheid has been responsible.

Coetzee's Experimentation with Language and Linguistic Theory

It was largely due to Coetzee's experimentation with language and linguistic theory that Marxist critics were confounded by Coetzee's work and considered it insufficiently engaged and therefore not useful to the people of South Africa. Although Coetzee's work

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might not seem to qualify as a “literature of protest,” it is very much grounded in protest – a protest that has to do with colonialism in its myriad manifestations, in its interrogation, castigation and deconstruction.

Not Interested in Conventional Realism

Those critical opinions that raise doubts/questions regarding Coetzee’s engagement and commitment to socio-political reality of South Africa are rooted in the conventional technique of the realistic portrayal of South Africa. The expectations of those readers who believe Coetzee’s works to be photographic representations of South African socio-political reality are shattered as Coetzee betrays his lack of interest in a mode of realism that one expects from a historian’s pen.

Coetzee confesses, in an interview with Tony Morphet, “I don’t have much interest in, or can’t seriously engage myself with, the kind of realism that takes pride in copying the ‘real’ world” (Michela Canepari – Labib, 2005: 25). Coetzee’s non-realistic orientation is not a means of political and ethical escape or, turning away from history which is simply impossible. He betrays his lack of interest in a mode of realism that endeavours to establish itself as a historical discourse/representation simply because he holds a different view of history that is deeply influenced and shaped by deconstruction.

Varying Focus of Approaches to Realism

Viewing the difference between the nature of two discourses: the discourse of history and the discourse of fiction, Coetzee in “The Fiction Today” contends:

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[H]istory is not reality; that history is a kind of discourse; that a novel is a kind of discourse, too, but a different kind of discourse; that, inevitably, in our culture, history will, with varying degrees of forcefulness, *try to claim primacy, claim to be a master-form of discourse* (emphasis added), just as, inevitably, people like myself will defend themselves by saying that history is nothing but a certain kind of story that people agree to tell each other (David Attwell, 1993: 16).

History is not an *a priori* Truth

It is obvious that Coetzee rejects to take history as a priori truth. His narrative discourse, however, is not intended to eschew history as a whole, but to evade a history that will, “with varying degrees of forcefulness, try to claim primacy, claim to be a master-form of discourse” (David Attwell, 1993: 16).

Coetzee’s fiction deconstructs and unmask the power structures on which the knowledge and representation of the other relies. Realism, as a mode of representation or intervention, to some extent, replicates such power structures. Coetzee’s non-realistic orientation, therefore, does not aim at escaping reality but instead endeavours to challenge the premises about the realistic representation.

Non-real Feature of Realism

According to Stephen Watson, Coetzee seems to suggest that “realism is not real at all, but simply a production of language, a *code* (emphasis added) that people have come to accept as ‘natural’” and “it is through language itself, through those conventional representations which come to be accepted as either ‘natural’ or ‘universal,’ that we are

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colonised as much as by any overt act of physical conquest” (Stephen Watson, 1996: 17-18).

Manipulation of Ideology

The linguistic construction of a “code” that manipulates people’s ideology parallels the physical domination of a group of people since both are manipulated by the pre-dominant “code” that makes the mental and physical colonisation inevitable. Coetzee cannot be labelled as a realistic writer since he casts doubt on realism as a mode of intervention in South Africa for its (realism’s) obedience to codes of a given system. On the contrary, Coetzee casts his narratives in an allegorical fashion to interrogate or, at least to disengage from, the governing code or ideology that is usually unacknowledged.

Thus, Coetzee’s rejection of realism and the claim that “South African situation” is “only one manifestation of a wider historical situation” (Stephen Watson, 1996: 13) does not mean that he avoids any engagement with history and the specificity of South African socio-political reality. It reveals not only his affirmation of Saidian view that colonialism is a worldwide and ongoing phenomenon but also a political gesture in the context of colonialism, as Stephen Watson views it: “The deconstruction of realism, then, is evidently intended, at the most basic level of language itself, as an act of decolonization and, as such, is very much part of its political meaning” (Stephen Watson, 1996: 18). His novels are always grounded in a reality. They “not only allude to an actual historical reality, but they also give us, in fictional form, the type of psyche and psychology that this reality dictates” (Stephen Watson, 1996: 14).

Choice of Allegory

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Coetzee chooses allegory as a mode of portraying the realities of South African society. This mode has its political as well as artistic underpinnings in Coetzee's context. It not only serves as a means to elude the wrath of censorship but also to lend a powerful and universal appeal to his work. Although his narratives are not explicitly confrontational, yet they give no comfort to the apartheid government as well.

The use of allegorical method is also used as a critical weapon to deconstruct the realistic modes of fictional discourse in South Africa. Quoting Stephen Slemon, Ayobami Kehinde comments on Coetzee's recourse to postmodern allegory as: "[T]he approach is efficient in destabilizing the discursively fixed monuments of colonial history and opens up the past for imaginative revision. Therefore, Coetzee's allegorical fiction seeks to demystify the precursor texts about South African historical realities, that is, the canonized truths of imperialist and colonialist discourses of history" (Ayobami Kehinde, 2006: 73).

Allegories of Oppression, Torture and Exploitation

Keeping in view the allegorical dimension, Coetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians* (henceforth referred to as WFB) and *Life and Times of Michael K* (henceforth referred to as LTMK) can be seen as allegories of oppression, torture and exploitation.

In contrast to "mere copying of the 'real' world" Coetzee approaches his subject through a series of indeterminate and ambiguous signs that implicitly indicate it since "Coetzee is reluctant to impose a "master narrative" of his own on his texts" (Sue Kossew, 1996: 24) to guide interpretation.

Choosing an indeterminate language that resists any authoritative definition and holds no inherent signification independent of an interpretative agent, Coetzee's WFB like any Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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postmodern fiction leaves the reader with a sense of “despair before the arbitrariness of language and its essential defectiveness for depicting the world” (Joel Herring, 2007: 3). The unnamed and unspecified setting of WFB is part of the allegorical scheme. Containing no specific reference to South Africa as such, Levin views the narrative as “timeless, spaceless and universal” (J. M. Coetzee and Clive Barnett, www.jstor.org). The mode not only helps Coetzee to elude the “trap imposed upon South African literary writing” (J. M. Coetzee and Clive Barnett, www.jstor.org) as sheer documentary reporting but also to take his themes to a universal plane.

The Strategy of Dislocating the Novel

By “literally ‘dis-locating’ his narrative” (J. M. Coetzee and Clive Barnett, www.jstor.org) and incorporating narrative gaps, e.g., in the form of inexplicable cryptic dream sequence into the fabric of his novel, Coetzee’s novel entices the readers to render the text whole by offering their own interpretations. The text, however, resists any attempt at definitive meaning as the Magistrate himself acknowledges when called upon to translate the wooden slips for Joll:

They form an allegory. They can be read in many orders. Further each single slip can be read in many ways. Together they can be read as a domestic journal, or they can be read as a plan of war... There is no agreement among scholars about how to interpret these relics of the ancient barbarians (WFB, p. 122).

By highlighting the gaps encountered by the Magistrate while attempting to decipher the wooden slips and the barbarian girl, “Coetzee wants to create what Barthes would have called a ‘writable’ text, one which makes ‘the reader no longer a consumer, but a producer of the text,’ one which does not attempt to reduce the potentially multiple meanings, the ‘plurality’ of the text, by fixing one single meaning for it” (Stephen

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Watson, 1996: 17-18). Although the elusiveness of the text, “barbarian girl” and “wooden slips,” can be made to accommodate a variety of readings yet it simultaneously problematizes the authority of such interpretations.

Ambiguity and Indeterminacy

Similarly in LTMK, the setting of which is inferred to be the war-torn South Africa in near future, the ambiguity and indeterminacy permeate the novel. “Except for the reference to Cape Town and to the place-names that are recognizably Afrikaans,” views Cynthia Ozick, “we are not told that this is the physical and moral landscape of South Africa” (J M Coetzee and T Kai Norris Easton, www.jstor.org). The elusiveness, indeterminacy and misplacing of geographical references opens the text to an allegorical dimension that is central to Coetzee’s fictional oeuvre. Commenting on the allegorical dimension of the novel in her review, Nadine Gordimer views “the harried homelessness of Michael K and his mother” (Nadine Gordimer, 1984) as metaphoric of the suffering of the collective under apartheid.

The indeterminacy regarding Michael K’s race as he is simply listed as “Michael Visagie – CM – 40 – NFA unemployed” (LTMK, p. 70) and his inability to express himself create a sort of void in the narrative. Although Michael K is the centre of the novel, there is a hole in the centre that creates a gap between him and the world as becomes evident:

Between this reason and the truth that he would never announce himself, however, lay a gap wider than the distance separating him from the firelight. Always, when he tried to explain himself to himself, there remained a gap, a hole, a darkness before which his understanding balked, into which it was useless to pour words. The words were eaten up, the gap remained. His was always a story with a hole in it: a wrong story, always wrong (LTMK, p. 109-110).

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In other words, Michael K is the embodiment of the gap which the Medical Officer and for that matter the reader has to fill with words and meanings. Throughout the text Michael K remains a mystery unresolved, a centre with a hole in it that resists any authoritative definition. The Medical Officer's attempt to break Michael K's silence parallels the Magistrate's attempt to decipher the barbarian girl and wooden slippers in WFB. And both projects by extension could be read as the reader's attempt to decode the mystery enveloping the text.

The Elusive Setting

The elusiveness of setting, indeterminacy of geographical and historical referents, and above all, the interpretative uncertainty although "effect a slight spatial and temporal dislocation," (Ayobami Kehinde, 74) the fictional world of the narratives under discussion is not rendered as "entirely fantastic world" (Ayobami Kehinde, 74). The fictional worlds they "float literally free of time and place..., allude to a time and place which is specifically South African" (Stephen Watson, 1996: 18). This is very much evident, among other things, from the language that is drawn from the register of apartheid South Africa. Both narratives, WFB and LTMK are replete with what might loosely be called as the "language of apartheid". (Although there is hardly any prescribed rule to label certain words as "language of apartheid" but since apartheid brings to one's mind torture, dispossession, exile, detention, censorship, police brutality and the words with such associative and connotative meanings, an attempt has been made to group such words under the canopy of "apartheid language").

Some of the words from the two novels are: Empire, Magistrate, Colonel, prisons, torture, offensive, raids, interrogation, permits, sirens, curfew, guards, police, civil war, camps, armed patrols, military jeeps, barbed wires, check points, guerrillas, blasts, etc. All these

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words can easily be identified with the apartheid regime and the specific politico-historical issues engulfing South African life during the 1970s and 80s.

Coetzee is Fully Engaged in South African Context – Exploitation of Postmodernist Devices

From this it can be inferred that Coetzee's WFB and LTMK and for that matter his entire fictional output is conditioned and determined by the South African context it stems from. Although his novels are highly subversive of realism as a mode of writing as is evident from his rejection of realist devices like clear settings, linear plot and close endings, they seem closely engaged with the South African socio-political history. Coetzee's postmodern narrative strategies cannot be seen as an inclination towards a refusal to engage with the history and politics of South Africa for it can be an act of resistance and decolonization as his "linguistic and narrative fragmentation can be read as suggesting the fragmentation of all authoritative systems" (Michela Canepari-Labib, 2005: 16). That is what marks Coetzee's narratives and makes them different from other South African novels is his adoption of various postmodernist devices and strategies. It is, however, not only in the allegorical mode or in his desire to create a 'writerly' text, as Stephen Watson believes, that Coetzee exhibits his postmodernist leanings but also in his recourse to a number of other postmodernist techniques like silence.

The use of postmodernist strategies adds to the density and complexity of Coetzee's narratives and enables him to reflect better the complex socio-political dilemmas of South Africa. The critics, especially belonging to the Left-wing politics, who charge Coetzee of a "rarified aestheticism" and his narratives as lacking politico-historical engagement and a clear-cut strategy, turn a blind eye to the strategies employed in the novels. They fail to take into consideration Coetzee's profound familiarity with intellectual and artistic

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movements like literary modernism, modern linguistics, postmodernism, poststructuralism and postcolonial theory that has inspired his erudite and intellectually demanding narratives (Brian W Shaffer , 2006: 123). Despite the complexity of style and technique, Coetzee succeeds in highlighting and interrogating the complex dilemmas of South African socio-political reality as David Attwell contends: “Coetzee has absorbed the lessons of modern linguistics – the textual turn in structuralism and poststructuralism – yet seriously addresses the ethical and political stresses of living in, and with, a particular historical locale, that of contemporary South Africa” (David Attwell, 1993: 1).

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Uses of Educational Technology in “Pakistan Studies” Subject at the Secondary Level

Muhammad Ramzan Ph.D., Farhat Bibi, M.A., Shahena Kousar, M.A., and
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Abstract

This study deals with use of educational technologies in Pakistan studies, use of educational technology in teaching and learning, which gaining popularity rapidly among educators, teachers and students. Educational technology is not a new concept. It is well established teaching strategy in certain parts of the world, but in some it is newly introduced.

This study is conducted by using qualitative research method and case study approach is used for in-depth study. The focus of the study is teaching techniques adopted in Pakistan Studies teaching in a private English medium school in Gilgit Baltistan. The sample of the study is two. Pakistan study teaches teaching in above social context.

In this study in-depth interview and observations were used as key data collection tools. The study was conducted from 1st January to 1st May. The finding of the study reveals that some common educational technologies were available in their school but they are not using these frequently because they have to cover a large syllabus before final examination.

The study has wider implication for Pakistan Studies teachers. It will help them to improve their teaching skills. It will provide basic live information for further research. The study recommends Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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that educational technology should be integrated in Pakistan Studies. It is also important that the teachers should have a sound understanding of the concept of educational technology.

Introduction

In general, the subject of Social Studies which is named Pakistan Studies in grades 9 and 10 in Pakistan are considered a dry subject. For decades, Social Study has been rated as one of the least liked subjects in the curriculum. Shaughyshy and Halydayana (1985) state that it is the subject students love to hate because it is often taught only through textbook that do not invite feedback, participation and students reaction. Teachers stress drill and memorization. According to Tomi (2003), in Pakistan, Social Studies (Pakistan Studies) teaching has been focused on memorizing, repeating and reproducing the same in the exams. Teaching is done in the traditional way, overall less time is devoted for developing skills and attitudes and more time is on rote memorization of factual knowledge. Therefore, students consider it as a boring subject and they do not take interest in its learning. It has been observed that teachers do not engage students in meaningful activities. Students are not provided with the opportunities to use their real life experience, to develop an interest and understanding about Pakistan Studies. These situations create gaps in students' learning, and concepts remain unclear.

Pakistan Study is not abstract in nature, however; in general, it is considered as a dry subject in teaching and learning. Teachers stress on drill and memorization. Hence, for students, it becomes very difficult to understand concepts and events. When students memorize things they forget in a few days, but according to our perception educational technology makes things very lucid to understand and unforgettable. According to our own experience as students and observers, we have noticed that in the class of Pakistan Studies, teacher just reads the content and shows the answers for the questions. In most subjects teachers use educational technology, but when we compare a traditional class room of Pakistan Studies with science class, we derive conclusions in science class which is helped by the use of educational technology while in Pakistan Studies class there is no usage of such tools of technology. When educational technology is used in Pakistan Studies students will easily understand the concepts.

Review of Related Literature

Shakher (2004) presents a brief history of educational technology. The use of educational technology dates back to as early as 150 BC with the Greeks. Globes were among the first educational technology among Ancient Greeks. Greeks realized that the earth was spherical and is known to have used globes early as 150 BC. Another educational technology was book which was used in English schools from the mid 1400s. In 15th Century the art of printing was developed. In 16th century Peter Ramous introduced textbooks in higher education. In 17th

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century John Comines introduced text books for children. Then John Adam introduced the concept of concrete-abstract continuum, for example, define an object, show a model, diagram, etc., and then come to verbal description. In 20th century, other technologies have been introduced like sound recording and photography. During 1933 to 1940 the concept of visual aids helped the process of learning. In 1970 different developments took place and the concept of educational technology took its shape more neatly.

In Pakistan, Pakistan Studies is taught as a multi-cultural Subject: it consolidates history, geography, citizenship, traffic senses, environment, population, personal and social life and relationship between citizen and state into one subject of study, through which knowledge is imparted to the students. According to Saigal (1995), Nosier (2006), and Ahmed (2004), the purpose of teaching Pakistan Studies is to develop spiritual awareness along with civic consciousness by including and understanding of socio-economic and socio-cultural aspects of Pakistan, national cohesion, state integrity and, most of all, importance of co-existence and inter-dependence by encouraging skills of comprehension, creativity and application.

The concept and use of educational technology is not very new, it has been used in the era of Greeks. Jones (1999) states that the use of the educational technology in classroom started in the era of Plato and still educational technologies are being used. The use of technology assumed different forms from the very beginning: books, black board, pencil, and more recently movies, radios, projectors and newer technologies.

Pakistan Study is an area of school curriculum that deals with time, both past and present, places not only in the immediate vicinity but of different concerns of the world. According to Kahhar (2002), “To make all these vivid before the pupil is more important than chalking and talking, a rich gala ray of educational technology will have to be harnessed to make teaching Social Studies lively and interesting” (p.128). He further says “Social Studies are an area of curriculum that is generally not popular with pupils because of its dead uniformity and frozen and fixed accounts of facts. The use of educational technology can zest and interest” (p.129).

Technology can become the force that equalizes the educational opportunities of all children regardless of local and economical circumstances. National Academy of Engineering (1993) points out that the use of technology even though viewed by some as expensive and unnecessary, creates a cost efficient mechanism that gives access to materials and resources that were previously unavailable. So, usage of educational technology is important for all subject areas and especially for Pakistan Studies.

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Methodology

Research Question

What are teachers' perception and practices regarding using educational technologies in Pakistan Studies classroom at the secondary level?

Research Design

Keeping in mind the nature of the problem, we used qualitative approach for our studies. The reason was choosing this approach was that it was more appropriate to our topic. Through this approach, we collected detailed information about our topic.

Sample and Sampling

We selected only one private school as our research sample the reason because we had limitation of time. Generally speaking, qualitative approach requires small sample and large interpretation for in-depth studies. We selected two teachers for our research and a whole class of social studies. Teachers were males since there were the only Pakistan Studies teachers in the school. The school which we selected our research sample was a private school the reason of choosing private school is that higher secondary school Gilgit is one of the top schools of Gilgit Baltistan and we wanted to see how much technology is being used in top schools of Gilgit Baltistan especially in Pakistan Study classrooms.

Instrument of the Study

In this study the primary strategies were interviews and classroom observation. According Marriam (1998), case study usually relies on strategies of interviewing, observation and document analyzing documents. Usually one or two strategies are used. Classroom observations are used as supporting method for collecting data.

Data Analysis

The process of data analysis is infinite. There is a huge data which a researcher collects during the data collection process. This process is about organizing and analyzing the actions and events seen, and covers actions heard and reading of relevant documents to study. We did data analysis in two phases. During Phase One, we transcribed the data collected on day-by-day basis through semi-structured interview. Then, we did the coding carefully for meaning making and categories, but when data increased we made sub-categories. Then in the second phase of data analysis, we sorted out these scripts of data. We related them with our research question. We gave them sequence according to categories.

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Findings

The study describes that the teachers see that Pakistan studies is a combination of different subjects, like history geography, literature, economics and teaching combination of different subject is a challenging task. However, teachers have to cover a large number of courses before examination. That's why teachers mostly use lecture method. Research on teaching and learning Pakistan Studies in Pakistani classroom reveals that the most common technique used for instruction is to have the students repeat the lesson at the top of their voice, followed by the teacher talking, while students listen, and they memorize whatever knowledge they have been given and regurgitating the same in test and examination. In the school where we conducted this study were an English school and some common educational technologies were available in the school such as Internet, overhead projectors, computers, reference books, audio-visual aids, small tools such as charts, maps and graphs.

Conclusion

This case study will help researchers in further studies to use education technologies especially in Pakistan studies classroom and through this research teachers and students can develop a sense to use educational technologies in different subjects.

Based on the findings of the research we can safely conclude that use of educational technology in Pakistan Studies brings motivation among students to study the subject well. Furthermore, it has the potential to develop learners into creative people, critical thinkers, problem solvers and independent thinkers. We had conducted this study in an English medium school and the sample of our research was small .Therefore we cannot generalize this study for all schools. But we strongly claim that the use of educational technology makes learning interesting and these technologies can become cause of motivation for students.

Recommendations

On the basis of the research study, the following points are recommended for further improvement.

It is recommended to the school that they provide educational technologies for students. It is recommended that the teachers use available educational technologies frequently in Pakistan Studies classes.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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The Portrayal of Death in Donne's "Death Be Not Proud" and Jaroslav Seifert's "The Mistress of the Poets": A Comparative Study

Bibhudutt Dash, Ph.D.



John Donne 1572-1631

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Death – A Perennial Subject

This paper compares the differences in the approaches to death between John Donne's sonnet "Death Be Not Proud" and the Czech poet Jaroslav Seifert's "The Mistress of the Poets," and highlights the notes of defiance and glorification in the poems respectively. Whereas Donne challenges the might of death and admonishes it not to be proud, Seifert imbues death with such glorifications as "the lady of all pains," "the lute of lamentations," "the mistress of the poets," "the empress of all killing," "the younger sister of decay," and "an instant, a scratching of the pen." Death, a perennial subject in literature, is a dread for many. However, people's attitudes toward it vary. The poems in question necessitate a re-examination of our attitudes in the chiaroscuro of mortality and immortality.



Jaroslav Seifert 1901-1986

Death: Be Not Proud

Donne's imperative, "be not proud" is a foreclosure of death's depredations; a pointer to the futility of our undue dread. While he personifies death, he also divests it of its might insofar as its fancied supposition as being invincible is but a chimera. Thus what Donne focuses on is a metaphysical ratiocination foregrounded upon a studied dismissal of fear:

Death be not proud, though some have called thee

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Mighty and dreadful, for, thou art not so,
For, those, whom thou think'st, thou dost overthrow,
Die not, poor death, not yet canst thou kill me (1-4).

Disillusionment

In contradistinction to Donne's derision of death, making death defenseless, and reducing it to a phenomenon of utter inconsequence, Seifert presents a disillusionment of his imaginings as to the relative pleasantness of death on different occasions, or in different circumstances. Donne's attitude being critical, and the lines being acerbic, contrasts with Seifert's milder expressions.

Preferred Locale for Dying and Death

The locale of death in Seifert's poem, such as, "to die amidst spring blossoms," "to die at the Venice carnival," or to die "in bed at home" are presented at the backdrop of a romantic confusion, or a phantasmagoria of besotted choices. The poet's nostalgic remembrances of "Those foolish moments of first love," when one is "head over heels," led him to digress from the supposed beauty that could lie in dying "in bed at home." Thus a contrast relates to a difference between Donne's resentment and Seifert's covert predilection for death's seductions. Again, Seifert's wish to die "in bed at home" borders on an execution of a sort of pact with death to oblige him with a grant of wish. In no time, the poet is aware of the pain associated with death, but he invests death with a feminine grace:

But death is the lady of all pains
known to the world.
Her train is woven
from the rattle in the throat of the dying
and embroidered with the stars of tears (9-13).

An Acme of All Pains

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Seifert places death at the acme of all pains, but the apparent rancour is softened by imbuing it with a gracefulness, a slyness, characteristic of a lady. This resemblance, though not fortuitous, likens the features of death with the selfsame attributes accorded to a woman. However, Donne's appropriation of "rest and sleep," of which death is only a simulacrum, a travesty of no better grandeur, is further buttressed by the line: "And soonest our best men with thee do go."

Is Mortality Avoidable?

Donne's dismissal of death's self-proclaimed grandeur in extricating people from the miseries of life is strengthened by the poet's discovery of other sources, from which a rest, albeit transient, can be had. Concurrent with such satisfaction, there runs in the poet's argument a realization that mortality, however, is unavoidable. This acknowledgement is tantamount to a tacit submission to the might of death, but this submission, as it were, links with the idea of deliverance, which is possible only through death. Thus death serves as a conduit, a medium of transporting the dead to the higher, nobler realms. In this way, death makes extrication of the soul possible. However, Seifert's imagistic tableau in such expressions as "the rattle in the throat of the dying," and "embroidered with the stars of tears," in ascribing to death such qualities which pass from sinister affliction to the aesthetics of morbidity, is contrapuntal to Donne's acknowledgement. For Seifert, death is a veritable finality, an absolute closure, "the door to nowhere":

Death is the lute of lamentations,
the torch of the burning blow,
the urn of love
and the door to nowhere (14-17).

A Symphony of Sadness

Seifert's lugubrious portrayal of death coupled with its orphic associations heightens a symphony of sadness which underscores our perception of grief coterminous with reasons to delight. As Seifert sees, death being "the lute," "the torch," "the urn," and "the door," aligned with

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“lamentation,” “burning blow,” “love,” and “nowhere” respectively, it does not seem to bear in Seifert’s lines any brunt of challenge or indifference, as in Donne’s, but manifests the speaker’s glorification of its prowess. Donne’s coruscating metaphysical argument belittling death’s swagger runs in line with his categorical enumeration of such factors that could cause death, better than the “stroke” of death. This frustrates death’s singular privilege to “make us sleep”:

Thou art slave to fate, chance, kings, and desperate men,
And dost with prison, war, and sickness dwell,
And poppy, or charms can make us sleep well,
And better than thy stroke; why swell’st thou then? (9-12).

Donne effects a bathos as for the masterly dimensions of death by making it subservient to the varied ways of dying. The poet’s constant effort to deflate the pride of death stands as a contrast to Seifert’s apotheosis of death as “the mistress of the poets.” Further, it is interesting to note death having masculine dimensions in Donne’s, contrasted with the attributing of feminine characteristics in Seifert’s. However, Seifert lets the poets traverse difficult paths to find this “mistress”:

Sometimes death is the mistress of the poets.
Let them court her
in the stench of dead flowers,
if they can bear
the toiling of the gloomy bells
which are now in the march,
stamping through bloody mud (18-24).

Death and Rebirth

Donne’s vision of a rebirth, which is possible only by death, is founded upon the prospects of a reawakening: “One short sleep past, we wake eternally.” This, however, does not hint at a cycle of birth and rebirth, but an extinction from that. The poet’s comparison of death with “One short

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sleep” relates to an eternal waking, referring to an attainment of a higher degree of consciousness or realization. This is further related to what he writes as “soul’s delivery,” a concept which resembles the Buddhist concept of nirvana. Donne refers to this state as a condition where “death shall be no more.” This has selfsame echoes in Seifert’s lines:

Death slips into the female body
with its long narrow hand
and chokes the infants under the heart.
True they may go to paradise,
but still all bloody (25-29).

Feminine Aspects of Death

References to the feminine aspects of death do again surface in these lines, albeit with a macabre image of strangling. Not just this, but in the poem’s succeeding lines too, Seifert addresses death with feminine references: “the empress of all killing,” and “the younger sister of decay.”

Although it apparently looks like glorifying death in majestic and tender terms, it does also show the poet’s dread towards it. Seifert’s aesthetic treatment of death contrasts with Donne’s derisive approaches, but Donne’s challenge is nevertheless fraught with an element of fear. This is qualified by a paradox: “death, thou shalt die.” While Donne refers to the death of death, he also refers to the deathlessness of all, which signifies life for none. Since none shall die, following the death of death, and further, immortality in physical terms being improbable, the employment of such a paradox leaves the reader in a perplexity as to its abstruse significations.

Poetic and Grim

Compared to Donne’s ratiocination in the mortality-immortality matrix, Seifert’s portrayal of death is grim but poetic:

Death is the empress of all killing
and her scepter
has from the origin of the world

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commanded the horrors of war...

Death is the younger sister of decay,
the messenger of ruin and nothingness,
and her hands
push upon everybody's breast
the burden of the grave (30-38).

Royal Features of Death versus Gruesomeness of Death

Seifert's simultaneous portrayal of death, with royal features, and combining with it references to its gruesomeness, are unlike Donne's, in which the lethal execution of death suffers subservience. In a way, both Donne and Seifert acknowledge the might of death and the mortality of all, but Donne's belief in, or references to the fact of immortality in the poem is expressly underscored than that of in Seifert's. Whereas Donne defies death, Seifert deifies it, with a blend of playfulness and awe. However, in neither poem, the speaker condescends to pathetic surrender. The death of death envisaged by Donne finds a similar note in Seifert's where death's power is dealt with a dismissive note:

But death is also just an instant,
a scratching of the pen
and no more (39-41).

Submission to the Fact of Death

A comparative study of the differences in their approaches to death reveals a degree of similarity of submission to the fact of death, but Seifert's attribution of some feminine, aesthetic, royal features to death find no similar grandeur in "Death Be Not Proud." While Donne highlights the mortality of death vis-à-vis the immortality of the soul, in a brilliant argument that enervates death of all its importance and power, Seifert's glorification of death is a veritable submission to death; an acknowledgement of the fact of mortality.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

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ISSN 1930-2940

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Problems Faced by the Private Sector at the Primary Level in Pakistan

Maqsooda Hussain, Ph. D.

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Abstract

Primary education has been recognized as the basic human right of every child and it is the duty of the government to provide this basic facility to all its citizens. But the governments alone are not able to do this because of their scare resources. The private sector, therefore, is required to come forward and share the burden. In spite of many efforts, the private sector has not yet delivered and there is a need to find out the problems that hinder its advancement. To highlight this problem a national study on the subject was carried out.

The main objective of the study was to find out and prioritize the problems faced by the private sector at primary level in Pakistan. The data was gathered from all four provinces of Pakistan. Questionnaires were prepared for the heads of private schools to find out their views. These were administered either by hand or were posted to sample private schools. All sample places were visited. Telephone proved to be the most effective source in the collection of data, as it was frequently used to remind the respondents. The main problems highlighted by the respondents were: Attitude of the government, registration process, policies of government towards private sector and payment of utility bills.

Key words: Primary education, Private sector, Problems of private sector, Primary education in Pakistan

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Introduction

Nations progress through the development of the individuals. It is evident from the fact that all the developed countries have their present status after attaining almost hundred percent literacy rates. Education contributes to the mental, physical, social and cultural development of the individual. Therefore, nobody should be denied access to it.

Education sector is an important sector as is evident from the fact that nearly one out of every five persons alive today, is either a pupil or a teacher in a formal system of education, As per the report of 1998 Census of Pakistan, over thirty-nine million persons were found to be either attending educational institutions or had attended earlier (Govt. of Pakistan, 1998 a).

Education is considered as the cheapest defence of a nation, as is stated by Iram Saleem (2010). She further stated that though 62 years have been passed and 23 policies and action plans have been introduced yet the educational sector in Pakistan is waiting for an arrival of a savior.

1.1 Pakistan

Official name of the country is Islamic Republic of Pakistan. Quaid-i-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah is the father of the nation and Dr. Allama Muhammad Iqbal is the national poet. Pakistan got independence from the British rule on 14 August 1947. It is yet a developing country and is facing a number of problems due to various reasons. Kashmir, an unresolved issue since 1947, wars with neighboring country, separation of its eastern wing, East Pakistan, Russian invasion in Afghanistan, Military Governments for over more than 30 years and war on terror are among some of the problems. According to Basic Facts as given by the government of Pakistan:

It is a country of more than 165 million people consisting of about 50% youth. According to the census of 1998, the population was about 132 million. Pakistan is divided into four provinces, viz., Punjab, Sind, Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa and Baluchistan. The tribal belt adjoining Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa is managed by the Federal Government and is named FATA, i.e. Federally Administered Tribal Areas. Kashmir region and Northern Areas have their own respective political and administrative machinery, yet certain of their subjects are taken care of by the federal Government through the Ministry of Kashmir Affairs and Northern Areas. <http://www.infopak.gov.pk/BasicFacts.aspx>

As education is the provincial domain, therefore, the study was conducted in all four provinces to have a true picture, at national level, of problems of private sector. Three districts headquarters from Punjab, two from Sind, two from Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa and two from Baluchistan were taken as sample. Rawalpindi, Multan and Faisalabad were sample cities from Punjab, Hyderabad and Sukkur from Sind, Peshawar and Abbottabad from Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa and Quetta and Pishin from Baluchistan were samples for this study.

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1.2 Primary Education

Primary education is the most important stage of education. It is the foundation on which the whole building of education stands. It has the maximum rate of return among all levels of education. It provides basic learning skills like reading and counting to primary children. The school provides a place to young children where they can learn socialization that will help them in practical life. In a report published by the Government of Pakistan (2000), primary education has been defined as "Primary education comprises classes I to V and enrolls students of age- group 5+ to 9+".

Primary education has been recognized as a basic human right of all children by the United Nations. According to the Constitution of Pakistan this right has been admitted by the Government of Pakistan. Universalization of Primary Education (UPE) has been considered as a tool to achieve hundred percent literacy rates in any country. Education for All (EFA) is an international initiative first launched in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 to bring the benefits of education to "every citizen in every society." Being a signatory, Pakistan has also taken responsibility to provide compulsory and free basic education to all its citizens.

In order to realize this aim, a broad coalition of national governments, civil society groups, and development agencies such as UNESCO and the World Bank committed to achieving six specific education goals:

- Expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
- Ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free, and compulsory primary education of good quality.
- Ensure that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs.
- Achieve a 50 % improvement in adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.
- Achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
- Improve all aspects of the quality of education and ensure the excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

<http://web.worldbank.org>

The governments have recognized the importance of primary education. Almost in all Education Policies and their respective Five Year Plans, measures to achieve universal primary education have been suggested and planned. Unfortunately this target has been constantly shifted farther and it is still out of reach.

1.3 Private sector

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According to the *Oxford Concise Dictionary* private sector means the part of a country's economy that consists of privately owned enterprises. The private school, according to the same dictionary, is a school under the financial and managerial control of a private body or charitable trust accepting mostly fee-paying students. Private sector is a part of country's economy, which consists of privately owned enterprises. A school under the financial and managerial control of a private body or charitable trust, accepting mostly fee-paying students, is called private school. Thus, private institutions mean those institutions that are not provided funds and financed by the state.

1.4 Private Sector in Pakistan

Private Sector has always played a significant role in providing the educational facilities to a vast number of pupils. In the past, the private sector was more active in providing the welfare facilities, like health and education to the majority of population. According to Fayyaz Baqir (1998, p.179), a long tradition of community work in education has existed in the sub-continent. He elaborates,

This system of [...] literacy based on the concept of voluntary work and self-help, was not then known as NGO work and was much larger in scale compared to present NGO initiatives.

At the time of the creation of Pakistan in 1947, the private sector had a major share in providing education through schools at various levels. These private schools were run by both societies motivated by the cause of promoting education as well as by individuals making their living through education and teaching. Baqir (1998) has stated that, "The government owned 4 per cent of primary schools, the private sector owned 43 per cent of these schools and various local bodies ran rest of the schools, i.e. 53 % of primary schools". Following table shows the situation at the time of independence.

Table 1 Percentage Breakdown of Different Sectors in 1947

	Primary	Middle	High
Government (%)	04	03	09
Private (for-profit)	43	47	83
Local Bodies (NGO's)	53	50	08

Source: Fayyaz Baqir, (1998)

However, during the twentieth century, governments all over the world intervened and gave private sector a less important role for a long time. During 1970's the government of Pakistan Peoples' Party nationalized all private schools with the exception of a few prestigious institutions like Aitcheson College Lahore etc. The main motive behind this was to provide equal educational opportunities to the masses. However, the nationalized process could not achieve its targets. It loaded a heavy financial burden on the national

exchequer on one hand, and the standard of education on the other hand, also deteriorated.

During nineties of the previous century, this trend was again reversed and the privatization of every sector of the economy was started including social sector. Pakistan is no exception to this worldwide trend. Private sector was allowed to work and nationalized institutions were denationalized. Asian Development Bank has reported that,

According to Pakistan Education Statistics 2007-08, published by the Academy of Educational Planning and Management, percentage share of public and private sector is as follows:

There are 182,477 (71 %) educational institutions in the public sector and 73,611 (29 %) in private sector. Enrollment wise, public sector has an enrollment of 25,213,896 (67 %) in various categories of educational institutions whereas 12,248,990 (33 %) enrollment is in private sector.

1.5 Problems Faced by the Private Sector

Education plays vital role in the economy of any country. It has direct influence on the development of individuals as well as the societies. Unfortunately the education sector in Pakistan is not presenting a promising picture. Pakistan is still far behind the targets set for Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Education for All (EFA). The government of Pakistan alone is not capable to provide educational facilities to all school going children.

The private sector has to come forward and help the government to accomplish this colossal task. Each government has publicized through Education Policies that private sector will be provided incentives to participate wholeheartedly in educational activities. The private sector has not yet come up according to the aspirations and requirements of the country. This study was designed to find out and prioritize the problems faced by the private sector so that these problems could be taken care by the government.

In a report published by Academy of Educational Planning and Management it has been described that,

The pattern of ownership of educational institutions that emerges from the census is also somewhat worrying. The institutions in the private sector are not evenly spread out at all levels. Thus, the private sector has more schools at secondary and middle level (61 %) than the government has. Again the private sector operates more technical, vocational and professional institutions, such as poly-technical, vocational and professional institutions, such as mono-techniques, (70 %) than the government is running.

1.6 Problems reported by the Private Sector

Following question was asked from the heads of private schools.

Do you find any problem in dealing with the government? If yes, please state these problems. The responses received are presented province-wise, in the following section.

1.6.1 Punjab

Following table shows the number and location of respondents in Punjab.

Table 2 Number of sample schools

Province	Places	Number of sample schools
Punjab	Rawalpindi	70
	Faisalabad	70
	Multan	70
	Total	210

Overall, 58 per cent responses were received from Punjab who reported that they have problems in dealing with government or by the government. Quite a large number of respondents i.e. 42 per cent did not respond to the question. Probably they did not want to disclose their observation due to some reasons. Following table shows priority wise opinions of respondents.

Table 3 Priority wise opinions of respondents

Statements	Total n	Responses	Percentage
Attitude of government	117	41	35
Tax	117	29	25
Registration	117	21	18
Policies of government	117	18	15
Examination	117	14	12
Utility bills	117	12	10
Grant/Loan	117	08	07
Monitoring	117	03	03
School building	117	02	02

A Attitude of Government Officials

Respondents from Multan reported that:

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- 1 The government officials are corrupt and they take bribery and harass the owners of private schools.
- 2 Lack of departmental cooperation among various educational departments.
- 3 The behavior of government officials is rude and unjust.

From Rawalpindi respondents stated that,

- 1 The government discourages private sector and does not cooperate with the private sector.
- 2 They suggested that better coordination between both sectors would contribute for the development of primary education.
- 3 The government does not provide any type of information willingly to the private sector.
- 4 They further stated that the private sector faces unnecessary interference from the government. They suggested that one window operation should be introduced and education departments of government should be merged into one, wherever possible, to make smooth functioning of routine matters.

Respondents from Faisalabad reported,

- 1 Non-cooperative, rude and unfair attitude of government officials, who are always ready to create problems for private sector.
- 2 They further blamed that government officials are unaware of the importance of education. They demanded that highly qualified officers with missionary spirits should be employed in education departments.
- 3 Various departments of government black mail the heads of private institutions and corruption is at its peak at present. Corruption creates a lot of problems like unnecessary delay and baseless allegations.
- 4 At times AEO's / DEO's call heads of private sectors in their offices for minor issues but they themselves remain absent from their offices. This wastes their precious time.
- 5 Government officers do not consider that private sector is providing national service and they are always demanding something in the shape of bribery. Whenever the concerned officer is contacted he is either in meeting or is on visit etc. One respondent stated that they have to wait for months even to get a signature from an education officer.

B Taxes

Responses received from Multan complained about the following:

- 1 Harassment of tax department in spite of the factor that they pay heavy amount in form of tax.

Respondents from Rawalpindi reported problems of

- 1 Heavy taxes levied by the government. They suggested that the fiscal year for the assessment of income tax should be in accordance with the academic year i.e. from April to March.

Respondents from Faisalabad reported,

- 1 The behavior of tax department as harsh, insulting, rude and harassing. They reported that number of taxes is imposed on private schools. They suggested that income tax on those schools that charge fee less than Rs. 200 should not be levied. Government departments treat private schools as industry without recognizing their contribution and impose heavy amount of taxes.

C Registration/ Affiliation Process

Responses received from Multan complained about the following:

- 1 Complicated process of registration/affiliation and suggested that it should be made simple and registration fee should be reduced.

Responses received from Rawalpindi reported that

- 1 Registration process is laborious and teasing attitude of government officials makes it more difficult. It takes almost half a year to get the provisional registration and recognition and that even after hectic efforts of at least one year. To get counter signatures of DEO and AEO takes a lot of time and efforts. They reported same difficulties during up-gradation process or renewal of registration. Too much paper work and lot of formalities delay registration process and make it a tiring activity.

Respondents reported from Faisalabad reported,

- 1 That unnecessary documentation is required to get a school registered. Registration fee should be reduced and annual increase should be stopped. All registered schools should be allowed to issue school-leaving certificates for smooth functioning. Registration fee should be fixed according to the fee that the school charges from its students.

D Government Policies towards Private Sector

Respondents from Multan suggested:

- 1 The government should liberalize policies towards private institutions and it should be given relaxation like other industrial entrepreneurs.

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Respondents from Rawalpindi stated that

- 1 Policies regarding private sector should be changed.
- 2 The built-in mechanism in government offices causes delay in many urgent matters.
- 3 Sudden changes in policies during academic session without communicating timely cause a lot of problems.
- 4 A respondent stated, "It is very surprising that we need a license to drive a small vehicle like motor cycle, but people are allowed to open a school without any condition. These people are playing with the lives of children. To acquire a license should be mandatory for opening a school after fulfilling necessary requirements.

Respondents from Faisalabad stated:

- 1 Offensive rules of government, difficult official procedures, delay in office work and unnecessary correspondence just to disturb the private sector are among some of the major problems.
- 2 Non-cooperation on minor issues like sending admission of class V is a great obstacle in their functioning. Time is wasted in minor formalities. Staff in government offices is never available.
- 3 No information like date sheet, roll number slips and intimation of examination centers is conveyed timely.

E Examination/ Admission Forms

Respondents from Multan stated that

- 1 They face a lot of difficulties in the attestation of examination forms.

Responses received from Rawalpindi said that

- 1 They are facing a lot of problems in obtaining examination forms because of non-cooperative attitude of government officials.
- 2 They further reported that normally the examination centers are established far away from the schools.

Respondents from Faisalabad stated that

- 1 Method of taking examination of class V is not appropriate and suggested that they should be allowed to take home examination of their students.
- 2 They further reported that the schedule of Board Examination is unreasonable and there is an unnecessary condition of attestation of certificates.
- 3 Respondents also reported poor standard of examination centers.

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4 Roll number allotted to class V students are not intimated timely and biased behavior of EO's to students of private sector is another problem.

F Utility Bills

Responses received from Multan suggested:

- 1 Utility bills should be charged on domestic rates. They said that they are doing a noble job but every government treats private institutions as commercial projects and charges utility bills on commercial rates.

Responses received from Rawalpindi and Faisalabad also reported that

- 1 Commercial rate of utility bills is unfair. They further stated that ultimately this increase has to be borne by the students, as the institution will increase the tuition fee to generate extra finances.

G Grant/Aid/ Financial Support

Respondents from Multan suggested that

- 1 Private sector should be provided grant or financial support.

Respondents from Rawalpindi and Faisalabad suggested that

- 1 The government should provide matching grant/ aid for the smooth functioning of private sector.

H Monitoring by the Government

Respondents from Multan suggested that

- 1 There should be a check and balance system for the employees of private schools devised by the government.

Respondents from Rawalpindi suggested

- 1 Regular monitoring by the government to check the shortcomings in administration and academic procedures of private sector.

I School Building

Respondents from Multan Rawalpindi stated that the non-availability of school buildings is a great problem for them.

1.5.2 Sind

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Table 4 **Number of sample schools from Sind**

Province	City	Number of sample
Sind	Hyderabad	42
	Sukkur	23
	Total	65

A Respondents from Hyderabad reported that

- 1 Unnecessary interference of government officials causes embarrassment for the management of private schools
- 2 Sudden change in policies without prior consultation or information causes a lot of inconvenience.
- 3 Private sector is providing free education to some poor children. The government should provide books and uniform to these students.
- 4 Social Security Fund and Old Age Benefit Fund is great financial burden.
- 5 The government should provide land free of cost for private schools
- 6 Government should give financial support for the payment of teachers, salary.
- 7 Utility bills being charged on commercial rates is a problem.

B Respondents from Sukkur reported that

- 1 The government should provide up to date information.

1.5.3 Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa

Table 5 **Number of sample schools from Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa**

Province	City	Number of sample
Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa	Peshawar	36
	Abbottabad	24
	Total	60

A Responses from Peshawar reported that

- 1 The government should give registration / recognition automatically if the school completes five years. They complained that the renewal of registration/ recognition is delayed unnecessarily by the government officers.
- 2 They further suggested that there should be no compulsory examination for class V by the government.
- 3 Another respondent stated that it has become very difficult for an honest person, to run an educational institution because the government discourages the private sector instead of helping them to flourish. He further said that there are thousands and one problems in dealing with the government what to talk about one or two.

B Respondents from Abbottabad reported that

- 1 Co-education should be allowed in Abbottabad like all other parts of the country. They said that Abbottabad Board is insisting to keep separate premises for girls and boys, while in their opinion students from co-education are more daring and confident to participate in practical life.
- 2 The government office process is very slow.
- 3 Instead of helping the government officers put hurdles in their way. They cannot concentrate on their main cause that is to provide better educational facilities to the children.

1.5.4 Baluchistan

Table 6 Number of Sample schools from Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa

Province	City	Number of Sample
Baluchistan	Quetta	19
	Pishin	05
	Total	24

A Respondents from Quetta reported that

- 1 Delayed process in the handling of matters
- 2 To go through too many formalities,
- 3 Lack of devotion and honesty, especially among upper class (officials) of the government officials.
- 4 The attitude of government officials is insulting and they are not ready to give due respect to the teachers of private sector.

1.6 Consolidated list of Problems

Priority-wise problems of the private sector are presented in the following table.

Table 7 Priority-wise opinions of respondents

Statements	Total n	responses	Percentage
Attitude of government	215	50	23
Registration/ affiliation process	215	32	15
Taxes	215	31	14
Policies for private sector	215	22	10
Examination system	215	17	08
Utility bills	215	14	07
Grant/ aid	215	12	06
Monitoring system by the government	215	03	01

School buildings	215	03	01
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Above table shows that the attitude of government officials, complicated and time consuming registration/affiliation process, heavy taxes and policies of the government are the problems which are at the top of the list. System of examination for class V and utility bills at commercial rates are also reported as problems. The respondents charged the government officials with the charge of bribery, insulting attitude and non-cooperative behavior. However, from Baluchistan respondents reported that they have no problems.

The private sector also suggested that the government should provide financial help in form of grant in aid and to buy land for school buildings or provision of land free of cost by the government. The private sector also demanded monitoring system by the government to have a check on private sector.

1.7 Summary

The study was carried out to find out the problems of private sector at primary level. In spite of all government efforts the private sector is still shy to come forward and participate wholeheartedly in this noble cause of providing educational facilities to all children of relevant age group. The main problems highlighted by the private sector are:

- 1 Attitude of government officials
- 2 Lengthy and laborious registration/affiliation
- 3 Heavy taxes
- 4 Policies of government made for private sector without consulting them
- 5 Examination system of class V
- 6 Utility bills at commercial rates

The private sector gave some suggestions also presented in the following;

- 1 Grant in aid to motivate private sector
- 2 Proper monitoring system by the government
- 3 Land for school buildings free of cost or provision of loan or provision of school buildings.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Bilingualism and Language Maintenance in Barak Valley, Assam - A Case Study on Rongmei

Debajit Deb, Ph.D. Scholar (Linguistics)



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Abstract

Rongmeis are one of the linguistic groups of Northeast India which constitute an important ethnic group in the region. They were considered as the aborigines of Barak Valley (this valley includes three districts of Assam, namely, Cachar, Karimgang and Hailakandi) and even today they are an integral part of the Barak Valley diaspora. Rongmei is one of the tribes of Zeliangrong Naga. Zeliangrong is a name given to the amalgamation of three tribes, namely, Zeme, Liangmai and Rongmei. The Rongmei population has been divided into a number of exogamous clans: Kamei, Gonmei, Gangmei, Ruammei, Dahengmei, Golmei, Panmei and Reammei. Rongmei Nagas have their own language, and they also speak Sylheti Bengali. As the area has large Sylheti Bengali population, the lingua franca is Sylheti Bengali, and almost all the Rongmeis are bilinguals. It is also to be noted that those who are educated and who went out in search of jobs can also speak English and Hindi.

It should be mentioned here that Bengali is the dominant language in Barak Valley and Rongmei is highly influenced by Bengalis. For the fact, Rongmei people used to borrow some lexical items to fulfill the needs of their day to day communication.

The present paper attempts to discuss the issues of language maintenance by the bilingual Rongmeis of Barak Valley, Assam.

1. Introduction



This paper presents a case study exploring the language maintenance by the Rongmei community in Barak Valley, Assam. *Over the past few decades, Barak Valley has been transformed from being predominantly bilingual to a dynamic potpourri of multilingual society.* (Reference taken from Mishra, A.K. and Rajasree Dutta. 1999. *The Manipurians in Barak Valley: A Case Study of Language Maintenance*. Linguistics of the Tibeto-Burman Area, Vol. 22.1) There are many different languages spoken by the different linguistic communities in the Valley but most of them are considered as minority or lesser known languages because of their negligible numerical strength and some other socio-political reasons. One such community is the community of Rongmei speakers, who are bilinguals, i.e., along with their mother tongue, they are well versed in Bengali (an Indo-Aryan language). The present paper will show the issues of bilingualism and language maintenance in Barak Valley with special reference to Rongmei.

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2. People, Language and the Land



The Rongmei are known for their simplicity and hospitality. They are honest, generous and cheerful. Rongmei is the name of the people as well as the community that speaks the language. Linguistically, Rongmei is a Tibeto-Burman language which is mainly concentrated in the three states of North Eastern India, viz., Assam, Manipur, and Nagaland. Rongmei is formerly known as Kabui, and '*Ruangmei is an alternative spelling of Rongmei*' (Neihlalung.K.G., 2008 *Pacgaymeilat*. Published by – Rongmei Literature Committee). The total population of Rongmei is given in the Census of India, in the name of Kabui, is about 94,758 (Census, 2001).

3. Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate how the Rongmei people maintain their language, as their language has been highly influenced by Bengali. The study will also highlight whether bilingualism affects maintaining their language or not.

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4. Data and Methodology

The paper is based on the data collection in Rongmei community, which has been carried out in different parts of the Barak Valley of South Assam where the native speakers of the language are concentrated. A questionnaire was administered to many informants of both sexes belonging to different age groups, educational backgrounds, and professions. Data consists of 1500 vocabularies belonging to different semantic fields such as flora and fauna, foods habits, religious and cultural items, household articles, and natural phenomena and so on and the data has been crossed checked by the other speakers of the same variety.

5. Bilingualism

Like most of the tribal people of Northeast India, Rongmei are bilinguals. Along with their mother tongue, they speak English, Bengali or Hindi in some specific purposes. However, Rongmei used the Bengali in most of their communication with other linguistic groups. This may be the reason that Bengali is the dominant language of Barak Valley; almost all the communities used Bengali in their inter-ethnic communication. Another reason is that the Rongmei language is not being taught in the school as a medium of instruction or a subject. So, the utility of their language is very less in comparison to the other languages like English, Hindi and Bengali, etc. It is also observed that most of the business persons and employees are Bengalese, and they hardly know the Rongmei language.

It may be claimed that the average of bilinguals among the Rongmei is 60-70%. However, it is increasing in the recent years due to the impact of mass media, radio, television, cinema, etc. Here, the spread of bilingualism in both the rural and urban areas leads to borrowing lots of Indo-Aryan lexical items in groups of Rongmei speakers. Particularly, the younger Rongmeis use loan words liberally from the Indo-Aryan languages, Bengali and Hindi, and from English occasionally in place of their indigenous lexical items. So the large parts of their Rongmei vocabulary are not used by the younger generation so far.

6. Language Maintenance

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In the words of Fasold (1984), “*Language maintenance is a sociolinguistic factor when a speech community collectively decides to continue to use the language that they traditionally used.*” Language maintenance is not only crucial but also a challenging task for each and every community to preserve to the extent possible its distinct linguistic and ethnic identity. However, for a minority community like Rongmei, home seems to be the main source for language maintenance. Undoubtedly, all Rongmeis reported that they speak Rongmei at home and encouraged their children to use the language in their home domain. It may be the reason that they have a positive attitude towards their language and used it as a tool for identifying themselves as a distinct ethnic community. However, Rongmeis use Bengali outside the home domains with non-Rongmei friends, doctor, nurse, pharmacists, bus drivers, conductors, in banks, in post offices, in hospitals, etc.

It is also obvious that *institutional support* is one of the factors which can empower an ethnic community to maintain its language by any speech community. But it is not happening in the case of Rongmei. That is, the Rongmei language is not taught in the schools or any other institutions so far, and yet their use of Rongmei in the home domain helps them maintain their language. However, lack of institutional support has restricted the lawful use of their language in many other domains. Hence without institutional support they are able to maintain their language only in their home domain. As mentioned earlier that home is the main source for the language maintenance among the Rongmeis of Barak Valley.

Religion also plays a vital role to maintaining their language, because when they pray they use their mother tongue and the priest recites the mantras in Rongmei too. The Rongmei of Barak Valley has not shifted their cultural values, i.e., they still wear their traditional dress and celebrate festivals with their songs and dances in the traditional ways. Every year Rongmei people celebrate the ‘Gaan Ngai’ festival in the month of December or January with joy and pride.

Inter-ethnic marriage is also prohibited in their society. If exogamous marriage takes place, it is not appreciated/encouraged by the society. They seem to believe that if they allow Rongmeis to marry persons from some other communities, ultimately they will be the losers,

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because they are less in number and the couples will no longer be able to maintain their language because they will find a common language for both, rather than continue the use of Rongmei and the traditions represented by it. Objection to of inter-ethnic marriage indirectly helps Rongmeis to maintain their language.

The print media also helps one to maintain the language. There is a monthly magazine called “**Latzin**” published by Pou Pei Chapriak Research and Development Council Northeast India, Silchar. This is another source which helps them to maintain their language.

7. Conclusion

It is true that Rongmeis of Barak Valley are bilinguals and they are well versed in Bengali, the dominant language of Barak Valley. However, Rongmeis do have the positive attitude towards their language. It is proved that they never give up their language for the sake of any material advantage or prestige. They maintain their language in their home domains without any institutional support. One may argue based on the case of Rongmais that bilingualism may not be a dominant factor when a community fails to maintain their language.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Causes of Secondary Students' Failure in Learning English in Bangladesh

An M.A. Dissertation*

by

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**The dissertation submitted here is the slightly modified version of the dissertation that was submitted for the degree of M.A. ELT. The modifications include stylistic changes and corrections of the printing mistakes that were present in the earlier manuscript. No modification was made on theme or content or data analysis or their interpretation.*

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THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)
2007

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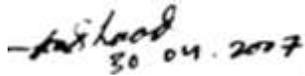
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Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own investigation in the matter and has not been submitted partially or fully for any other diploma or degree at any other university.

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To

My Ammu—my first teacher
My Abbu—my second teacher

And

To

The memories of
(Late) Abdus Salam,
One of my most influential teachers
In life.

I don't want to pay my debt back to them.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my deepest sense of gratitude and respect to my supervisor Professor A. M. M Hamidur Rahman for his constant and careful guidance, patient supervision, honest advice and criticism, and every possible help throughout the preparation of my research work. Without him, this research paper would not be done.

I would like to express my heart-felt gratitude to my family that always accompanied me--blessing, inspiring and supporting.

I would like to thank all the teachers of English Department, Institute of Modern Languages, University of Dhaka for their cooperation and suggestion.

My cordial thanks are due to the teachers, the students, my friends and other persons who directly or indirectly helped me in various ways to do this research.

Thanks to my Allah just for being with me all the way. I now believe, "Fortune favours the brave."

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Abstract

English is one of the most used languages in the world. In Bangladesh, English is introduced here at the primary level and its inclusion continues till the tertiary level of education. A student has to study English as a compulsory subject for ten years to pass the S.S.C. exam. At the secondary level in Bangladesh, English is taught for five years followed by the curriculum of the primary level that includes the learning of English for five years as well. However, after ten years' schooling of English, most of the students fail in English in the S.S.C. exam. Even if they pass, they get very poor marks. However, the students who pass and somehow get good marks do not seem to reflect their achievement practically. They can neither speak fluently and naturally nor understand English when they are not spoken to nor comprehend the meaning of what they read nor can they interpret the reading materials. They cannot write correctly and speak out their feelings and opinions. As a result, they do not learn English at all and reach the target stage that they were supposed to by the end of their curriculum. They pass the examination but actually they are unable to use the language. An empirical study of the causes of the secondary students' failure in learning English is done. Schools are visited, and data are collected through questionnaire surveys and interviews of the teachers, students and guardians; data are analysed, and finally presented to reveal the causes of their failure.

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Chapter-1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

English is one of the most used languages in the world. It is used not only by the maximum number of people but also in so many different areas of the world. In Bangladesh, English as a subject and a medium of instruction is given maximum priority. English is introduced here at the primary level and its inclusion continues till the tertiary level of education. A student has to study English as a compulsory subject for ten years to pass the Secondary School Certificate (S.S.C.) examination. The secondary level of education starts from class six and continues till class ten. Here the researcher chooses the students of class ten as his samples, and he means them when he refers to Secondary students because they are at the final stage of the Secondary level and they have a complete experience of undergoing that level. They are mature enough to speak about themselves and to evaluate and express their opinions regarding their education.

However, everyone knows a language course is different from any other courses as it is skill-based whereas the other courses or other subjects are more or less content based. As for English, different techniques and procedures have been followed to teach and the learners also learned through them. Considering the outcome, several changes for development of learners' learning process have been suggested. In the history of the language teaching, some principles and techniques got immense success and popularity e.g. Audio-Lingual Method and Communicative Language Teaching, and some received adverse criticism e.g. Grammar-Translation Method and also some could draw the deep attention for some time and finally brought no major successful results e.g. Suggestopedia.

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In Bangladesh, the traditional Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was used in teaching English but due to the huge success of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Method, CLT was adapted here in 1995 and first introduced in class IX and X in 2000 and 2001. Class IX must be mentioned here as the textbooks of all subjects of class IX and X are same and both the curriculum and the syllabus follow a shuttle programme throughout these two classes. When, in GTM, the knowledge about the language, its grammar, and rules are focused, communication or the ability to perform is emphasized in CLT. CLT is a modern method also as Julian Edge says. "Communication is at the heart of modern English language teaching (Edge, 1993: 17)". Now the language teachers are teaching English to their students to communicate spontaneously and moving away from their earlier typical knack for teaching the definitions, patterns, structures, grammar, vocabulary, literature, translation and so many things about the language other than the language itself.

At present, English is used as a foreign language in Bangladesh, which is a monolingual country. Before 1971, when Bangladesh was a part of Pakistan, English possessed the position of a second language and Pakistan was a multilingual country. Hence English was the *lingua franca*. Even before that in 1947, Pakistan was a part of the British India. However, the great 1952 Episode brought a huge rise to the use of Bangla; the importance of English was decreasing.

From the historical perspective of Bangladesh, English was not welcomed as it was the language of the colonizers—the Christians; as it replaced the prominence of Arabic and Persian which are thought to be sacred languages to the Bangladeshi Muslims—the religious majority. Later on, it was highly welcomed as for being the *lingua franca*. It was neglected a bit when Bangladesh got liberty at the back of which strong nationalism and linguistic fervour worked. But even then the importance of English was not totally ignored as the country's constitution was written and published together in Bangladesh and English. Presently, English is taught-learned, practised as a compulsory subject till the tertiary level of education; viva-voce examinations of almost all the

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organizations are held in English; the recently established science and technology universities are using English as their medium of instruction; a lot of coaching centres and English medium schools are growing fast. Yet the primary objectives are not reached and students are not learning English according to expectation.

1.2 Teaching and learning of English at the secondary level in Bangladesh

The British first introduced English as a compulsory subject in this region. The British also learned some prestigious ancient languages like Latin and Greek using GTM in their country. Therefore, they introduced the same method in teaching English here. In India, some second language teaching methods were in vogue and they had a great semblance with GTM. The Hindus had to learn Sanskrit and the Muslims, Arabic and Persian through their mother tongue. However, in GTM, reading and writing skills are given emphasis. Grammar, the knowledge and accurate application of those rules are given maximum priority. The basic aim was to provide learners with a sound knowledge of the language rather than to communicate in that language. Therefore, both the viewpoints and the procedures were not natural in language learning. Mother tongue was used in giving instructions. No lesson on listening and speaking skill was or is present. The stock of words is appreciated as having mastery and skill in translation is highly expected. Learners were taught to write personal letters, business letters, essays and paragraphs. Comprehension of a reading text was checked. Literary texts were used in teaching language. The teacher imparted his knowledge of grammar and in most cases he or she used 'prescriptive grammar'. Teachers were highly authoritative and teacher talking time had a lion's share in the class room. The teaching of grammar took place deductively. The teacher, himself, was taught in that way and had been teaching in the same way. However, as a drawback of GTM, some negative results came out e.g. students memorised rules without understanding; instead of writing their own answers, they observed the questions and reproduced the corresponding lines of the reading comprehension passage; memorised essays and paragraphs in lieu of learning the rules to

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write; also memorised the formats of letters without connecting it to the language, meaning and purpose; answered questions from the literary texts made at the house by the private teachers' help or through guide books and reproduced in the examination hall. Sometimes, due to excessive practice, they could, however, produce the correct answer but could not explain the reason. They learnt the English words without knowing their forms and functions and also the use in a sentence and so they could not form another sentence using the same word.

As a consequence, GTM proved to be unsuccessful in teaching English. Learners also had some knowledge of the language but they failed to use it appropriately, in accordance with their necessity. But, the root of this method is so deep and strong that it can not be uprooted easily. Therefore, attempt to replace this method was taken and in 1982, the Audio-lingual method appeared. A new syllabus with amendment and improved curriculum was introduced. It concentrated on teaching sentence, structure and vocabulary through repetition and drill. It included the development of the reading and writing skills. It also included literature and poetry as it descended GTM. But this method failed as well and finally in 1995, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced in class VI—the first stage of the secondary level. This frequent change of methods is described to show that students failed to learn English and they fail to do so even now. It is mentioned to justify how far unplanned use of methods are to be blamed for students' failure.

1.3 Necessity of learning English in Bangladesh

Learning English is a crying need for the Bangladeshi people. A sound competence in English can enable people to communicate at the international level. By Learning English, a person can become to a cosmopolitan citizen. He can communicate and cooperate with others. Understanding among different nationalities with so many differences can be made. Many foreigners are coming here. The natives who are going abroad for higher education are continuing their education in English. New branches of knowledge are being discovered and Bangladesh is also getting familiarity with them.

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The disciplines like Business Administration, Information and Communication Technology, Fashion Design are quite new here. The materials used for these subjects are written in English. If technology is mentioned, one cannot move without English even there. If a person knows English, he or she can use the best of internet facilities and other telecommunication technologies like mobile phone, digital video player, ipod and so on. Even in the commercial sector, the country is developing. The garments sector, the fisheries sector, the tapestry sectors have been able to draw the attention of the international body. Foreign investors are investing here and the market of these products are expanding worldwide. To make a good relationship with the buyers, to marketize the product, a good knowledge of, and ability to use English are needed. Then in new genres of knowledge, the native language has not developed much or is not doing so simultaneously. But English, being an international language is quickly adapting to the situation and enriching itself. So, English is more enriched than Bangla. A person skilled in English is highly evaluated home and abroad. The need for learning English has become basic and keeping it in mind, the Bangladeshi educationalists have introduced it as a compulsory subject, and been very keen to find out the expected outcome that is the practical use of English by the learners who went through the process and completed it.

1.4 Outcome of learning English at the secondary level

At the secondary level in Bangladesh, English is taught for five years and this secondary level also follows and reflects the curriculum of the primary level that includes the learning of English as well. However, after ten years' schooling of English, most of the students fail in English at the S.S.C. examination. Even if they pass, they get very poor marks. However, the students who pass and somehow get good marks do not seem to reflect their achievement practically. They cannot speak fluently and naturally. They do not understand English when they are spoken to. They cannot comprehend the meaning of what they read nor can they interpret the reading materials. They cannot write correctly and speak out their feelings and opinions. As a result, they do not learn English at all and reach the target stage which they were supposed to by the end of their

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curriculum. They pass the examination but actually they are unable to use the language. Learning a language does not mean to get pass marks but to learn to use the language practically. Finally, it is found that ten years of learning English proves to be useless in fact.

1.5 Drawbacks in teaching and learning of English in Bangladesh

Language learning ability is natural and innate in human beings. A child born of a family speaking a language can learn a different language if he or she is brought up in another family speaking another language. But difficulty arises when the question of learning an L2 occurs. Inability to overcome these difficulties can be one reason of failure of the secondary students to learn English.

Students are to be held responsible for this failure as well. Their inattention, lack of seriousness, lack of motivation, negative mind set and negative attitude like fear towards English, negligence to study, lack of interest, the prejudice about the language that it is difficult—all these are prominent factors behind the failure. But learning is directed by teaching and the secondary students are not that much mature to be self-motivated, systematic and organized in their study.

At this stage, teachers play a vital role. They not only teach the students but can guide them, motivate them, change their mindset and negative attitude, make them more serious and cultivate their awareness about their study. But the teachers have limitations in themselves. Sometimes, the persons having educational background in other subjects teach English in schools. Mostly, they are not trained to teach a language course. They do not study themselves the modern teaching methods and techniques nor does the government take any vital step to train them up. As a result, they do not come out of the outdated conception of teaching. They enter the classroom with a stick and teach with authority.

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Sometimes, the teachers teach from the guidebook. They are also busy with their private tuition centres. Therefore, they do not give much attention to the students in the classroom.

The guardian's role must be mentioned. Bangladesh is an agro-based country having many villages. Most of the people are farmers and uneducated or less educated. They live in the villages where the urban facilities are absent. They cannot guide their children. Even, the young students do not get a familial support regarding their education. In some cases, education is not that much welcomed. After a certain age, the girls get married and the boys go to field to help the farming, leaving their education behind.

Bangladesh is largely a monolingual country and the various dialects of different areas are not much difficult to understand for any Bangladeshi. Hence, there is no need for any *lingua franca* other than the standard colloquial form of Bangla. Therefore, these young students find no direct, real scope to use English in their practical life.

Bangladesh is a poor country. She cannot provide all her citizens with all the facilities needed for education. Here the number of teachers is less. The teacher-student ratio is not ideal. The classrooms are poorly furnished and over populated. Ideal classroom set-up is absent here. Students are also deprived of the modern equipments of a classroom e.g. overhead projector (OHP), CD, DVD, cassette player, white board, multimedia system, display board, etc. Even some of the classrooms in rural areas do not have proper seating arrangements. Books are not colourful and hence less attractive.

Finally, English appears to be a difficult language to the Bangladeshi learners. There are different sounds in the letters that are absent in Bangla. The structure of sentences, the grammatical complexities, and vocabulary give birth to a kind of fear and repulsion towards that language. It is not any negative aspect of the language but every language is unique in its own regard. Most importantly, the culture associated with and reflected through that language appears alien to them. Sometimes, they receive it and

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sometimes they are not ready to receive. These negative factors slow down the process of learning English and work as a barrier to that.

1.6 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and secondary level of education in Bangladesh

Of late, the Communicative Language Teaching has been introduced at the secondary level of education in Bangladesh. Primarily, it was first introduced in class VI in 1996 but in classes IX and X in 2001. It was also introduced at the Higher Secondary level later on. But in different colleges and universities of undergraduate programmes, GTM is followed.

However, CLT chiefly focuses on the development of the communicative competence of the learners through the practice of four skills of language. According to CLT, learning a second language is not a matter of knowing about that language only. Rather it requires constant and regular practice of the basic language skills in that language. Hence, CLT emphasizes the practice, use and development of these four skills.

The present communicative curriculum aims at enabling the learners to use English efficiently not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom. It enhances the use of the target language in the classroom. It also initiates the students to ask questions in English. It reduces the 'Teacher Talking Time' (TTT) and invites 'Students' Talking Time (STT) more. Democratic situation in the classroom instead of the one-way authoritative teaching is suggested here. More motivation from the teacher is expected and the classroom is supposed to be learner-centred. CLT invites more pair works, group works and lesson related activities instead of huge home tasks. Memorization is completely discouraged. Even the tests are designed to assess the knowledge, progress and achievement of the learners, not their ability to use the language.

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1.7 Aims and objectives of teaching and learning English at the secondary level

According to NCTB Curriculum and English Language Syllabus for Secondary Classes 6-10, the English syllabus aims to focus on the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as learner-centered activities within communicative contexts. Such contexts should not only convincingly reflect real-life social situations outside the classroom but also make the learning of English more relevant, interesting and enjoyable (P.7). Therefore, it is the four skills of the language, not the grammar, that get priority in CLT. CLT considers English as a skill-based subject and these skills are to be taught and practised through the context that must be the replica of the real life situation outside the classroom in Bangladesh, not of any imaginative situation in the UK or the USA. The theme and topic of these contexts must be relevant to the learning surroundings so that the overall situation and experience through that becomes enjoyable, interesting and motivating. The learning situation must focus the learners instead of the teachers. Through such activities, learners will be able to use the language appropriately and effectively in actual situations.

In the same booklet (appended at the end), the aims and objectives of Secondary English syllabus have been explained in terms of 'learning outcomes' (P.8). Then these outcomes are also defined in terms of skills. However, separate targets in these skills are set for separate classes. Here targets related to class IX and X are mentioned only. The earlier targets are not mentioned as they are not directly related to this research.

As for listening, students should be able to understand instructions and commands, participate in short and simple conversations and discussions at an appropriately advanced level on a variety of topics, understand narrative, descriptive texts, simple poetry, suitable literary texts, argumentative, authentic and realistic texts, and listen for gist, specific information, taking simple dictation, taking notes and finally

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distinguishing different sounds of English and recognizing intonation patterns of statements and questions within appropriate communicative contexts.

For speaking, students should be able to give instructions and commands, initiate and participate in conversations at an appropriate level, recount a series of events, describe people and objects etc, recite simple poetry with understanding, speak intelligibly in clear, correct English appropriate to the situation, express opinions clearly and logically, participate actively in debates, tell narratives and descriptive stories and talk interestingly about themselves and finally recite poetry with understanding.

In reading, students should be able to understand written instructions; narrative texts; descriptive texts and simple poems, informal letters, simple authentic texts taken from newspapers and brochures, dialogues, argumentative texts, formal letters appropriately selected and (if necessary) adopted literacy texts. They should be able to use reference sources like dictionaries, indexes or table of contents. They must be able to infer the meaning of words from their context, begin extensive reading using their 'supplementary reader', read with appropriate speed, and follow punctuation markers and graphological devices. They must be able to skim and scan, recognize topic sentences and cohesive devices and distinguish facts from opinions, detect conclusion and understand the significance of such cohesive devices as linking and reference words.

Finally, in writing, students should be able to write simple instructions, narratives, descriptions, informal letters, dialogues, summaries, clear arguments, write formal and informal letters, take notes, follow dictation at an appropriate speed, use punctuation and graphological devices, capitalization, use cohesive devices and reference words, write to express imagination and creativity, write practically i.e. in business and office, plan and organize their writing to communicate effectively.

With both the knowledge and practice of these four skills, students should have sufficient knowledge of grammar and structures. They should receive a deep knowledge about these skills and practice with their classmates and the teacher in the classroom and Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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thus will be able to use outside the classroom also. However, the knowledge of grammar is included but not emphasized. They are not meant to be known only but to be practised and used as well.

In fine, the secondary English Syllabus and textbook are designed in such a way that the secondary learners can possess a good command of the language and use it to communicate competently and effectively with mastery in practical and live situations.

1.8 Purpose and scope of the study

English has an important place in our national curriculum as it is taught and learned as a compulsory subject from the primary to the tertiary level. Due to the previous failure in learning, the CLT method has been adapted at the secondary level and it aims at building and developing the communicative competences of the learners through the regular practice of skills in classroom, enabling them to perform outside the classroom. The multi-dimensional notions of the Bangladeshi learners and the nationals towards English and their relationship with it has been shortly described, analyzed and presented in terms of history, politics, religion, society and linguistics previously. The limitations have also been mentioned. Despite all the adverse situations, CLT was introduced to bring positive outcomes. A few years have passed in CLT and the outcome is not up to satisfaction. The learners, at the end, crosses the secondary level getting pass marks and not fulfilling the aims and objectives that they will be able to communicate naturally, spontaneously in real life.

Learning includes so many factors for its successful fulfilment. We do not know where the actual problems of the learners are and why they are failing to learn. A detail investigation of the total teaching and learning system has become crucial now for identifying the real problem. Hence, my study will include the role of the teacher and the teaching system, the role of the learners and the learning system, the role of the syllabus and the textbook and how the textbook is used, the classroom environment, other factors

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influencing the teachers and the learners, the role of the guardians, the role of the government and also the role of society. Whether CLT is used practically will be observed. However, the testing system can also be studied on the basis of its backwash effect on education and society.

However, a lot of study has been done to ensure the better learning situation for the learners. As a result, positive changes came out. But in our country, adequate research on this recent and important issue has not been done. Rather, some people say, CLT is a failure in Bangladesh and its performance is poorer than that of GTM. Whatever the allegation is, a research-based study can really reveal the actual causes of failure and hence find out the solutions likewise. This is why I have chosen this area of study hoping that this study will be helpful for the development of learning English in Bangladesh.

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Chapter-2

Literature Review and Background Study

Learning is not an independent course of action itself; it is an action of receiving training by learners. Learners cannot do it alone. It involves the teaching system, the teacher, the syllabus, the textbook, the learning system, the learners, the learning environment, and the course objective as well. In fact, learning is a very complicated and relative term to define. Hence, the causes of failure or success of learning, especially learning a second/ foreign language necessarily engulfs and depends on the close and appropriate relationship of these factors mentioned. As for the topic of my thesis, the relevant literature is huge. A brief survey and discussion of those follows.

Our general understanding of the term 'learning' does not go with that of the linguists. Ordinary people have a different understanding of the 'learning'. Bigge (1976: 1) differentiates learning from maturation saying, "Maturation or learning, or combination of the two, is the means by which lasting changes in persons occur. Maturation is a developmental process within which a person from time to time manifests different traits, the 'blueprints' for which have been carried in his cells from the time of his conception." He adds, "Learning in contrast with maturation, is an ending chain in a living individual that is not heralded by his genetic inheritance. It may be considered a change in insights, behaviour, perception, or motivation or a combination of these." Hilgard and Marquis (1961: 10) say, "Learning is basic to the development of athletic process, of tastes in food and dress, and of the appreciation of art and music. It contributes to ethnic prejudice, to drug addiction, to fear, and to pathological maladjustment. It produces the miser and the philanthropist, the bigot and the patriot. In short, it influences our lives at every turn, accounting in part for the best and worst of human beings, and for the best and worst in each of us." Krashen (1985), while propounding his theory of second learning, differentiates learning from 'acquisition'

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saying, learning is the conscious approach towards a language when 'acquisition' takes place unconsciously in a natural order for enabling people to use the language.

Learning is not an automatic and spontaneous process. It is directed by, and dependent on teaching. For Bigge (1976: 1), “. . . teachers can do little to influence the maturational pattern of students . . . their most effectual area of endeavor always centres upon learning.” However, teaching is not directed and controlled by the teacher only. She or he has to go by the aims and objectives of the syllabus, textbook and education policy. On the other hand, a teacher is not a programmed robot, but a human being with his own personal traits and characteristics. Teaching is a kind of performing arts that is also affected or influenced or interpreted by the philosophy of the teacher who is not a born teacher but who is taught by his or her teachers as well. Hence the teacher has a preconceived idea of teaching from the experience when he was taught. “A teacher simply taught the way he (she) had been taught when he was a child or youth (Bigge 1976: 3)”. Therefore, a clash of ideology between the teacher and the factors concerned with language teaching may occur. In fact, “. . . the way in which an educator builds his curriculum, selects his materials, and chooses his instructional technique depends, to a large degree, upon how he (she) defines ‘learning’ (Bigge 1976: 4)”. As Taube (1961: 2) said, "After all, if the fox twists and turns, so must the hound," the teachers are directly guided by their teachers. But the learners have their roles as well. We cannot make the horse thirsty . . . “only to the degree that a student is willing to think for himself, can he (she) emerge from his studies with something worth while (Bigge 1976:4)”.

However, apart from the educational policy, each and every teacher has his or her own theory of learning. It plays a vital role in his or her teaching. "Everyone who teaches or professes to teach has a theory of learning. However, a teacher is able to describe his theory in explicit terms or he (she) may not . . . So, the important question is not whether a teacher has a theory of learning but rather how tenable it is (Bigge 1976: 5)”. He adds, “. . . many teachers operate in this way and use only a hodgepodge of methods without theoretical orientation. However, this muddled kind of teaching undoubtedly is

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responsible for many of the current adverse criticisms of public opinion.” Hence, the consciousness of the language teacher about the theories is of maximum importance as it helps the teacher to be aware of what and how he is teaching, the persons he is dealing with. After all, students are not puppets. They are human beings. Therefore, the awareness of the teacher eases the process. Quoting Bigge (1976: 14) again, we can say, "Each learning theory represents a more or less comprehensive psychological system or outlook. Or to say this is in another way, each systematic psychological system or basic outlook has its unique approach to learning." Allport (1981: 84) adds, "Theories of learning (like much else in psychology), rest on the investigator's conception of the nature of man. In other words, every learning theorist is a philosopher, though he may not know it. To put the matter more concretely, psychologists who investigate (and theorize about) learning start with some preconceived views of the nature of human motivation." Therefore, one thing is evident that every theory or aim or philosophy is preconceived and they attempt to generalize the matter.

As we already know, teachers can vary from one another according to their personality; students, similarly, can differ from one another. They also possess their own differences according to their age, sex, motivation, attitude, expectation, and socio-economical background. Ellis (1994: 472) presents a lists of factors influencing individual learner differences in language learning in three surveys done by Altman (1980), Skehan (1989) and Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991). He also identifies three sets of interrelated variables related to learners’ belief, affective states and other general factors; learners’ strategies and language learning outcomes. Ellis (1994) also mentions seven factors of individual differences of the learner: beliefs, affective state, age aptitude, learning style, motivation and personality. Bigge (1976: 303) says, "When a person develops a state of tension resulting from unsatisfied need, we say that he is motivated”. He also adds, "Obviously, motivation plays a central role in learning. Consequently a teacher who can keep his students well motivated has won more than half the battle.” Ellis (1994: 508) says, “Language teachers readily acknowledge the importance of

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learners' motivation, not infrequently explaining their own sense of failure with reference to their students' lack of motivation. SLA research also views motivation as a key factor in L2 learning.” However, motivation can be chiefly of two types: integrative and instrumental motivation. In short, Ellis says (1994: 513), "Learners with integrative motivation are more active in class and are less likely to drop out” and " . . . learners with an instrumental reason for learning an L2 can be successful. In some 'second' as opposed to 'foreign' settings, an instrumental orientation may be the most important one. Providing learners with incentives (such as money) may also aid learning by increasing the time learners spend studying, but the effects may cease as soon as the reward stops.” Moskowitz (1978) in (Ellis 1994: 479) says, "Learners, it seems, had to feel secure and to be free of stress before they can focus on the learning task—the important of which is directly acknowledged in humanistic approaches to language teaching." “Anxiety (its presence or absence) is best seen not as a necessary condition of successful L2 learning, but rather as a factor that contributes in differing degrees in different learners (Ellis 1994: 483). " Keefe (1979 in Ellis 1994: 499) defines learning style as:

. . . the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment . . . learning style is a consistent way of functioning that reflects underlying causes of behaviour.

Little and Singleton (1990 in Ellis 1994 : 499) confirm the possibility to help the grown-up "learners to explore their own preferences and to shape their learning approach to suit the requirements of a particular learning task." However, it is not possible to say which learning style works best. In fact, it varies from learners to learners. Learner trainers can make the learners aware of situations and eventually, the learners can find the more effective style than his own previous one.

Learner's personality is important too. The learner can be extrovert or introvert and this fact can affect the learning system. Eysenck and Chan (1982: 154) say,

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“Extroverts are sociable, like parties, have many friends and need excitement; they are sensation-seekers and risk-takers like practical jokes and are lively and active. Conversely introverts are quiet, prefer reading to meeting people, have few but close friends and usually avoid excitement.”

Mistakes are the commonest feature of a language learner at the time of learning. But these mistakes are to be handled properly. Quoting Stephans and Evans (1973: 156), Bigge (1976: 307) says, "A number of studies in the Thorndikean tradition, have been conducted in an attempt to determine whether it is more effective to praise students for what they learn or blame them for what they do not learn. After reviewing these studies, Stephans and Evans decide that the evidence is so conflicting that no definite conclusion can be drawn. “The only conclusion that seems warranted is that either praise or blame is usually more effective in promoting learning than a policy of ignoring the achievement or lack of achievement of students (Stephans and Evans, 1973).” Therefore, the dealings of the students and their mistakes by the teacher are highly important and the teacher must possess a methodology of teaching following, which, he or she would approach. According to Bigge (1976 : 370), "A teacher's program of evaluation not only governs his students' study habits, their manner of interaction in class, and the number and quality of their learning, but it also greatly influences the teaching-learning level upon which their learning efforts proceed." Therefore, a teacher has a greater backwash effect upon the learners. In this regard, Bloom (1963: 392) says, "The point to be emphasized is that type of mental process the students expect to be tested will determinate his method of study and preparation."

Similarly, testing influences the learning system as well. Bigge (1976: 308) says. "Of course, test employed as motivating devices functions primarily as extrinsic motivation. A student's primary goal in such a situation is not to learn the subject content for his own enlightenment but to pass the test. Generally speaking, the frequent and widespread use of tests for other than diagnostic purposes indicates a teacher's commitment to either a mechanistic or a disciplinary psychology."

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Any language course cannot be fully content based; otherwise, the course will fail. We cannot learn a language always metalinguistically. For learning or practising, we have to bring some tasks and also contents supporting the language items. In such case, the material design and its selection have a great influencing role. Cecco and Crawford (1974: 214) say, "Not only is meaningful material more rapidly learned than meaningless material, but also it is remembered for longer periods of time." In the case of a good language course, a good combination of materials is expected.

Citing the White-Lippitt experiments (1960: 51-55, 66 - 80), Bigge (1976: 324) talks about 3 kinds of relationships between a teacher and his students: i) authoritarian, ii) *laissez faire* and iii) democratic. He refers to the above-mentioned experiment where the democrat group could possess the maximum success. In the case of learning, the teacher-student relationship is vital, too. But it does not mean the teacher and the students will possess same roles. In fact, Smith (1994: 12) says, "The most important thing is to keep learning/ acquisition/ development separate from teaching; which is the attempt (usually by others) to make the learners' task easier etc."

The syllabus or curriculum is another factor influencing the teaching-learning system. Krashen (1985) talked about his 'natural order hypothesis' However, supporting Corder (1981) and Mager (1961 : 401-12), Smith (1994 : 24) says, " . . . the L2 learner may well have a 'built-in syllabus'; i. e. an internally programmed sequence for learning various aspects of the target grammar which may or may not coincide with the syllabus imposed on him or her by the teacher. Hence, learners will follow a sequence of development (the in-built syllabus) because of or in spite of, the sequence imposed on them from outside."

However, there is no hard and fast rule that organisation of language materials or items will always follow the 'natural order' nor is there any unanimous universal order of those items. In such a case, a good learner, in stead of being shocked, would try to learn using his or her own strategies. Chamot (1987: 71) says, "Learning strategies are

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techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and central area of information". Rubin (1987 : 19) remarks, ". . . learner strategies include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, rhetorical and use of information." Contrasting learning strategies with teaching strategies, Politzer(1965: 82) says, "Learning strategies are the reverse side of the coin of teaching strategies: a successful learning strategy user has in fact become a successful self-teacher." But the crux of the question is more concretely and lucidly answered by Chamot (1987: 81) when she says, "The fact that students identified as good language learners by teachers do use conscious learning strategies not only in ESL classrooms but also in out of classroom acquisition environments is an indication that teachers could profitably direct students to utilize learning strategies for a variety of language learning activities. Intervention by the teacher could help less able students profit from the strategies used by more able students, and even the more able students could be provided with opportunities to refine and add to their learning strategies so that they became as efficient as possible". "Chamot and O' Malley (1984: 1) further say, ". . . (Language) learning strategy enables students to take command over their learning and to apply procedures that will assist them in retraining and using important skills. Productive use of learning strategies, though, is an acquired skill." But every learner's acquisition of this skill cannot be alike. Hence, learner training is also essential. Brown and Palinscar (1982: 1-17) say. ". . . an ideal training package would consist of both practice in the use of task-appropriate strategies, instructions concerning the significance of those activities and instructions concerning the monitoring and control of strategy use". Language learning strategies aim for learner autonomy and for that reason, before applying that the learner belief has to be investigated as Horwitz (1987: 120) says, "Therefore, knowledge of student beliefs about language learning is an important step toward understanding the etiology of learning strategies." On the other hand Rubin (1987: 15) says, ". . . there is growing interest in defining how learners can take charge of their own learning and in classifying how teaches can help students become more autonomous. She further adds, "Students who use

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effective strategies are better able to work outside the classroom by themselves. Once the teacher is not around to direct them or provide them with input." Hence, effective learner strategy reduces the teacher-dependence and enables the learner to learn using their own capabilities provided they know how to learn or they have learnt to learn.

The classroom is another important factor of language learning. van Lier (1988 : 47) says, the classroom is "the gathering, for a given period of time, of two or more persons (one of whom generally assumes the role of instructor) for the purposes of language learning". Gaies (1980 in Allwright and Bailey 1991) gives a new dimension to classroom, saying, "The classroom is the crucible—the place where teachers and learners come together and language learning, we hope, happens. It happens, when it happens, as a result of the reactions among the elements that go into the crucible—the teachers and the learners." Classroom conception includes classroom interaction, teacher-student relationship, students' seating positions, teacher's lecturing position, communicability, eye contact, etc. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 19) talk about the classroom atmosphere and emphasize it more than syllabus and method. They say, "... most teachers have a good idea of the sort of 'atmosphere' they would like to have in their classrooms, and do their best to plan to set up such an atmosphere (whether they want it to be relaxed and friendly, or brisk and business-like, or whatever)". Quader (1995: 3) says. "To bring about better and faster language learning, the classroom can give rise to interaction, particularly with qualified interlocutors who can give learners good quality input as well as accurate feedback for improvement." She further adds. "In the classroom, the input by the teacher should be as short as possible, allowing more time for students' interaction. Teaching should be devised around tasks where group work should be used extensively. Students should be encouraged to engage in as much interaction as possible in order to practise what they have learnt. The teacher's role here should be supervisory, overseeing that English is used, providing the appropriate word or structure when necessary (P. 18)." "Therefore, teacher's role is interrelated with the classroom (Rahman 1996-97: 5)". Rahman further says, "It is now accepted worldwide that the teacher is the vital

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component in the interactional process, the ultimate key to educational change and improvement". Hence Elbaz (1983: 7) criticizes the traditional pattern which, " specifies that one party (the developer), usually, prompted by the second party (the evaluator), writes objectives and prepare materials for a third party (the student) which almost by the way, are to be evaluated by a fourth party—the teacher. Rahman (1996-07: 6) also logically criticizes, saying, "This view of the teacher's role as an instrument in the curriculum process is simplistic and seriously inadequate considering the fact that teachers are the persons who translate educational concepts into practice and embody the curriculum in classroom event". Breen (1985: 151 in Rahman 1996-97: 35) compares the second language classroom as "coral gardens" that has to be approached with "a socio-cognitive frame of reference which will give access to mutual relationship between social activity and psychological changes." The role of classroom is multi-faceted on the basis of how the ideal of the classroom is turned and linked to L2 learning.

So far, we have tried to discuss and link the previous studies related to the thesis topic and in that case, most of works cited are done by the foreign linguists and researchers. True sometimes, some Bangladeshi researches are also mentioned. However, the above discussion tried to make an account of the second language learning truisms and theoretical base for further study. The following discussion aims to reveal how the local Bangladeshi researches, professors and linguists approach the situation and deals with the L2 learning problems related to the topic of this thesis.

Majid (1999-2000: 73) gives us some important information which represents the L2 situation in Bangladesh quite practically. Her samples are the learners at the Institute of Modern Languages. She says, "61% learners had English grammar explained to them in Bengali all the time." ". . . 36% people always needed extra help (P. 74)" from outside the classroom. ". . . the majority also said that they always rote-learned essays from books (P. 76)." 81% students were dissatisfied with the teaching method (P. 81). They also expected proper guidance from the teachers—an outcome of the close relationship of the teacher-student (P. 85). However, most of them thought to have knowledge in English Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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ranging from 'satisfactory' to 'not bad' (P. 86). But Majid draws our attention to the role of teacher in using the TL in the classroom saying. "The fact that not all learners had much experience in responding in the class in English is less serious than the fact that very little English was being used in the class (P. 87)." Pattison (1987: 15) observed that if the teacher did not use the TL in the classroom, the language becomes to the learners "rather like numbers in a mathematics lesson, a series of ciphers embedded in normal speech. It thus fails to convey to the learner the message that language is something alive and creative that could serve real purposes, instead of something mechanical to be studied only for passing exams." Majid (1999-2000) finally, revealed, "These learners had therefore, very little practice in all the four skills of the language and were dependent largely on the course book and the syllabus, the teacher and the private tutors as the principal means of exposure to English (P. 89)."

In another study, Quader (2000-01) investigates the question of introducing curriculum innovation. Her study surveyed the pre-transitional and post-transitional effect from the grammar-translation method (GTM) to the communicative language teaching (CLT) method. In doing so, she as well revealed so many interesting factors related to learning. Markee (1997 : 47 in Quader (2000-01) says, "Curriculum innovation is : a managed process of development where principal products are teaching (and/ or testing) materials, methodological skills and pedagogical values that are perceived as new by potential adopters." Unless or until, people have a positive notion towards the innovation, it loses its adaptability. Quader (2000-01 : 6) says, "Despite learning English for 1600 hours at the pre-university level, students cannot use English, and have been perceived to be at least six years behind the proficiency necessary to perform at the tertiary level of education." Hence the need for the change of method occurs. She mentioned the English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP) that aimed at communicative language teaching. She (2000-01: 8) said, "They (the teachers) will use the language practically, focusing on its, 'use' rather than 'usage' as they have been doing so that they get over the 'fear of English' that teachers report in all learners. Students should be aware and

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involved in learning. This would be very different from the existing mode of teaching where students sit passively bored as they listen uncomprehendingly to the teacher and later fall back on memorisation for examinations." We find that the examination system plays an influencing role in learning in Bangladesh. And, as she said about the teachers' duties, she also mentioned that the teacher could not do it alone. A teacher does not enjoy much liberty in taking decision about learning. Qudaer (2000-01: 7) said, "Here in Bangladesh, it would be the teacher in the classroom, the person who has autonomy over the classroom processes. But the person is inextricably bound to the role culture since the teacher works within the hierarchical system of the school, the head teacher, the other teachers, the syllabus, the larger society of parents and students." Therefore, the teacher is at the centre of power and of the more powerful surroundings at the same time in Bangladesh.

Quader reveals some interesting factors related to the teaching condition in Bangladesh. She reveals that syllabus completion is more essential to the learners and their guardians than learning the language. Examinations are given maximum priority. She also mentions, ". . . some senior teachers (who did not welcome change) told them that English was the language of Christian foreigners. If the students used English to talk to people, they would not remain good Muslims any more: they would become Christians (P. 12)". In this regard one head master (in Quader, 2000-01: 14) said, "Teaching language without teaching grammar first is never going to succeed." We can easily realise Markee's statement that innovation in language learning will not work if people do not expect change to happen.

In a study, Rahman (1987) presents an overall condition of the Bangladeshi learning condition. He (1987: 53) says, learning has some variables that are "student characteristics, teacher competence, classroom conditions and materials used." About each of these variables in Bangladesh, he presents his revelation. About the students, he says, "Most of the students at the primary and secondary levels of education are not well-motivated because of lack of success in learning English and of their inability to see any

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immediate implication of what they are learning”. About the teachers, he says, 50% primary and secondary school teachers do not have any professional training. Their command of English is poor and oral proficiency is quite poor. Teachers are unaware of modern methods of language teaching. About the classroom condition, he (1987) reveals, "classrooms at most schools and colleges are ill planned. There are usually a blackboard, a chair and a table for the teacher and a few benches for the students. Six or seven students are huddled together on one single bench. The rooms are not spacious and do not permit any movement for any language activity. The usual number of the students in any class at the schools level is 50; at the college it may well exceed 300.” So, he (1987: 54) comments “. . . on the one hand we have bad working conditions, untrained teachers and inadequate teaching materials; on the other, we have students with low motivation and unfavorable learning situations. This contributes to inefficient learning. It is difficult to think of any methodology that would work in such a situation." His final comment (1987: 54) is "A new development does not entirely supercede what proceeded; it co-exists or is adapted in such a way that we can see old practices in a new light of language." However, he also says, students hardly use NCTB textbook; a few students use dictionary or other supplementary texts. The classroom wall is bare and the teachers mostly use no teaching aids. Hence, we find all the variables of the learning process are inappropriately prepared in Bangladesh. In this regard, we can say, Selim's (1987: 64 - 78) findings of these four variables completely match with Rahman's findings. He further mentioned that the teachers were teaching privately and students were interested in using notebooks more than the textbook.

Stewart (1962 in Haque 1987) suggests seven functions of language in a society including official, group, wider communication, educational, literary, religious and technical, and further elaborates these terms. Haque (1987: 4 - 5) says, "Other than the purposes of religion and use within a particular community, English is needed in Bangladesh for all purposes listed by Stewart." McGinly (1983) wrote, "In the case of Bangladesh; unless something is done to shove up English language standards within the

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country, the tradition of its widespread use at fairly high level of competence will die out; something Bangladesh cannot take lightly, as facility in English is one of the things that makes its educational product (doctors, teachers etc), so marketable, especially in the oil-rich countries of the Middle-East, where English is valued". The situation has not changed rather expanded as we are now exporting garment products, shrimps, vegetables, medicine and necessary objects and the need for English using manpower is at its highest peak now. We have no other way but to learn English and to learn it without failure.

Stevens (1978: 181 in Salah, 1983: 41) talks about four principle components for improvement in language learning/teaching process: the learner, the teacher, the community and the language teaching profession. To him, the community consists of 'the public will' and 'administration and organization'. He also mentions that the profession has its own ethics and professionalism. As for the learners and the learning system, Corder (1977 in Salah, 1983: 39) says, unacceptable or inappropriate utterances hinder the learner from communicating adequately with other members of that community. The learner thus avoids communication due to the fear of failure to fulfil his ends, his failure to interact or be misunderstood, as well as the fear of giving an offence or making himself ridiculous." Salah (1987: 39) mentions the social factor saying. "Focus on the dimension led to an enhanced concern with the role of the learner, his needs, attitudes and motivation, personality, and his learning strategies and styles". She further accounts, for the shift from the teacher-centered to student-centered methodologies that took place in the 70's; several innovative methods emerged favouring the learners and focusing them. La Farge (1975: 10) says, "The students enjoy a democratic friendly atmosphere free from dominance, which encourages them to engage in receptive rather than defensive learning."

Therefore, we find, according to modern concept of language learning, learners are the most important variables on which the focus should be. On the other hand, in Bangladesh, we have a lot of shortcomings in implementing all the essential conditions needed for the variables of learning to work together unanimously and successfully.

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Learning is like a film, making the success of which, depends on the proper manipulation of skill or merit of all the crews, but it is the actors, like the learners, who are in the focus, sharing the praise and enjoying the clapping of the audience.

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Chapter-3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This research tries to discover the causes of the secondary students' failure in learning English in Bangladesh. The researcher became interested in this study because a lot of students fail in English every year. They cannot be called weak students as their results in other subjects are excellent. But their only failure in one subject causes them to lag behind. Hence, the finding of the causes can initiate a change in the curriculum, teaching techniques, content selection and most importantly the methodology of teaching in bringing about a positive change. Hence, the researcher intended to make an investigation of the teaching-learning situation of English in Bangladesh.

3.2 Purpose of the empirical investigation

The aims and objectives of the empirical investigation of this dissertation are to study and discover the actual causes of students' failure in learning English at the secondary level and to analyze them in order to find out the solution. For this purpose, an empirical investigation of the likings and dislikings of students; beliefs, mentalities, experiences, achievements of teachers, attitudes of guardians, teaching learning environments, and teaching techniques, were considered as all these factors are related to both the language teaching and language learning situation. The results of the discovery can change the teaching learning situation positively and students can be successful in learning English.

3.3 Research question

This research had three research questions. They are:

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1. What is the objective of the secondary students behind learning English?
2. Why do they fail in English?
3. How does it affect their learning and results?

Reasons for these questions are based on the following facts:

1. Positive attitude enhances language learning ;
2. Motivation plays a significantly useful role behind language learning ;
3. Awareness about the subject learnt helps form and build the right kind of attitude towards learning it ;
4. Learning environment facilitates learning.

3.4 Research hypothesis

Students at secondary level are unable to learn English successfully because of their fear of learning English. They consider it a difficult subject. They do not see any benefit in learning it. They do not have the right kind of attitude towards learning English. Their main goal is, not to learn, but to pass the exam only. Yet they do not perform successfully. The research is based on the hypothesis that if right kind of attitude can be formed, students will be able to come out with successful results – i.e. they will be able to learn English.

3.5 Methodology of the empirical investigation

The nature and purpose of this study matches with those at a descriptive study. Considering this fact the survey method was chosen for the empirical study. Three main techniques of the survey method—questionnaire survey, interview and observation-- were adopted for the study. Therefore, the methods for data collection employed for the

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study were – 1) Students’ Questionnaire Survey, 2) Students’ Interview, 3) Teachers’ Questionnaire, 4) Teachers’ Interview 5) Guardians’ Interview, and 6) Classroom Observation. These methods being kept in mind, instruments for the dissertation were designed and administered with care.

In this research, data were collected from different sources through the use of different methods for corroborating the findings. Particularly, the questionnaire survey, interview and observation methods were used for the survey to ensure triangulation and to enhance the accuracy, authenticity, validity and reliability of the data collected.

3.6 Instruments used for the empirical investigation

The instruments used in this study include - 1) Questionnaire for Students, 2) Questionnaire for Teachers and 3) A Classroom Observation Schedule. However, interviews of students and teachers were taken in the light of responses to the respective questionnaires. Interviews of the guardians were taken on the basis of their opinions and reflections on the subject-matter. Hence, the interviews of the teachers and the students were semi-guided whereas those of the guardians were freer in type.

3.7 Construction of the instruments used for the empirical investigation

The instruments used in the research were constructed in accordance with the purposes of the study. As the main objectives of this dissertation are to reveal the causes of failure of the learning system, the empirical study attempted to investigate the present factors related to the teaching–learning system of English in Bangladesh. In this regard, several books on research methodology in English language teaching, education, sociology and psychology were consulted. Besides, some instruments were modeled on previous instruments used by other researches in similar kinds of research.

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In constructing the questionnaires, the intelligibility of the statements used in the questionnaires was taken into consideration because the students were to answer them. Questionnaires for teachers were prepared in such a way that they would not cause any confusion or misunderstanding. Sometimes, questions in both the questionnaires – the students’ and the teachers’ – were the same and sometimes different depending on their relevance. However, difficult words and technical terms were avoided and if used, they were explained. Before administering the questionnaires, the instruments were piloted and necessary changes were made.

3.8 Detailed description and discussion of the students’ questionnaire

The students’ questionnaire includes two sections. There are 23 statements. Description of the two sections is given here.

3.8.1 Section –I: Personal information

It is a brief section for collecting the personal details of respondents. The personal details include name, age, and the name of the school and class status of the respondents. The date of the survey is also included in this section.

3.8.2 Section-II: Students’ beliefs, choices, opinions, achievements, experiences and expectations regarding learning English

This section includes 23 questions. They were set to gather information about students’ beliefs, choices, opinions- achievements, experiences and expectations regarding the learning of English and various factors related to them.

Of the 23 questions, questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 12, 16, 17, 21 and 22 are concerned with the students’ personal beliefs, choices, experiences, opinions and expectations. Questions 5, 15, 18 and 19 are set regarding the role of the teacher in the classroom.

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Questions 6, 13 and 14 are about the text book, and questions 22 and 23 are about the classroom situation. Of the 23 questions only 7 questions are ‘closed’ and the others are ‘open’. However, some open questions were constructed to ascertain their real opinions rather than confining them with any presumed options and some open ended questions were entailments of previous questions.

Questions were constructed on the basis of the research topic and the aims of the research. The questionnaire was constructed to investigate the actual practical situation of learning English at the secondary level in Bangladesh.

3.9 Detailed description and discussion of the teachers’ questionnaire

The teachers’ questionnaire includes two sections. There are 22 questions in this questionnaire. Description of the two sections is given here.

3.9.1 Section-I : Personal information

It is a brief section, which describes the personal details of the respondents. The personal details include name, age, the name of the school, job duration, educational qualifications, information about their training in ELT and details of their training. The date of the survey is also included in this section.

3.9.2 Section – II: Teachers’ beliefs, choices, opinions, achievements, experiences and expectations regarding learning English

This section includes 22 questions but the first three questions are for information about the teacher. Therefore, the rest of the questions i.e. 19 – are set to gather information about the teachers’ beliefs, opinions, choices, achievements, experiences, expectations and activities regarding the teaching-learning of English and various factors related to them.

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Of the 19 questions, questions 4 and 5 reveal the opinions of the teachers on the results of the students. Questions 6, 7, 12 and 13 are concerned with classroom activities of teachers. Questions 8, 9, 10, 11 17 and 22 are related to the textbook. Questions 14, 15, 16, 17 and 22 are set on the basis of the objectives of the learners and the textbook. However, questions 19 and 20 are set on the class room situation whereas questions 20 and 21 are set on the number of the students. Of the 19 questions, only 3 questions are 'closed' and the rest 16 are 'open'. However, more 'open' questions were constructed to obtain the opinion of teachers rather than confining them to any presumed opinions. Some open ended questions are entailments of the previous questions.

3.10.1 Instruments for students' and teachers' interview

The same questionnaires used for students and teachers were used in the oral interviews. There some more important questions were emphasized and some other issues were discussed as they came in course of the discussion. The interviews were semi-guided.

3.10.2 Instruments for guardians' interview

Guardians were asked similar types of questions that were included in both the questionnaires. However, their general opinions on English, its teaching and learning, the text book, the teaching method, the learning objectives were discussed.

3.11 Instruments for classroom observation

A classroom observation schedule (see appendix–III) was made for observing classrooms. It includes statements on various aspects of teaching and learning English in the classroom. It also includes statements on teacher's role and students' participation. The main points considered for classroom observation are number of the students, size and condition of the classroom, medium of interactions of the students, method of teaching used in the classroom, classroom activities, teaching of the basic language

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skills, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, lesson aids, standard of the English used and so on.

3.12 Sampling plan

In this study, the cluster sampling method was used because same curriculum, syllabus, textbooks and teaching methods are followed in all secondary schools except English medium schools. However, in all districts, the number of the government schools is less than the number of non-government schools. Hence, any district of the country can be considered a microcosm of the whole country.

In this study, Khulna was chosen only because it was convenient for the researcher to conduct the research there. Three schools were visited—one from the urban area, one from the semi-urban and one from the rural area. The English medium schools were not included in this study as they were not representative of the mainstream of the secondary educational system of Bangladesh.

For the questionnaire survey and interview of the students, the students of class ten were particularly chosen because they were at the final stage of the secondary level and they were mature enough to express their problems more specifically. However, these respondents were chosen from the Arts background because in Bangladesh, generally weaker students take arts And Humanities as their major at the secondary level whereas the stronger students choose Science or Commerce streams. As for teachers, an attempt was made to choose two teachers from each school: one, experienced and the other young.

3.12.1 Sampling plan for students' questionnaire survey of students

Three types of schools were chosen from three types of areas for the questionnaire survey of the students. The survey was conducted on 70 students. However, to avoid the gender factor, the researcher chose only girls' schools. A detailed list of the schools

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chosen and the number of students selected for responding to students' questionnaire survey are presented in table 3.1.

Category of Schools	Name of the School	Students Present in the Class	Actual Number of Students	Percentage (%)
Urban School	Govt. Coronation Secondary Girl's school	33	35	94.2
Semi-Urban School	Daulatpur Muhsin Secondary Girls' school	27	33	81.8
Rural School	RRGGT Miloni Girls' High School	10	22	45.4

Table- 3.1: A detailed list of the schools and numbers of students selected for students' questionnaire survey

3.12.2 Sampling plan for students' interview

For interview, the same survey questionnaire was used. Discussion with the same students took place. In this section, they gave some more information, not thought of earlier. However, sometimes, they tried to give answers in English but most of the time, they spoke in Bangla.

3.12.3 Sampling plan for teachers' questionnaire survey

The teachers' questionnaire survey was conducted on 6 teachers selected from the three schools. As mentioned earlier, teachers were selected randomly only on the basis

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of experience. One from the young teachers and one from the experienced teachers were chosen.

3.12.4 Sampling plan for teacher's interview

The same teachers were interviewed on the basis of the same questions. But in the interview some newer information came out. Interestingly, sometimes, other English teachers, who were not respondents of the survey questionnaire, took part in the interview and contributed as well.

3.12.5 Sampling plan for guardians' interview

Fifteen guardians were interviewed separately. Each of them was selected from different schools. They were randomly selected as well.

3.12.6 Sampling plan for classroom observations

Classroom observation was done in all the three schools. Six lessons by the six responding teachers were observed. The same observation schedule was used in every observation.

3.13 Administration of the empirical work

The empirical investigation was conducted according to the sampling plan of this study. Brief accounts of the administration process of the empirical investigation i.e. administration of the students' questionnaire survey and their interviews, those of the teachers, interviews of the guardians and finally classroom observations are presented here.

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3.13.1 Administration of the students' questionnaire survey and interview

After taking the permissions of the concerned English language teachers and the heads of selected schools, the date and time of the survey and interview were fixed. Following the schedule, schools were visited and an introductory speech on this study was given. Questionnaires were given to the students and classified and explained for their convenience in Bangla. Questionnaires were collected after the answers were given. Then some questionnaires were read and the students were asked for further clarification. Some more information came out and the researcher took notes. The interview section began and proceeded thus.

3.13.2 Administration of the teachers' questionnaire survey and interview

The teachers' questionnaire survey was conducted through personal contact with them. Most of the questionnaires were handed to them and collected after some days. At the time of collection, some questions were asked to them again, and they gave some new information that the researcher noted down. Sometimes, the heads of the institutions were English language teachers and hence their interviews and responses were taken. During the interview, some other interested teachers made their valuable comments as well.

3.13.3 Process of classroom observation

Classroom observation was done in 6 six lessons of six different teachers who were the respondents of the survey. For this, their permission and the permission of the heads of the schools were taken. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom and filled in the classroom observation schedule and check list.

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3.14 Processing and analyzing data

Most of the questions set in the questionnaires were administered to collect qualitative data as the paper basically attempts to analyse opinions and views of the people involved; the number of respondents is not considered to be important. However, some closed questions were asked and the results are presented quantitatively. Qualitative data are discussed and analyzed elaborately.

3.15 Limitations

While conducting the research, the researcher personally faced many problems. The institutions did not want to allow the researcher even though the researcher tried his best to make them understand. When the survey needed for the research was conducted, students were nearly at the end of their academic year and they were busy with their preparations for the test examination. Furthermore, the researcher had to hurry as the regular academic activities of the schools were affected by series of religious vacations and political unrest in the country. Hence, the number of students was sometimes less in schools on the day of the survey. Despite these difficulties, the researcher tried his best to maintain the validity and reliability of the research and hence, every detail is provided. However, some more schools could be visited but the ongoing circumstances did not allow the researcher to go for that.

3.16 Conclusion

This chapter presents the design and administration of the research work. It provides the details of the sampling plan, questionnaire construction, questionnaire administration and survey, interviews, classroom observation and the method of data collection and analysis. Research questions and hypothesis are also mentioned to show the relevance of the activities of the research to its objectives.

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Chapter – 4

Results of the Empirical study

4.1 Introduction

The research instruments being prepared, necessary data were gathered through them for empirical analysis and field work was done as well. All the instruments prepared for collecting data are completely in harmony with the objectives of this study. The results are discussed and analyzed in detail here. First, the results of students' questionnaire survey and interviews are presented here. As for the students' questionnaire survey, analysis is done according to the questions whereas the summary and recovery information of the students' interviews are reported as the researcher took notes of important information. Similarly, the results of teachers' questionnaire survey and interview are presented. In the case of their presentation and analysis, the design of the students' questionnaire survey and their interviews followed the same procedure. Guardians' interviews are summed up and important notes jotted down from there are presented. Finally, the results of the classroom observation are presented.

4.2 Results of students' questionnaire survey and interview

There were 23 questions in the students' questionnaire of which 7 questions were closed and the rest are open-ended. 70 students took part in the survey and they were interviewed. Of them, 10 students were from rural area; 27 from semi-urban and 33 from urban area. In the urban school 93% of the students passed in English whereas in the semi-urban school, 44% students passed and in the rural school the rate of passing is 70%. The data that I got from question No.2 shows that the highest marks in the examination vary from school to school. It is presented in the following table:

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Rural school	Highest marks	Lowest marks	% of passing
Rural	43%	25%	70
Semi-urban	60%	05%	44
Urban	76%	21%	93

Therefore, we see that the highest number is from the urban school whereas the lowest one is from the rural school. But that is close to the marks of the semi-urban students; however, the highest number of the urban school is more distinctive from those of the other two types of schools. In the case of the highest marks, the urban school is at the top as well and the rural school is at the bottom. Here, there is a greater difference between the marks of the urban and the rural school.

In answer to the question No.3, most students of all the schools gave similar types of answer. “English is very hard.” Only 10 students from the three schools said that English was ‘a bit hard.’ Question 4 presents the cause why students think English hard or a bit hard. Except those 10 students, all students said that English was hard because of its grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation. One student said, it was hard for lack of regularity in study”, when another said, “English is not my mother language. So all time I cannot practise it. So its grammatical skill [sic] is difficult for me.” However, of those 10 students, one said, “I think English is not a very hard subject. Because if I read and learn that properly, it will be very easy.” Three of them said, “I am interested in English.”

Question No.5 has two parts. The first part is of closed type and the second part is an open ended question. 80% students said that the teacher helped them with extra-work. About 18% of them did not express their opinions. Only one student said that the teacher did not help them with extra work. However, a similarity was found in the answers that the students gave for the second part of the question. The things that most of students refer to as extra work are dialogues, reading; paragraph, letter , essay and letter writing; story telling, debating, doing role-play, pair work, discussion with others , summary

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writing; home task and memorization. All these things were mentioned by the students from all types of schools.

Question No.6 is on the textbook and almost all the students except 2 expressed their liking for the book. The following comments will present the general opinion about the book:

“It is a suitable book according to age, class and time. It is essential to study it. It plays an important role in maturing merit.”

“It is a good book. The stories seems [sic] realistic to us. They please us.”

The two students who did not like the book said that the book was hard and they could not understand the meaning.

Question No.8 is supplementary to the previous question. It is a closed question. All the students except one expressed their liking for the textbook directly. Only one student did not pass any comments though the book was hard for the two students.

Question No.9 and 10 are about their attitude towards learning English. Question No.9 is a closed question. The answers of the question No.9 are presented below:

Category/Responses	Yes	No	No Comments
Rural School	1	8	01
Semi-urban school	21	02	04
Urban School	19	12	02

Therefore, 58.57% students are afraid of learning English. 31.4% students are not afraid of learning it and 8.57% students did not pass any comments. One thing is notable here that 80% of the rural students are not afraid of learning of English and the rate of their

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passing is 70%. In the Urban school, the rate of passing is 93% though only 36.37% students are not afraid of learning English and the majority is afraid of learning it. So it has become difficult to find any connection between success of language learning and negative attitude towards learning language.

Those who are not afraid of learning English reveals the reasons making the following remarks:

“There is nothing impossible for man. I think I can do better in English”.

“Because I want to learn and it’s essential for us”.

“Because, if I understand it, then it will be easy for me and I want to learn English.”

“Because I like this subject and I think practice makes a man perfect”.

“I think I could learn the minimum grammar of English that are needed. So there is no need to be afraid of”

“English is easy if we know the rules and the word meanings.”

Those who are afraid of learning English reveals the reasons, saying the following remarks:

“Because we cannot understand English rules.”

“It is a foreign language. So we are afraid of it. We don’t know meaning. We can’t spell and pronounce. We don’t know grammar.”

“I can it remember.”

“I think it is very hard.”

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Question no.11 is about learners' self-confidence. 92.85% students believe that they can do better results and 7.41% students did not pass any comments. This shows their doubt but none directly said they could not do better results.

Question no.12 is a supplementary question to the previous one. Here, a similarity in answer is found, too. The answers are like self-advice or auto-suggestion. They are presented below:

We have to –

- Spend more time ;
- Emphasize grammar;
- Do more exercises;
- Read and write a lot;
- Try their best ;
- Know the meaning of words;
- Know the pronunciation.

In answer to question no.13, most students said that they liked the textbook for its stories and biographies. They liked its pictures, tables, dialogues, true/false exercise, Mina's story, tables and realistic adventures. On the other hand, in answer to question no. 14, most students said that they disliked some items of the text book i.e. fill-in-gaps, poems, some diagrams, pictures, some boring items, tables, some chapters like junk food, re-arrangements of sentences, preposition, Feroza's story and difficult vocabulary. However, one student said, "stories are realistic and we often know them. Those are boring to read" Another student said, "Nothing in the text book is uninteresting".

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Sometimes, one item is not liked by a student but this can be taken as a matter of personal choice. This is not the general picture.

Question no.15 is on teaching method. An average picture is found from the students' answers. The gist of them is – the teacher teaches the textbook and then discusses grammar. Sometimes, pair work, role play, group work and conversation are done. Some students do not like their teaching in Bangla and some students do not like their teaching in English. Most teachers hurry up in the classroom and their class is brief. However, two remarks of the two students are mentionable and they are quite contrary to each other.

1. “There is no fault in present teaching system. We can learn English in this system properly” – a semi-urban student.
2. “Our teaching system is not developing” – an urban student.

As for question no.16, students' responses showed that their expectations were more result-oriented. They emphasized grammar and completing lessons most. Then they would like to play some language games. Some of them wanted to do some tasks like grammar tasks, story writing, doing role-plays, memorization, debate etc. One student said, “Subjects can be taught with amusement.”

While answering question no.17, students said they could sometimes, use the language practically, and sometimes, they could not. One student said that, they could write, read, speak, but could not listen and understand. Another student said, “I understand English a bit but I can't understand long sentences.” So, their expectations are not met.

Question No.18 reflects their expectations from the teacher. 57.14% students said that the teachers tried to improve their skills. But, in the case of the urban students, 27 of 33 students said that teachers do not try to improve these skills whereas all the rural

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students said that the teachers did. Hence it is evident either the performances of the rural teachers are different from those of the urban teachers or the expectations of the urban students are different from those of the rural students.

Two types of answers are found for question no.19. Those who said positively, said that the teacher taught them how to speak, converse; how to write and read. But they did not say anything about listening skill. On the other hand, some students replied negatively. They said that they expected their teacher to teach according to their opinions. Some of them expected the use of English always because thus they could develop their speaking and listening.

Question no.20 is about their attitude again. Most of them said that they had practised more for the skill-development; they were to watch cartoons, read newspapers, study grammar and know the meaning of words. While they were answering question no.21, some of them said that the teacher should use interesting techniques. He or she should inspire and should not frighten; he or she should give more time. They also said that their own labour, dedication and attempt were needed. They wanted a combination of all these things to eliminate their fear of learning English. However, one said that the teacher must behave well with them.

Question no.22 and 23 are about the classroom situation. The first one is a closed question. 67.14% students liked the classroom situation. All the rural and the semi-urban students excluding one semi-urban student liked their classroom situation but 18 of the 33 urban students did not like it and 4 of them did not pass any remarks. Only 11 students liked it. While answering question no.23, the rural students said – classroom situation was very good. It was cool. There was a good flow of air, good light, and no outside noise.

The semi-urban students liked their classroom for similar reasons. But the urban students did not like their classroom because –

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- Here the girl's thinking is low.
- If we talk in English, Other girls laugh.
- System of our classroom is not good.
- It is little.
- Teacher's talking is boring.

So, by the classroom situation the rural and the semi-urban students understood the physical factors, location etc. whereas the urban girls had a different interpretation.

When the students were interviewed regarding those questions, most of them kept silent as they thought they had to speak in English. But when they were allowed to speak in Bangla, they became interested. The data collected here were similar to the data gathered through the survey. Only one thing was more evident that they study English mostly to get marks though they knew its importance. Their purpose of learning was highly instrumental as they presently did not find any situation where English was necessary. Some students came to the classroom with their guidebooks. Some students also acknowledged that they did not have the textbook. They only read guidebooks. Most of them went to private tutors (in most cases, the school teachers were the private tutors) to learn English better as they thought the school-based teaching was not sufficient for them. One student expressed her interesting remark saying that, the same teachers taught English better when they taught them privately than when they taught in the classroom.

4.3 Results of the teachers' questionnaire survey and interview

There are 22 questions in the teachers' questionnaire of which 4 questions are closed and the rest are open-ended. Six teachers took part in the survey and they along with some other English teachers were interviewed. According to the school category that

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is followed in this research e.g. rural, semi-urban and urban, two teachers from each category took part in the questionnaire survey.

In answer to question no.1, it is found that all the teachers except the rural teachers are M.A.'s in English. Question no.2 reveals that all of them received some training in English language teaching. Question No.3 reveals the type of the training that they received. The rural teachers got more training from ELTIP and BRAC when one of the semi-urban teachers and one of the urban teachers received ELTIP training. The rest two received training of 1 and 2 weeks at NAEM.

While answering question no.4, almost all the teachers said that they students' results were "not satisfactory" One of them further added, "... most of the examinees have no skill-based knowledge of English." However, only one teacher from the rural school, said, "I think the results of the students in English are good. Because at present most of the secondary schools follow the communicative systems [sic]."

When their opinions about the reason for doing so were asked in question No.5, they mentioned different things, some of which are noted below:

- a) "They are lacking in four skills "
- b) "Most of them suffer from English fear "
- c) "The syllabus itself is faulty "
- d) "Lack of skilled teachers "
- e) "They are not learning and being taught and tested properly "
- f) "I think lack of fundamental knowledge in English is one of the main reasons. Lack of practice, environment of teaching and frequent changing of syllabus affect the learning [sic]"

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Only one teacher said that students would be benefited much if the training received by the teachers was implemented.

All teachers said that they helped students with extra work while they were answering question no.6. Question no.7 is supplementary to question no.6 and all had similar kinds of answers of which one is quoted below:

I try my best to take the class in CLT method. Through this method, I frequently involve them to develop their four skills. It includes describing pictures or events, story felling, dialogue making, fill in the gaps, paragraph and composition writing, rearranging etc.”

However, one teacher said that he, sometimes, took extra classes beyond school time.

Questions 8, 9, 10 and 11 are about the textbook. In answer to question no.8, the two rural teachers expressed their satisfaction with the textbook. One of the semi-urban teachers said that the class hour was very short in relation to the textbook. Another teacher directly said, “The textbook, especially for class IX and X is not suited for developing the four skills.” However, both the urban teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the textbook saying, not in conformity with the classroom environment.” Therefore, 50% of them liked the textbook. (However, none of them liked the idea of teaching English without a textbook which happened in the case of English.

For question No.9, 66% of the respondents expressed their comments. They wanted to add some other items. One of them said, “In testing stories, poems, grammatical items, sentence patterns with sufficient examples and practices should be included in their syllabus.” Another teacher emphasized the proper use of the book.

Different answers came out from the question no.11. Two answers of the rural teachers emphasized the proper use of the textbook and the role of the trained teachers to use it. Another semi-urban teacher said that the book should be planned according to the

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learners' need but then the teacher might face problem whereas the second teacher partly emphasized the four skills of the language. Both the urban teachers expressed their partial satisfaction with the success of the book in emphasizing the four skills.

While answering question 12 , all the teachers said that they taught new words, spellings, sentence patterns, speaking, writing, asking questions and living answers, vocabulary through pair work, group work and elicitation techniques. However, one of them said, “ ...before examination, I help them pass or cross the examination.”

In answer to question no.13, the urban teacher said that their classroom activities to be skill focused. One of the two semi-urban teachers said that four skills are not always focused. Another teacher vitally remarked, “Skill focused at the beginning of the term but result oriented before the examination. The mentality of the students and guardians force me to do so.”

While answering question no.14, most of the teachers said that skill-based learning, method-based teaching, good preparation of the teacher and the students, combined efforts of the teachers and the students—all these can help them do better results. However, one teacher talked about arranging more mock-tests.

Teachers suggested group work, mutual cooperation, activity based techniques, introduction of practical examination could help them do better results while they were answering the supplementary question numbered 15. One teacher emphasized learning vocabulary, grammatical rules, sentence patterns and words and structures.

All the teachers said that the prime motivation of the students to learn English was “to pass the exam” and it is instrumental. However, the next question tries to reveal the objective of the textbook. All the teachers said that it was to teach the students to use language practically and to develop the four skills.

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Question no.18 is about the classroom situation and the next question is supplementary to that. Only 2 teachers were satisfied with the classroom situation because of proper ventilation and traditional seating conditions. They also proudly referred to the atmosphere of the classroom and of students. However, the other four teachers did not like the classroom situation because of so many students and lack of place. One of the rural teachers said that there were no electricity and fans during summer. They also said that the objections of the book could not be fulfilled in such a condition.

Question no.20 is about the number of the students and 21, is about how the number affects the teaching learning situation. In the rural school, the number of students was about 23 and the teacher could take care of all of them. In the urban schools, the number was about 70 and both the teachers showed their inability to take care of all students and to engage them in activities. In the semi-urban school, the number was about 60. It influenced the class negatively. One of them said, “Absolutely it influences because pair work and group work and monitoring are not being [sic] possible to practise in the class.”

The final question is about the objectives of the book and if they tie up with the motivation of students of learning English. In answer, the rural teachers said that the objectives of the book were not completely fulfilled and “motivation is not always proper.” They also said, “The objectives of book can be successful if all the trained teachers use the method of teaching to improve our English.” One of the semi-urban teachers said:

Most of the students and teachers do not use the textbook in the class. They use model questions from guidebooks to pass and get good marks in the exam because questions are normally being set from the guide books available in the market.

Therefore, students’ motivation gets priority over the objectives of the textbook. Another teacher expressed some interesting remarks:

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I. Government policy is to help the Ss to learn English at the communicative level.

II. Students want to learn at an advanced level so that they can go for high education. So, the tie is not made.”

However, both the urban teachers just wrote, “too much” while answering this question., When asked for further clarification, they said, the objectives of the book are too much to attain.

Therefore, it is found that the tie between the objectives of the book and students’ motivation is not made. Moreover, the book is not properly used as well.

While these six teachers were interviewed, it was found that all of them were engaged in teaching privately. Just after the pre-test examination, guidebooks are used instead of the text book. Sometimes, the schools suggested some particular guidebooks for commercial purposes. Instead of language learning, business related to that is getting priority.

4.4 Results of the guardians’ interview

About 15 guardians were interviewed. They were selected from all the three areas. Several points were noted during the interview and discussion with them. They are presented below:

The new book is not good. A student can never learn English without grammar. This book can be used to teach English to native students.

This book is good for getting marks. But students are not learning much. They cannot write properly nor can they translate any Bangla sentence.

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English is not so easy that so many students will get more than 60% marks. Previously, only some good students got high marks and they learned English excellently.

Children never watch English movies or listen to English news. They do not speak in English. As it is easy for them to get good marks in English only through the textbook and guidebooks, they only read them.

Teachers are busy teaching at coaching centres. In schools, they quickly finish the lesson but at coaching centres, they take much care.

English is a difficult subject. If they can pass, it's enough.

My daughter is getting more than 70% marks. Her knowledge of English is excellent.

(The above sentences are translations done by the researcher)

Therefore, it is found that the guardians want good performances from their children. By performance, they understand the results, and by the results or marks, they often think their children have learnt. However, none of them liked the new book. They have a lot of complaints against teachers and their teaching system. Some of them praised the opportunity of getting good marks and some of them did not. They were also conscious of the fact that their children were getting marks some how, but they were unable to learn the language in a real sense. Yet, marks were most important to them despite their criticism of the book, and tradition of getting high marks.

4.5 Results of the classroom observation schedule

Classes were observed. In most cases, the lessons of the book were taught in English. Only grammar was taught in Bangla. Students hardly talked in English. They

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only uttered their memorised lessons. However, the teacher-student ratio was not ideal. In most cases, it was more than 1:40.

Teachers did not use any audio-visual materials. They did not use any teaching aids or handouts other than the textbook or the guidebooks. The teaching method was GTM in most cases. Sometimes, teachers used CLT method according to the direction of the textbook. No variation in teaching method was found. All the teachers took their classes traditionally. The classroom was teacher-dominated. Interaction was lesson-based. Only a few activities took place. Pair work and group work were found sometimes. Teachers' own English was not good and their pronunciation was not correct. Skills were not focused; instead, lessons were followed traditionally. Therefore, students were unable to develop language skills. Grammar was taught through lecturing and doing exercisers.

4.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the results of the data collected have been presented, analysed and discussed elaborately. The findings of this study form the basis of the discussions of the present practices of teaching and learning English at the secondary level in Bangladesh. In the next chapter the findings are presented more concisely and precisely, and sometimes recommendations are made.

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Chapter-5

Conclusion

In this research, I have studied and observed several factors related to the learning of English by students at the secondary level in Bangladesh. In addition, I have also tried to learn about teaching methods, teaching/learning materials, classroom situations, learners' expectations and guardians' expectations and a few other things related to them. The findings regarding students are summed up below:

- Most students think English is hard;
- Urban students get high marks;
- The passing rate of urban students is higher than those of the rural and semi-urban students;
- Most students say, teachers help them with their extra work;
- Most students like their text books and the items therein, although some items are not liked by students and hence, some modifications could be done;
- Most students are afraid of learning English. But it is not clear whether negative attitude or factors play an important role behind learning the language as is shown previously because fewer rural students are afraid of learning English and comparatively a higher number of urban students are afraid of learning it. But the urban students' results are better than those of the rural students;
- Most of the students are confident that they can learn it and they know what to do to learn it properly;
- Teaching methods are not liked;
- Teachers often frighten them while teaching and this is an example why the secondary students are not motivated to learn this language;
- Students like result-oriented activities;
- All students are unable to use the four skills of language equally well;

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- Sometimes students say that teachers do not behave well;
- Students expect much from the teacher; they are somewhat dependent on the teachers and the teachers do not do anything to make them independent as they have their own business regarding that. However, the students are not motivated to work hard as well;
- Except most of the urban students, all students liked the classroom situation;
- they are used to guide books and private tutors;
- All their teachers have private teaching centres.

On the other hand, I got some more information from the teachers, which are summed up below:

- Most teachers are somewhat trained;
- Mostly they are dissatisfied with the students' results;
- They are well aware of their duties;
- They help students with extra work;
- Only two rural teachers liked the textbook but the rest did no;
- None liked the idea of teaching English without a text book as is the case in English, second paper—a part of the course plan;
- They wanted modifications of the book as per learners' needs;
- Classroom performances are mostly result-oriented;
- They teach to use language practically;
- They prefer activities in the classroom;
- Most teachers did not like the classroom situation;
- The number of students affects learning;
- Objectives of the book are not fulfilled and the motivation of learners is not high;
- All the six teachers are engaged in private tuition;
- Sometimes, the school authority suggested the use of guidebooks.

After the interviews with the guardians, the information that I gathered are briefly presented below:

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- The book is not good;
- Learning a language without grammar is impossible;
- Teachers are more occupied with teaching at their coaching centres;
- Over marking in examination is going on;
- Though the guardians criticized the book and they knew their children were not properly learning to use the language though they appreciated the tradition of getting high marks.

From the classroom observation, I found that lessons were taught in English but grammar is taught in Bangla. Students can hardly converse in English; they only produce memorized lessons. The teacher-student ratio is unsuitable for language teaching. Audio-visual aids are not used. Teachers did not give any extra handouts. Only a few participatory activities took place in the classroom. Skills were not focused. Lecturing was the main method of teaching.

My research had three research questions. Regarding the first question, I found that secondary students learn English for instrumental purposes—to pass the exam only. In relation to the second question, I found that they fail in learning English not because of their fear but they fail due to their lack of motivation, the teaching method, teacher's inefficiency to teach, the syllabus and the textbook, the learning situation, guardians' lack of awareness, use of guidebooks and finally high competitiveness and commercialization of education.

With regard to my last question, I found that their failure was due to the fact that these factors had an impact on the learners. They neither learn a language nor pass the language course properly. Somehow, if they get good marks, they forget the knowledge of language they had acquired as they do not practice it and cannot find any practical application of those in their life.

Therefore, my hypothesis is partially justified as fear is not the only reason for their failure in learning English. They have self-confidence about learning it as well. But Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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the problem lies in many other factors mentioned above. For learning English successfully, students must be helped to form the right kind of attitude towards learning it. Moreover, it has to be ensured that the teachers implement their knowledge achieved through training; objectives of the textbook are to be followed, a good classroom environment is to be ensured, presented teaching methods are to be followed; students should not be frightened; more learner autonomy should be practised; learning strategies shall be taught to them and finally lessons should be presented interestingly as laughter lubricates learning – goes the proverb.

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-
11. Can you do better results? Yes/No/No comments
12. How?.....
-
13. What things in the textbook interest you?
-
-
14. What things in the textbook do not interest you?
-
-
15. What do you think of the way English is taught to you?
-
-
16. What would you actually like to do in the classroom?
-
-
17. Can you use the language practically (i.e. in speaking, listening, writing and reading)?
-
-
18. Do the teachers do any thing to improve these skills so that you can use them practically? Yes/No.
19. If yes, what are they and if no, what do you expect her/him to do?.....
-
20. How can you eliminate your fear of learning English?
-
-
21. How do you expect the teachers to help you to eradicate your fear?
-
-
22. Are you satisfied with the classroom situation? Yes/No/No comments
23. Why?.....

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.....
.....
Thanks for your Participation

N. B. Extra piece of paper will be provided if needed.

Appendix II

Date / /06

Questionnaire for the Teachers

Name:.....

Age:.....

Name of the School

Job Duration.....

1. Educational Qualifications:.....

.....

2. Did you get any training in English language teaching? Yes/No.

3. If yes, give details.....

.....

4. What is your opinion about the results of the students in English?

.....

.....

5. Why are they doing so?

.....

.....

6. Do you help them with extra work? Yes/No/No/comments

7. If yes, how and if no, why?

.....

.....

8. How is the textbook?

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.....
.....
9. Do you have any comments on it? Yes/No/No comments

10. If yes, write them below.
.....
.....

11. How far do you think the book can emphasize the practical usage of the four skills of the language?
.....
.....

12. What are the activities you do to teach the language in the classroom?
.....
.....

13. Are your activities result-oriented or skill focused, and then why are they so?
.....
.....

14. What do you think will help them to do better results?
.....
.....

15. How?
.....
.....

16. What is their chief motivation to learn the language?
.....
.....

17. What are the objectives of the textbook?
.....
.....

18. Are you satisfied with the classroom situation? Yes/No/No comments

19. Why?
.....
.....

20. What is the number of the students?
.....
.....

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21. Does it influence the language teaching-learning process? Write below.

.....
.....

22. How far do you think the objectives of book tie up with the motivation of the students of learning English?

.....
.....

Thanks for your Participation

N.B. Extra piece of paper will be provided if needed.

Appendix III

Teaching Practicum Portfolio

Name of Teacher:.....

Name of Observer:.....

Phase 1: Observation schedule

After discussion with Supervisor note the following:

No of observations: Dates: Time:

Observation:

Date: Time: Place:

Level: **No of Learners in Class:**

Class taught by:

Recorded Details of Lesson Observed Below.

Aims of the Lesson:

1.

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2.

3.

Skills Focus:

Language Focus:

Materials Used:

Observer:.....

Teacher observed :

Date : Time :.....

School :.....

Unit:..... Lesson:

Class :.....Total No. of students:.....

Title of Lesson

Ss. PresentBoys.....Girls.....

Teacher's activity	Yes/No	Comments/Examples
Was the lesson well-planned and the teacher well-prepared?		
Did the teacher appear relaxed and friendly during the class?		
Was the teacher's voice clearly audible at all times?		
Were the teacher's instructions clear?		
Did the teacher introduce the lesson clearly and attractively?		
Did the teacher make the lesson interesting and interactive?		

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Did the teacher do pair work with the students? Mention the activity.		
Did the teacher do group-work with the students? Mention the activity		
Did the teacher ask a variety of students of answer any questions?		
Did the teacher encourage the students to answer any questions?		
Did the teacher gently correct errors?		
Did the teacher make full and effective use of the blackboard?		
Did the teacher use target language only?		

A diagram of the main stages of the lesson (tasks and activities, time spent on each).

General comments on the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Kamala Markandaya's *Pleasure City* as *Bildungsroman*

S. Thirunavukkarasu, Ph.D.

S. Eshwari, MA., M.Phil

On Defining *Bildungsroman*

In *A Glossary of Literary Terms*, M.H. Abrams defines the *bildungsroman* as:

Bildungsroman and *Erziehungsroman* are German terms Signifying “novels of formation” or “novels of education” The Subject of these novels is the development of the protagonist’s Mind and character, as he passes from childhood through Varied experiences – and usually through a spiritual crisis – into Maturity and the recognition of his identity and role in the World... An important subtype of the *Bildungsroman* is the *Kunsterroman* (“artistic – novel”), which represents the development of a novelist or other artist into the stage of maturity in which he recognizes his artistic destiny and achieves mastery of his artistic craft... (112-13).

In *A Dictionary of Literary Terms*, J.A. Cuddon defines the *bildungsroman*:

Bildungsroman (G.’formation novel)

This is a term more or less synonymous with *Erziehungsroman* – literally, an ‘upbringing’ or ‘education’ novel). Widely used by

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Kamala Markandaya's *Pleasure City* as *Bildungsroman*

German critics, it describes a novel which is an account of the youthful development of the hero or heroine...

Cuddon defines the *kunstlerroman* as:

Kunstlerroman (G. Künstler 'artist' Roman 'novel') A novel... which shows the development of the artist from childhood to Maturity and later...

The *New Encyclopaedia Britannica* defines the *bildungsroman* as hereunder:

Bildungsroman (German: "novel of educational formation"), Class of novel developed in German literature that deals with the formative years of an individual upto his arrival as a man. Sometimes called an *Entwicklungsroman* ("novel of character development").

The traditional tale of folklore dunce who goes out into the World seeking adventure and learns wisdom the hard way was Raised to literary heights...

The Bildungsroman ends on a positive note through it may be tempered by resignation and nostalgia. If the grandiose dreams of the hero's youth are over, so are many foolish mistakes and painful disappointments and a life of usefulness lies ahead...

Watering the Parched Soul

Rikki, the protagonist of Kamala Markandaya's novel *Pleasure City* is the son of a fisherman. He is an avid learner, talking to books "as he had taken to the sea." He is filled with pride and joy when Mrs. Rose Bridie places the open Bible in his hand. When she sees the child's suffused face," something in her "parched soul" is watered. Rikki is a "regular" at Mrs. Bridie's school for fishermen's children, which she runs in the Mission compound (Kamala Markandaya, *Pleasure City* 5).

Love for Learning

Kamala Markandaya records the five year old Rikki's love for learning thus:

Rikki liked going to the Bridies, and he went. He liked Mrs. Bridie's English lessons. The language seemed to unfold before him, daily yielding something fresh and delightful. He likes Mrs. Bridie's rich, leather – bound holy books with gilt and

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vermilion edges to leaves, which she sometimes allowed him to handle. He loved the stories she read to him out of them, they were so rich, so full of Mrs. Bridie's heart... (City 6)

In Pursuit of Knowledge - Key to Locked Mysterious Boxes

Rikki thinks that Mrs. Bridie holds "the key to locked mysterious boxes" of which he knows the barest outlines. He wants "to get at them and praise them open." His longings make him learn fast. He discerns that the process lies as much in himself as it is within Mrs. Bridie. But her proceedings do not keep pace with his leaping forward. He feels that she teaches too slowly. But, she says that he, like her, "must think of others besides themselves" (City 6-7).

Life After Tragedy at Sea

When Rikki is six years old, his father, brother and uncle all perish at sea in a sudden storm. His mother, who loved his father, dies soon after. According to the custom of the community, Muthu's family takes in Rikki. Muthu's mother tells Rikki to call her *Amma* if he likes. He does so. Rikki and Muthu fish together and mend the nets together. However, Rikki is spared and allowed to go to the schoolroom. Mrs. Bridie soon feels that Rikki deserves all the time she can give to him (City 9-10).

Mr. Bridie's lips "let fall the finer cadences of poetry," and his hands are "capable of delicate work." He is an expert in making miniature cathedrals and ships and bottling them as well as in making pebble mosaic. Rikki wants to learn the art of people mosaic and the old man teaches him. Mrs. Bridie asks what use the craft will be to fisherboy. Mr. Bridie replies that it will be as useful as her stories, that is as much or as little as he cares to make of them (City 10-11)

Apprenticeship as a Fisherman – "If a thing is worthy doing, it is worthy doing well"

Muthu takes over Rikki's apprenticeship to "the craft or art of fishing." At first they fish in the river. Rikki is impatient to fish at sea. But Muthu tells him that he will have to wait till he is older and sturdier. Upon hearing this, Rikki shivers in anticipation (City 11- 12).

Mrs. Bridie tells Rikki, "If a thing is worthy doing, it is worthy doing well. You must always aim to be immaculate." She has inculcated in Rikki the practice of asking if he does not know something. However, sometimes he can detect inflections in her replies, which make him want to investigate further. Mrs. Bridie always douses his enthusiasm. On such occasions she bluntly stops him with the words "eunuch." Mr. Bridie is more communicative and frank. Rikki gets to understand that Mrs. Bridie's religious fervor is probably responsible for her being childless (City 12- 13).

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Rikki learns much from Mrs. Bridie's words, because she is well-traveled and well-read. One day Rikki stumbles upon a crate of her book in disused godown. While he is absorbed in reading a book, Mrs. Bridie arrives and confiscates it, saying that it is not suitable for his age. That very evening she haws the shed padlocked (*City* 13 -14). Mrs. Bridie imparts a good deal of eclectic knowledge to Rikki as the third person narrator says:

When in the mood or coaxed, he would read from his book, or Recite from a well – stocked memory. Or, sitting on the verandah steps, after they had done with the mosaic for the day, he would tell, richly, rivetingly, of pirates and emperors, of India and grace and the glory that had washed over them and receded, of the splendours of Granada, or of Rome....(*City* 14).

Nostalgia about Home

Mrs. Bridie grows nostalgic when she speaks of the English spring. She hopes that they will go back some day. Mr. Bridie is sure that they never will. She speaks sentimentally of Scotland, their birthplace. Once she says that, judging by the colour of Rikki's eyes, foreign blood has entered his family somewhere and Rikki thinks that she is dotty. One day when Rikki is fourteen, she says that if she had a son, he would look like Rikki. But Rikki feels that it is impossible because she never lets Mr. Bridie touch her. Mrs. Bridie loves the gold – skinned Rikki as her own child. It is Rikki's name that she utters last, before dying of botulism caused by a contaminated tin of salmon, as does Mr. Bridie a little later (*City* 14-16).

Overcoming a Devastating Personal Tragedy

Rikki gets over the Bridies. Early experience has taught him “to come to terms.” The books that the Bridies opened to him are closed now. Amma is happy that the affectionate, clear-eyed child is restored to her from the stringy woman who lured him away. Rikki is content to be with his family, his loving mother, his lively little sister and Muthu. His foster mother exhorts him to eat and grow up big and strong. Rikki is aware that he is “a good-looking boy,” intelligent and efficient. His foster – father Apu, the headman, regards Rikki's growing up healthy and strong as “the crown and garland of his age” (*City* 17-27).

A Full Time Fisherman

After the death of the Bridies, Rikki becomes a full-time fisherman. The arrival of the Atlas International Development Corporation, AIDCORP, to build a tourist complex, generally called Shalimar, near the village, is a turning point in Rikki's life. His mastery

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of the English language is a noticed asset and he gets employment in the complex. His engineer is one of the directors of AIDCORP. Born in India, Tully wishes to restore Avalon, a country mansion built by his maternal grandmother when he was Resident of Devapur State. The association with Tully furthers the growth and development of Rikki's mind. There are several flashbacks in the novel which show Rikki's mind and character being formed under the influence of the Bridies. Rikki's experiences at Shalimar also contribute to the growth and development of his mind and character.

Why Is *Pleasure City* a *bildungsroman*?

Pleasure City depicts the growth and development of Rikki the fisherboy from about the age of five to the time he reaches maturity. During this development stage he undergoes varied experiences and has some dreams too. His brave rescue of the foolhardy Mrs. Tully against the fisherman's instinct and at the risk of his life is the crisis that physically and psychologically propels him into a man's state. The grievous injury to his legs has left him not sufficiently seaworthy to go to back to fishing. So, Rikki realistically and pragmatically resigns himself to a useful citizen's role in some job-slot in Shalimar, where the language and the personality that the Bridies and the Tullies inculcated in him could be put to the best use. So, *Pleasure City* is a *bildungsroman*.

The whole novel is about what and how Rikki learns. He learns instinctively from the sea. He learns from the fishing community by association. He learns fishing from Muthu, his foster-brother. From Mrs. Bridie he learns the English language, Christian virtues and how to make crisp meringues. From Mr. Bridie he learns artistic skills like bottling miniature ship and includes in him the habit of asking questions when he does not know and Mr. Bridie trains him to cull knowledge from books.

Though critics have not called *Pleasure City* a *bildungsroman*, many of them have commented upon certain features of the novel which are features of the *bildungsroman*, like shaping, influencing, educating, learning, initiation, maturation and experience. A few critics have noted that Rikki's development is still incomplete at the end of the story.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Exploring the Preferences of Biological Needs of the Secondary School Students

Abdul Ghafoor Nasir and Muhammad Mirza, Ph.D.

Abstract

The focus of the study was upon the identification of students' biological needs that may influence curriculum development. The identification of students' biological needs would be beneficial in a number of ways to all those who were involved in curriculum planning, curriculum material production, curriculum development, administrative and supervisory functions, etc.

The present study was designed to identify the Preferences of Biological Needs of students of ages of 14⁺ to 16⁺ years that may influence curriculum development for classes (IX & X) of the schools located in the district Faisalabad. The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. So the total strength of students of sample of urban secondary schools was 248 and rural secondary school was 198. The total strength of students of the sample was 446. Questionnaires were used as research instruments. The respondents were to respond to a series of 15 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale. The samples were randomly selected. Since there was a lack of an adequate instrument to measure the importance, existence, availability or non-availability of students' needs, a self-Reporting rating scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of Likert scale. This measure was to ask the respondents to respond to a series of 20 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale from "Strongly agree" to strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Keyword: Exploring the preferences of Biological Needs, curriculum development.

Introduction

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It is a reality that in other countries, the researchers, psychologists and educationists have gone deep to explore the potentials of variety of needs. But in Pakistan, neither any commission on national education nor any education policy proposed or recommended research studies to assess and identify the student needs, wants, urges, aims and motives, etc. As there is no authentic information on needs that could be included in curriculum, all curricula have lost their values and slowed down the achievement of educational objectives.

The question that remains to be answered is:

What are the students' preferences of biological needs which may serve as pre-requisites for the successful development of curriculum? The researchers undertook this study to answer the question.

The most basic, powerful and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. Included in this group are the needs for good drink, oxygen, activity, sleep, and sex, protection from extreme temperature and sensory stimulation and shelter to sit or live in. Maslow (1970:37) stated that these physical or physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and must be gratified at some minimal level before the individual is motivated by higher-order needs.

Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow (1956:128) stated that a need for food leads to the hunger drive, although the hunger drive does not necessarily become stronger as the intensity of the need for food increases. Water, oxygen, sex and security of body are very essential. The two lowest orders of needs can be satisfied by goals that sustain life such as shelter and water, and provided protection from physical or psychological threat, until these needs have been met. People can not be motivated toward higher level goal (Bryce B. Hudgins and his associates, 1983:394). Breckenridge (1960: 192-193) stated that "home is a place where the child's physical and psychological needs are met. It feeds, clothes, protects and shelters him".

The related literature was examined and the Biological Needs were summed up as: Nourishment, Hunger, Lunch, Pure water, Light, Play, Seating, Dusty seating, Closeness, Sports competitions, Balanced diet, Milky diet, Rules exercises, Scouting, Medical care, Art and, drawing, Uniform, Neural exercise and Bath room facility.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to identify the Preferences of Biological Needs of boys of ages 14⁺ to 16⁺ year that may influence curriculum development for classes (IX & X) of the schools located under the jurisdiction of the Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education, Faisalabad

Method

The study was conducted on the basis of cross-sectional survey research. The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. So, the total

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strength of students of sample of urban secondary schools was 248 and the total strength of students of sample of rural secondary school was 198. The total strength of students of the samples was 446. Because no adequate instrument to measure the importance, existence, availability or non-availability of students needs was available, a self-Reporting rating scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of likert scale. This measure was to ask the respondents to respond to a series of 20 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale from “Strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

The samples were randomly selected. The questionnaires based on “SRRS” according to the biological needs of the students, were delivered to the samples of the students of urban and rural secondary schools of the district Faisalabad. The returns from students were 446.

The responses were gathered through structured instruments. Those instruments had propositions (statements) for which the respondents had to indicate their opinions in terms of strongly agree to strongly disagree (i.e., 5 Point scale) about the factors related to needs identified through review of related literature.

For the identification of importance, existence, availability or non-availability of needs, the frequencies of responses from each sample of respondents on choices (strongly agree to strongly disagree) were tested on chi-square test of significance to see that there were no chance discrepancies between the responses. The means of the samples were tested on t and F tests of significance.

Results

The frequency of responses to each item was calculated with item percentages. Means were computed for responses from all the two samples (students of urban and rural secondary schools). As the samples were divided into two groups, correlations among various groups were determined to establish representativeness of the responses and relationship among the groups. The responses for all items were rank ordered according to their frequencies, means and percentages to determine their importance, existence and availability. Correlation among the responses from students and teachers of secondary schools was determined to establish nearness and relationship of data. Chi-square test of significance was used to test the frequencies of the responses. The researcher, on the basis of such results, will be able to draw provable inferences and generalizations about the influence of needs on the curriculum development process.

Table No. 1

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS OF STUDENTS OF THE SAMPLE OF URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF DISTRICT FAISALABAD ON IMPORTANCE, EXISTENCE AND AVAILABILITY OF BIOLOGICAL NEEDS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE ON CHI-SQUARE AT .05:

	Needs	SA(%)	A(%)	U(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	df	χ^2	P
1.	Nourishment	203	35	3	3	4	247	608.21	.05

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2.	Hunger	(81.85) 180	(14.12) 24	(1.21) 16	(1.21) 14	(1.62) 14	247	429.90	.05
3.	Lunch	(72.58) 54	(9.68) 5	(6.45) 6	(5.65) 15	(5.65) 168	247	385.58	.05
4.	Pure water	(21.77) 65	(2.02) 27	(2.42) 12	(6.05) 14	(67.74) 130	247	199.46	NS
5.	Aspiration	(26.21) 80	(10.89) 23	(4.84) 6	(5.65) 8	(52.42) 131	247	239.70	NS
6.	Light	(32.26) 222	(9.27) 20	(2.42) 2	(3.23) 0	(52.82) 4	247	754.09	.05
7.	Play	(89.52) 214	(8.06) 14	(0.81) 1	(0.00) 5	(1.61) 14	247	683.73	.05
8.	Seating	(86.29) 210	(5.65) 16	(0.40) 5	(2.02) 7	(5.65) 10	247	649.78	.05
9.	Dusty seating	(84.68) 65	(6.45) 10	(2.02) 19	(2.82) 16	(4.03) 138	247	235.58	NS
10.	Closeness	(26.21) 203	(4.03) 17	(7.66) 22	(6.45) 5	(55.65) 1	247	598.93	.05
11.	Sports competition	(81.85) 214	(6.85) 18	(8.87) 3	(2.02) 5	(0.40) 8	247	683.81	.05
12.	Balanced diet	(86.29) 200	(7.26) 20	(1.21) 10	(2.02) 12	(3.23) 6	247	572.16	.05
13.	Milky diet	(80.65) 205	(8.06) 25	(4.03) 6	(4.84) 5	(2.42) 7	247	614.09	.05
14.	Rules	(82.66) 182	(10.08) 29	(2.42) 26	(2.02) 6	(2.82) 5	247	451.63	.05
15.	Scouting	(73.39) 61	(11.69) 16	(10.48) 18	(2.42) 16	(2.02) 137	247	222.28	NS
16.	Medical care	(24.510) 61	(6.45) 19	(7.26) 13	(6.45) 8	(55.24) 147	247	274.66	NS
17.	Art and drawing	(24.510) 86	(7.66) 13	(5.24) 2	(3.23) 9	(59.27) 138	247	290.18	NS
18.	Uniform	(34.68) 206	(5.24) 21	(0.81) 7	(3.63) 4	(55.65) 10	247	619.78	.05
19.	Neural exercise	(83.06) 133	(8.47) 18	(2.82) 12	(1.61) 8	(4.03) 77	247	238.89	NS
20.	Bath room	(53.63) 144	(7.26) 16	(4.84) 16	(3.22) 7	(31.05) 65	247	266.55	NS
		(58.06)	(6.45)	(6.45)	(2.82)	(26.21)			

Table No. 1 shows that:

Among the students 95.97% strongly agree and agree that they ate enough food to their fill at home.

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Among the students 82.26% strongly agree and agree that they felt hunger during the school hours, among the students 23.79 strongly agree and agree 76.31% disagree that their school provided them lunch when they needed.

Among the students 37.10 strongly agree and agree and 62.90% disagree that they drank pure and tasty water in their schools.

Among the students 41.53% agree and strongly agree, but 58.47% disagree that their schools rooms were ventilated.

Among the students 97.58% agree and strongly agree that their class rooms were electrified.

Among the students 91.94% agree and strongly agree that they played in the school ground.

Among the students 91.13% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to sit on the desks.

Among the students 30.24% agree and strongly agree but 69.76% disagree that they sat in the dust during the school hours.

Among the students 88.70% agree and strongly agree that they insisted to sit near their teachers.

Among the students 93.55% agree and strongly agree that the games competitions were held in their schools.

Among the students 88.71% agree and strongly agree that the milk was included in their diet.

Among the students 92.74% agree and strongly agree that they ate balanced diet.

Among the students 85.08% agree and strongly agree that they knew the rules of games.

Among the students 30.96% agree and strongly agree but 69.04% disagree that they took part in scouting.

Among the students 32.17% agree and strongly agree but 67.83% disagree that their schools provided them medical facilities.

Among the students 39.92% agree and strongly agree but 60.08% disagree that there was an art and craft faculty in their schools.

Among the students 91.53% agree and strongly agree that they were provided bright and precious school uniform.

Among the students 60.89% agree and strongly agree 39.11% disagree that P.T.I teachers taught them how to exercise.

Among the students 64.51% agree and strongly agree but 35.49% disagree that their schools had flush systems.

Table No. 2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS OF STUDENTS OF THE SAMPLE OF RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF DISTRICT FAISALABAD ON IMPORTANCE, EXISTENCE AND AVAILABILITY OF BIOLOGICAL NEEDS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE ON CHI-SQUARE AT 0.5:

Needs	SA(%)	A(%)	U(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	df	χ^2	P
1. Nourishment	135 (68.18)	45 (22.73)	5 (2.53)	4 (2.02)	9 (4.55)	197	316.44	NS
2. Hunger	100 (50.51)	47 (23.74)	10 (5.05)	32 (16.16)	9 (4.55)	197	140.73	NS
3. Lunch	16 (8.08)	8 (4.04)	7 (3.54)	39 (19.70)	128 (64.65)	197	263.46	NS
4. Pure water	51 (25.76)	55 (27.78)	3 (1.52)	17 (8.59)	72 (36.36)	197	82.50	NS
5. Aspiration	131 (66.16)	55 (27.78)	3 (1.52)	0 (0.00)	9 (4.55)	197	314.02	NS
6. Light	143 (72.22)	39 (19.700)	2 (1.01)	4 (2.02)	10 (5.05)	197	359.82	NS
7. Play	114 (57.58)	49 (24.75)	13 (6.57)	17 (8.59)	5 (2.53)	197	203.01	NS
8. Seating	133 (67.17)	47 (23.74)	12 (6.06)	6 (3.03)	0 (0.00)	197	309.02	NS
9. Dusty seating	33 (16.67)	20 (10.10)	10 (5.05)	84 (42.42)	51 (25.76)	197	85.99	NS
10. Closeness	110 (55.56)	43 (21.72)	15 (7.58)	14 (7.07)	16 (8.08)	197	171.34	NS
11. Sports	92 (46.46)	73 (36.87)	9 (4.55)	13 (6.57)	11 (5.56)	197	159.67	NS
12. Balanced diet	91 (45.96)	68 (34.34)	9 (4.55)	13 (6.57)	17 (8.59)	197	141.49	NS
13. Milky diet	113 (54.33)	64 (30.77)	10 (4.81)	12 (5.77)	9 (4.33)	197	205.22	NS
14. Rules	107 (54.04)	38 (19.19)	15 (7.58)	23 (11.62)	15 (7.58)	197	152.30	NS
15. Scouting	12	31	8	20	127	197	248.91	NS

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		(6.06)	(15.66)	(4.04)	(10.10)	(64.14)		
16.	Medical care	29	27	4	33	105	197	147.96 NS
		(4.65)	(13.64)	(2.02)	(16.67)	(53.03)		
17.	Art and drawing	18	27	0	15	138	197	315.18 NS
		(9.09)	(13.64)	(0.00)	(7.58)	(69.70)		
18.	Uniform	116	47	13	11	11	197	207.96 NS
		(58.59)	(23.74)	(6.57)	(5.56)	(5.56)		
19.	Neural exercise	53	21	12	33	79	197	72.80 NS
		(26.77)	(10.61)	(6.06)	(16.67)	(39.90)		
20.	Bath room	127	32	2	22	15	197	253.16 NS
		(64.14)	(16.16)	(1.01)	(11.11)	(7.58)		

Table No.2 Shows that:

Among the students 90.91% agree and strongly agree that they ate enough food at home.

Among the students 74.25% agree and strongly agree that they felt hunger during the school's hours.

Among the students 12.12% agree and strongly agree but 87.88% disagree that their schools provided them lunch when they needed.

Among the students 53.54% agree and strongly agree but 46.46% disagree that they drank pure and tasty water in their schools.

Among the students 93.94% agree and strongly agree but 6.06% disagree that their schools rooms were ventilated.

Among the students 91.92% agree and strongly agree that their classrooms are electrified.

Among the students 82.33% agree and strongly agree that they played in the school grounds.

Among the students 90.91% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to sit on the desks.

Among the students 26.77% agree and strongly agree but 73.23% disagree that they sat in the dust during the school hours.

Among the students 77.28% agree and strongly agree that they insisted to sit near their teachers.

Among the students 83.33% agree and strongly agree that the games competitions were held in their schools.

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Among the students 80.30% agree and strongly agree that the milk was included in their diet.

Among the students 85.10% agree and strongly agree that they ate balanced diet.

Among the students 73.23% agree and strongly agree but 26.77% disagree that they knew the rules of games.

Among the students 21.72% agree and strongly agree but 78.28% disagree that they took part in scouting.

Among the students 18.29% agree and strongly agree but 81.71% disagree that their schools provided them medical facilities.

Among the student 22.73% agree and strongly agree but 77.27% disagree that there was an art and craft faculty in their schools.

Among the students 82.31% agree and strongly agree that they were provided bright and precious school uniform.

Among the students 37.38% agree and strongly agree but 62.62% disagree that P.T.I teachers taught them how to exercise.

Among the students 80.30% agree and strongly agree but 19.77% disagree that their schools had flush systems..

Table No. 3

COMPARISON OF MEAN RATINGS OF THE OPINIONS OF STUDENTS OF THE SAMPLES OF URBAN AND RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF AND THEIR OVER ALL G. MEANS SCORES ACCORDING TO THE BIOLOGICAL NEEDS:

Preferences of Biological Needs:

S/No	Needs	Faisalabad		Mean Scores
		Urban	Rural	
1	Nourishment (Physical)	4.73	4.48	4.60
2	Hunger	4.38	3.99	4.18
3	Lunch	2.04	1.71	1.87
4	Pure Water	2.53	2.97	2.75
5	Aspiration	2.65	4.51	3.55
6	Light	4.84	4.52	4.68
7	Play	4.65	4.26	4.45
8	Seating	4.65	4.55	4.60
9	Dusty seating	2.39	2.50	2.45
10	Closeness	4.68	4.09	4.38

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11	Sports Competition	4.71	4.12	4.41
12	Balanced Diet	4.60	4.02	4.31
13	Milky Diet	4.68	4.00	4.34
14	Rules Recognition	4.52	4.02	4.27
15	Scouting	4.39	1.89	3.14
16	Medical Care	4.35	2.20	3.27
17	Art and drawing	4.60	1.85	3.22
18	Uniform	4.65	4.24	4.44
19	Neural exercise	4.49	2.68	3.56
20	Bath room facility	3.67	4.18	3.92

Table No. 4

Now the assessed needs are rank ordered as given below:

S/No	Needs	Mean Scores
1	Lunch	1.87
2	Dusty seating	2.45
3	Pure Water	2.75
4	Scouting	3.14
5	Art and drawing	3.22
6	Medical Care	3.27
7	Aspiration	3.55
8	Neural exercise	3.56
9	Bath room facility	3.92
10	Hunger	4.18
11	Rules Recognition	4.27
12	Balanced Diet	4.31
13	Milky Diet	4.34
14	Closeness	4.38
15	Sports Competition	4.41
16	Uniform	4.44
17	Play	4.45
18	Nourishment (Physical)	4.60
19	Seating	4.60
20	Light	4.68

Now this vast list of biological needs is focused to play a pivotal role to achieve a better standard of life, quality education and to play a basic role from nourishment to physical fitness in modernization of curriculum at secondary level.

Discussion

The analysis shows that two groups agreed to the assumptions that the influences of needs whether they are physical, mental, sociological or emotional can be inferred through cross-Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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sectional survey research. So, the groups (urban and rural) of the sample were randomly selected and analyzed. The agreement was significant beyond .05 to the item related to this aspect on chi-square.

The values of chi-squares for these items were larger than the others item which were meant for soliciting information regarding acceptance of the existing needs, facilities, materials and attitudes of the teachers and parents which were helpful for the urgent needs of academic and social life of the students.

It is noted that all the two samples agreed on the points raised through the items. In the series of biological needs, the balanced diet stands as first basic need of the body which aggregates the whole characteristics of the human being. In the realm of biological needs, all the two groups disagreed that the students were provided balanced diet. The teachers and students belongings to urban areas significantly differed contrary to rural areas. They also revealed that they felt hunger during the school times. Pure water was the urgent need of the body. All the respondents disagreed that they drank pure and tasty water. It is a fact that the pure water is not available. Underground water has been polluted and has become filthy. There was shortage of flush system and ventilated rooms. The paucity of electrified rooms was also a serious problem in the rural areas.

Recommendations

At the secondary level, the energy-filled young adolescent wants to be “up and doing.” Entering in this stage, he becomes restless and it is usually difficult for him to sit still for a long period of time. The youth becomes more energetic and shows a desire for strenuous activity and competitive sports. He/she shows an interest in social activities; an interest in his/her age mates. He/she develops control over emotions, restlessness, boredom and a less critical attitude toward family and friends. He/she also develops taste and love for friendship with a variety of age mates. His/her unique emotions, taste, energy directs his/her attitudes and interests to the sublimation of his/her “self”.

Home and schools should provide guidance to make constructive behavior. Because he/she has his/her own individuality, will and choices, he/she can sometime miss his/her right path.

In this segment of needs, closeness to teachers, scouting, neural exercises (drilling, etc.), sports and games, art and drawing, etc., are the secondary needs which are necessary for physical growth of the students. Nourishment, hunger satisfaction, lunch in school time, pure water, aspiration, bathroom facility and medical treatment are the basic physiological needs. They increase with the passage of time, so they are all called growth motives. They are all physical and primary needs. Scouting, play, sports and games, rules of games, neural exercises, art and drawing have physical and intellectual importance.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Exploring the Preferences of Knowledge & Understanding Needs of Secondary School Students

Abdul Ghafoor Nasir and Muhammad Mirza, Ph.D.

Abstract

The present study was designed to identify the Preferences of Knowledge & Understanding needs of students of ages of 14⁺ to 16⁺ year that may influence curriculum development for classes (IX & X) of the schools located in the district Faisalabad. The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. So, the total strength of students of sample of urban secondary schools was 248 and rural secondary school was 198. The total strength of students of the sample was 446. Questionnaires were used as research instruments. Because there was no adequate instrument to measure the importance, existence, availability or non-availability of students needs, a self-Reporting rating scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of likert scale. This measure was to ask the respondents to respond to a series of 20 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale from “Strongly agree” to strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

Keywords: *Exploring the preferences of knowledge & understanding needs, curriculum development.*

Introduction

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To derive a set of student's preferences of knowledge & understanding needs for the study, researchers drew from a variety of studies and psychological theories. A list is given below:

1. "The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum (1932) in America".
2. Doane's study of needs (1942:43-44).
3. The Commission on Human Relation Study (1942) which depicted a list of adolescents through case studies, interviews and observations.
4. Educational Policies Commission Imperative Needs of Youth 1944 (revised in 1952).
5. A derived list of needs by Luella Cole (1988:258).
6. Havighurst's (1950:1-4) developmental tasks which were derived by a Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1950) in America.
7. Lurry and Alberty (1957:60) have listed sixteen areas, which they consider adequate and representative of the common needs of the youth.
8. Henry A. Murray (1938:152-266) "A Need Theory of Personality" which drew a biological sketch of human needs.
9. Maslow (1970:35-51). A Humanistic Theory of Personality which presented a novel hierarchical theory of Human needs for the identification of students needs.
10. Bloom (1956:1-4) and Krathwohl (1964) analyzed the cognitive domain and affective domain and psychomotor domain for knowledge and understanding perception.
11. Kennon, M. Sheldon, Andrew, J. Elliot Youngmee Kim (2001:325) who compared three studies of 10 candidates' psychological needs in an attempt to determine which are truly most fundamental for humans.
12. Jhan W. Santrock (2001:417) the need of affiliation .
13. Sand (2000:193) denoted that affiliation refers to the needs to connect and relate to others.
14. Reid Hastie and his associates (2005:494) who viewed of mutual decision, love , and understanding as developing majority of the rules focusing upon belongingness needs and democracy.
15. Manas Ray (2006:36-37) who presents the social development of the individual according to his social needs.

The question raised for this research is:

What are the student preferences of "knowledge & understanding needs" which may serve as pre-requisites for the successful development of curriculum?

Murray (1938) moderately committed to a proactive view of human nature. He feels that people are capable of generating (self-initiating) their own behavior, particularly as it relates to future goal and aspirations. Young (1975) states that all knowledge is socially and historically, philosophically and psychologically constructed, and the curricula are merely selected from all the available knowledge. Young argued that such selection is a political act, based on the exercise of power. There is a considerable value in thinking about objectives particularly in behavioral levels. Bloom expresses these levels as ranging from simple recall or memorization of content to evaluating principle and hypothesis. Benjamin Bloom (1964) worked out a very useful list of characteristics for what has to be learned in any skill or

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subject to perfect one's behavior according to the measure of home, society, nation and the world.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to identify the preferences of knowledge and understanding needs of boys of ages 14⁺ to 16⁺ years that may influence curriculum development for classes (IX & X) of the schools located under the jurisdiction of Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education Faisalabad.

Method

The study was conducted on the basis of cross-sectional survey research. The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. So the total strength of students of sample of urban secondary schools was 248 and the total strength of students of sample of rural secondary school was 198. The total strength of students of the samples was 446. Because there was no adequate instrument to measure the importance, existence, availability or non-availability of students needs, a self-Reporting rating scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of likert scale. This measure was to ask the respondents to respond to a series of 20 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale from “Strongly agree” to strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

Results

The frequencies of responses to each item were calculated with item percentages. Means were computed for responses from all the two samples (students of urban and rural secondary schools). As the samples were divided into two groups, correlations among various groups were determined to establish representative ness of the responses and relationship among the groups.

The responses for all items were rank ordered according to their frequencies, means and percentages to determine their importance existence and availability.

Table No. 1

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS OF STUDENTS OF THE SAMPLE OF URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF DISTRICT FAISALABAD ON IMPORTANCE, EXISTENCE AND AVAILABILITY OF KNOWLEDGE & UNDERSTANDING- NEEDS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE ON CHI-SQUARE AT .05

	<u>Needs</u>	<u>SA(%)</u>	<u>A(%)</u>	<u>U(%)</u>	<u>D(%)</u>	<u>SD(%)</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>χ^2</u>	<u>P</u>
1.	Recognition	159 (64.11)	23 (9.27)	27 (10.89)	10 (4.03)	29 (11.69)	247	306.03	NS
2.	Identification	182 (73.39)	30 (12.10)	19 (7.66)	3 (1.21)	14 (5.65)	247	449.37	NS

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3.	Knowing	128 (51.61)	16 (6.45)	30 (12.10)	11 (4.44)	63 (25.40)	247	188.08	NS
4.	Assessment	185 (74.59)	20 (8.06)	13 (5.24)	8 (3.23)	22 (8.87)	247	464.54	NS
5.	Cognition	214 (86.29)	21 (8.47)	6 (2.42)	0 (0.00)	7 (2.82)	247	685.91	.05
6.	Enlightenment	208 (83.87)	25 (10.08)	10 (4.03)	2 (0.81)	3 (1.21)	247	639.13	.05
7.	Reasonability	171 (68.95)	24 (9.68)	24 (9.68)	8 (3.23)	21 (8.468)	247	374.94	NS
8.	Goal orientation	179 (72.18)	25 (10.08)	19 (7.66)	13 (5.24)	12 (4.84)	247	424.17	NS
9.	Classification	168 (67.74)	28 (11.29)	26 (10.48)	5 (2.02)	21 (8.47)	247	359.86	NS
10.	Curiosity	165 (66.53)	13 (5.24)	17 (6.85)	5 (2.02)	48 (19.35)	247	357.08	NS
11.	Expectation	190 (76.61)	20 (8.06)	14 (5.65)	2 (0.81)	22 (8.87)	247	501.67	NS
12.	Defense	85 (34.27)	22 (8.87)	25 (10.08)	6 (2.42)	110 (44.35)	247	164.70	NS
13.	Mastery	62 (25.00)	10 (4.03)	39 (15.73)	15 (6.05)	122 (49.19)	247	166.79	NS
14.	Democracy	75 (30.24)	12 (4.84)	54 (21.77)	10 (4.03)	97 (39.11)	247	118.81	NS
15.	Scholastic approach	206 (83.06)	14 (5.65)	10 (4.03)	2 (0.81)	2 (6.45)	16	247	618.77 .05
16.	Exploration	201 (81.05)	16 (6.45)	13 (5.24)	2 (0.81)	16 (6.45)	247	580.34	.05
17.	Computer skills	183 (73.79)	183 (8.87)	22 (4.03)	10 (6.05)	15 (7.26)	18	247	450.02 NS
18.	Defense skills	184 (74.19)	28 (11.29)	21 (8.47)	2 (0.81)	13 (5.24)	247	462.76	NS
19.	Patriotism	171 (68.95)	36 (14.52)	20 (8.06)	8 (3.23)	13 (5.24)	247	380.42	NS

Table No.1 Shows that:

Among the students 73.38% agree and strongly agree that they were provided professional guidance.

Among the students 85.49% agree and strongly agree that they knew the importance of balanced diet.

Among the students 58.06% agree and strongly agree but 29.83% disagree and strongly disagree that they knew the rules of first aid.

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Among the students 82.65% agree and strongly agree that monthly evaluation tests were given to them.

Among the students 94.76% agree and strongly agree that they knew the religious values.

Among the students 93.95% agree and strongly agree that they learnt to achieve their goals.

Among the students 78.63% agree and strongly agree but 21.37% disagree that they knew the social values. Among the students 82.26% agree and strongly agree that they knew the purpose of life.

Among the students 79.03% agree and strongly agree that they could differentiate rights and duties. Among the students 71.77% agree and strongly agree but 28.23% disagree that they wanted to become citizens of the whole world.

Among the students 84.87% agree and strongly agree that they knew the skill of defense.

Among the students 43.14% agree and strongly agree that but 56.76% disagree that they knew how to save from any disaster.

Among the students 29.03% agree and strongly agree but 70.97% disagree that they knew the wonders of information technology. Among the students 35.08% agree and strongly agree but 64.93% disagree that they knew the traits of democracy.

Among the students 88.71% agree and strongly agree that they sought talented teachers.

Among the students 87.47% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to analyze the every particle of the universe.

Among the students 82.66% agree and strongly agree that they knew the function of computers.

Among the students 85.48% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to learn the skills of defense and raid.

Among the students 83.47% agree and strongly agree that they knew the importance of patriotism.

Table No. 2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS OF STUDENTS OF THE SAMPLE OF RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF DISTRICT FAISALABAD ON IMPORTANCE, EXISTENCE AND AVAILABILITY OF KNOWLEDGE & UNDERSTANDING NEEDS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE ON CHI-SQUARE AT 0.5:

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	Needs	SA(%)	A(%)	U(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	df	χ^2	P
1.	Recognition	117 (59.09)	33 (16.67)	23 (11.62)	17 (8.59)	8 (4.04)	197	197.45	NS
2.	Identification	95 (47.98)	71 (35.86)	19 (9.60)	5 (2.53)	8 (4.04)	197	168.56	NS
3.	Knowing	62 (31.31)	68 (34.34)	32 (16.16)	20 (10.10)	16 (8.08)	197	58.26	NS
4.	Assessment	81 (40.91)	55 (27.78)	15 (7.58)	13 (6.57)	34 (17.17)	197	83.21	NS
5.	Cognition	103 (52.02)	66 (33.33)	9 (4.55)	9 (4.55)	11 (5.56)	197	187.05	NS
6.	Enlightenment	120 (60.61)	60 (30.30)	11 (5.56)	2 (1.01)	5 (2.53)	197	260.33	NS
7.	Reasonability	99 (50.00)	56 (28.28)	13 (6.57)	20 (10.10)	10 (5.05)	197	145.58	NS
8.	Goal orientation	107 (54.04)	62 (31.31)	19 (9.60)	4 (2.02)	6 (3.03)	197	198.61	NS
9.	Classification	99 (50.00)	73 (36.87)	9 (4.55)	9 (4.55)	8 (4.04)	197	189.77	NS
10.	Curiosity	138 (69.70)	43 (21.72)	3 (1.52)	6 (3.03)	8 (4.04)	197	332.35	NS
11.	Expectation	117 (59.09)	52 (26.26)	6 (3.03)	7 (3.54)	16 (8.08)	197	224.57	NS
12.	Defense	72 (36.36)	31 (15.66)	24 (12.12)	33 (16.67)	38 (19.19)	197	35.68	NS
13.	Mastery	88 (44.44)	44 (22.22)	12 (6.06)	19 (9.60)	35 (17.68)	197	90.13	NS
14.	Democracy	90 (45.45)	44 (22.22)	42 (21.21)	4 (2.02)	18 (9.09)	197	108.56	NS
15.	Scholastic	109 (55.05)	55 (27.78)	16 (8.08)	2 (1.01)	16 (8.08)	197	191.44	NS
16.	Exploration	114 (57.58)	58 (29.29)	11 (5.56)	7 (3.54)	8 (4.04)	197	221.04	NS
17.	Computer skills	117 (59.09)	61 (30.81)	2 (1.01)	8 (4.04)	10 (5.05)	197	245.88	NS
18.	Defense skills	110 (55.56)	54 (27.27)	13 (6.57)	4 (2.02)	17 (8.59)	197	193.16	NS
19.	Patriotism	88 (44.44)	55 (27.78)	27 (13.64)	8 (4.04)	20 (10.10)	197	104.07	NS

Table No.2 Show that:

Among the students 75.76% agree and strongly agree that they were they were provided professional guidance.

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Among the students 83.84% agree and strongly agree that they knew the importance of balanced diet.

Among the students 65.65% agree and strongly agree but 34.35% disagree that they knew the rules of first aid.

Among the students 68.69% agree and strongly agree but 31.31% disagree that monthly evaluation tests were given to them.

Among the students 85.35% agree and strongly agree that they knew the religious values.

Among the students 90.91% agree and strongly agree that they learnt to achieve their goals.

Among the students 78.28% agree and strong agree but 15.15% disagree and strongly disagree that they knew the social values.

Among the students 85.35% agree and strongly agree that they knew the purpose of life.

Among the students 91.40% agree and strongly agree that they could differentiate rights and duties.

Among the students 91.42% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to become a citizen of the whole world.

Among the students 52.02% agree and strongly agree but 47.98% disagree that they knew the skills of defense.

Among the student 52.02% agree and strongly agree that but 47.98% disagree that they knew how to save from any disaster.

Among the students 66.66% agree and strongly agree but 33.34% disagree that they knew the wonders of information technology.

Among the students 67.67% agree and strongly agree but 32.33% disagree that they knew the traits of democracy.

Among the students 82.83% agree and strongly agree that they sought talented teachers.

Among the students 36.87% agree and strongly agree but 63.13% disagree that wanted to analyze the every particle of the universe.

Among the students 89.90% agree and strongly agree that they knew the function of computers.

Among the students 85.48% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to learn the skills of defense and raid.

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Among the students 72.22% agree and strongly agree but 27.78% disagree that they knew the importance of patriotism.

Table No. 3

Comparison of mean ratings of the statements relating to the preferences of Knowledge & Understanding needs by students of the samples of urban & rural secondary schools of the District Faisalabad:

S/No	Needs	Faisalabad		Mean Scores
		Urban	Rural	
1	Recognition	4.10	4.18	4.14
2	Identification	4.46	4.21	4.33
3	Knowing	3.54	3.70	3.62
4	Assessment	4.36	3.68	4.02
5	Cognition	4.75	4.21	4.48
6	Enlightenment	4.75	4.45	4.6
7	Reasonability	4.27	4.08	4.17
8	Goal	4.40	4.31	4.35
9	Classification	4.28	4.24	4.26
10	Curiosity	4.97	4.50	4.73
11	Expectation	4.43	4.25	4.34
12	Defense	2.86	3.33	3.09
13	Mastery	2.50	3.66	3.08
14	Democracy	2.83	2.93	2.88
15	Scholastic approach	4.58	4.20	4.39
16	Exploration	4.55	4.33	4.44
17	Computer	4.36	4.35	4.35
18	Defense Skills	4.48	4.19	4.33
19	Patriotism	4.39	3.92	4.15

Table No. 4:

Now the assessed needs are rank ordered as given below:

S/No	Needs	Mean Scores
1	Democracy	2.88
2	Mastery	3.08
3	Defense	3.09
4	Knowing	3.62
5	Assessment	4.02
6	Recognition	4.14
7	Patriotism	4.15

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8	Reasonability	4.17
9	Classification	4.26
10	Identification	4.33
11	Defense Skills	4.33
12	Expectation	4.34
13	Goal	4.35
14	Computer	4.35
15	Scholastic approach	4.39
16	Exploration	4.44
17	Cognition	4.48
18	Enlightenment	4.6
19	Curiosity	4.73

Now this vast list of Knowledge & Understanding needs is focused to play a pivotal role to achieve a better standard of live, quality education and to play a basic role from awareness to brotherhood in modernization of curriculum at secondary level.

Discussion

The findings show that the growth preferences of Knowledge & Understanding needs like contentment, confidence, perception, self-efficacy, prestige, popularity, autonomy, solidarity, and achievement have great values. There is great need of awareness, encouragement and significance of self. The majority of the students of the two samples disagreed that the students have sound sense of self-respect. The majority of the students disagreed that a prize distribution ceremony was held every year in the schools.

The majority of the students were not in accord to the propositions that they felt kinship in the schools. The significant majority of the students differed with the point that they were quite satisfied with their subjects of studies. They were stressed to choose their subjects. In the realm of Knowledge & Understanding needs achievement need has comparatively less mean value and significance need has comparatively high mean score than the other needs

Recommanditions

It is concluded that in a learning process the community of the learners had great values. It is the social interaction and commitment to a common purpose that is the glue for the community. Interaction and discussion methods are fruitful for learning and teaching processes. These needs may be given special place in curriculum as shown below:

- a. Curriculum may develop or design tasks that may guide the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor abilities to award their positive aspects.

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- b. Curriculum may organize teaching and learning processes in such a way that student's abilities of recognition, knowing, reasonability, goal orientation, curiosity and exploration may be fulfilled.
- c. Curriculum workers may design the subject matter in such a way that it may provide professional guidance to the students, which may create curiosity, enlightenment and identification of social values, moral values and progress in science and technology.
- d. Curriculum may create a need for knowledge, not just supply it. It may also develop the ability to think rationally, to express clearly, to read and listen understandingly and to do effectively.

Curriculum may help to make career choices for the students. It may systematically co-ordinate the schools, family and community resources to facilitate each individual's career potential.

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Exploring the Preferences of Knowledge & Understanding Needs of Secondary School Students

White, T.L. and Kurtz, D.B. (2003) The Relationship Between Metacognitive Awareness of Olfactory Ability and Age in People Reporting Chemosensory Disturbances, *American Journal of Psychology*, (Sp. 2003) Vol. 116 No. 1, Board of Trustees of the University Illinois, America.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Negation in Khasi

Bashisha Shabong, Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

Khasi has /-im/ as the negative marker. It has two phonologically conditioned shapes. /-m/ after a vowel and /-im/ after a consonant. They occur as a free word. The negative imperative marker /wat/, usually precedes the verbal construction.

1. Introduction

The term 'Khasi' stands for both the tribe and the language. Khasi belongs to one of the five sub-groups of Mon-Khmer family of languages. It is spoken in the district of Khasi Hills in the state of Meghalaya. As per the census of India 2011 the total population of Meghalaya is 2,964,007 of which male and female are 1,492,668 and 1,471,339 respectively.. Total area of Meghalaya is 22,429 sq. km. Density of Meghalaya is 132 per sq. km which is lower than national average 382

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per sq. km. In 2001, density of Meghalaya was 103 per sq. km, while nation average in 2001 was 324 per sq. Km.

2. Khasi language

Khasi has SVO order. This order displays an interesting aspect of agreement. It is between the subject and the verb (predicate) of the same clause. Having SVO order means that the subject occurs first in a sentence. However the agreement markers occur preceding the nouns. When there is a pronoun as the subject, these agreement markers themselves function as personal pronouns. In a possessive construction, the genitive marker follows the head noun. So, the prepositions precede the nouns

As far as various dialects of Khasi are concerned, the Langrin Khasi dialect is mostly spoken in West Khasi hills that follows SVO order which is the standard one but the same dialect spoken in Mawkyrwat block on the whole also follows the SVO order but with little differences such as VS or VOS. Bhoi and Jirang dialects of Khasi language are mostly spoken in East Khasi hills in Nongpoh block which use the standard word order.

The Langrin dialect also behaves similarly to a large extent, though there are some differences between this dialect and the other dialect of Khasi language. The word order in this variety is intriguing and complex as well as inconclusive, due to the limited data. Nongtung is mainly spoken in East Khasi hills-Umsning block. In this dialect, if an object is not present, but has a subject which could be either a pronoun or a noun, then the word order is VS. If an object is present then the order could be either VOS/VSO.

It can be said that the various dialects of Khasi language, namely standard Khasi Langrin, Bhoi, Nongtung and Lyngngam show extent of diversity found amongst them mainly from the word order point of view. Among the five varieties, Standard Khasi, Langrin and Lyngngam are similar

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whereas Bhoi and Nongtung are very different. Lyngngam though is similar to the first, is quite different in various other aspects.

3. Land and the People

Tribal people make up about 85 percent of Meghalaya's population. However in some interior reaches of the Garo Hills, the percentage of tribal population is as high as 97%. The Khasis are the largest group, followed by the Garos. These were among those known to the British as "hill tribes". Other groups include the Jaintias, the Koch and the Hajong, Dimasa, Hmar, Kuki, Lakhar, Mikir, Rabha etc.. About fifteen percent of the population is defined as non-tribal; these include about Bengalis and Assamese. Meghalaya is one of three states in India to have a Christian majority; the other two (Nagaland and Mizoram) are also in the north-east of India.

Meghalaya currently has 7 districts. These are: East Garo Hills, East Khasi Hills, Jaintia Hills, Ri-Bhoi, South Garo Hills, West Garo Hills and the West Khasi Hills.

The East Garo Hills district was formed in 1976 and has a population of 317,618 as per 2011 census. It covers an area of 2603 square kilometres. The District Headquarters are located at Williamnagar, earlier known as Simsangiri.

The East Khasi Hills district was carved out of the Khasi Hills on 28 October 1976. The district has covers an area of 2,748 square kilometres and has a population of 824,059 as per the 2011 census. The headquarters of East Khasi Hills are located in Shillong.

The Jaintia Hills district was created on 22nd February 1972. It has a total geographical area of 3819 square kilometres and a population 392,852 as per the 2011 census. The district headquarters are located at Jowai. Jaintia Hills district is the largest producer of coal in the state. Coal mines can be seen all over the district.

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The Ri-Bhoi district was formed by further division of East Khasi Hills district on 4th June 1992. It has an area of 2448 square kilometres. The total population of the district was 258,380 as 2011 census. The district headquarters are located at Nongpoh. It has a hilly terrain and a large part of the area is covered with forests. The Ri-Bhoi district is famous for its pineapples and is the largest producer of pineapples in the state.

The South Garo Hills district came into existence on 18th June 1992 after the division of the West Garo Hills district. The total geographical area of the district is 1850 square kilometres. As per the 2011 census the district has a population of 142,574. The district headquarters are located at Baghmara.

The West Garo Hills district lies in the western part of the state and covers a geographical area of 3714 square kilometres. The population of the district is 642,923 as per the 2011 census. The district headquarters are located at Tura.

The West Khasi Hills district is the largest district in the state with a geographical area of 5247 square kilometres. The district was carved out of Khasi Hills District on 28th October 1976. The district headquarters are located at Nongstoin with a population of 385,601 as per 2011 census.

4. Culture and Society

One of the unique features of the State is that a large majority of the tribal population in Meghalaya follows a matrilineal system where lineage and inheritance are traced through women. The Khasi and Jaintia tribesmen follow the traditional matrilineal norm, wherein the "Ka Khadduh" (khatduh) (or the youngest daughter) inherits all the property and acts as the caretaker of aged parents and any unmarried siblings. However, the male line, particularly the mother's brother, may indirectly control the ancestral property since he may be involved in important decisions relating to property including its sale and disposal. The tribal people of Meghalaya are therefore a part of what may be the world's largest surviving matrilineal culture. According to

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India's National Family Health Survey, Meghalaya is the state where parents have shown the least interest to have a male child - 73% less than the national average.

5. Negative in Khasi

David Crystal says 'Negative or Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantics analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all sentence's meaning'. Some languages use more than one article to express negation. Khasi has two phonologically conditioned shapes.(i) /-m/ after a vowel and (ii)/-im/ after a consonant. Negative marker in Khasi usually occurs before the tense marker, but in case of future tense, it occurs after the tense marker.

5.1. In case of present tense the negative marker occurs before the verb.

1. u-m ba:m

he-neg. eat

'He does not eat'

2. ka-m tre?

she-neg. want

'She does not want'

3. ki-m le?

they-neg. do

'They do not do'

5.2. In case of past tense, Khasi negative markers /im/ occurs before the tense marker, /šim/ (a sub-ordinate negative markers) is used with it.

4. ka-m šim la ba:m

she-neg. sub.ordinate.neg. past tense eat

‘She did not eat’

5. u-m šim la leyt

he-neg sub.ordinate.neg. past tense go

‘He did not go’

6. ki-m šim la trey

they-neg. sub.ordinate.neg. past tense work

‘They did not work’

5.3. In case of future tense the negative marker occurs after the tense marker.

7. u-n im trey

he-fut. neg. work

‘He will not work’

8. ka-n im ba:m

she-fut. neg. eat

‘She will not eat’

9. ki-n im sa?
they-fut. neg. stay

‘They will not stay’

10.ka-n im ĵinda sa?
she-fut. neg. aspect mrk. stay

‘She would not stay’

11. u-n im hap Trey
he-fut. neg. aspect mrk. work

‘He will not be forced to work’

5.4. There is another negative in Khasi which is used in the sense of /im/, but in past tense only, then the past tense marker is not used. The marker is /k^hlem/

12. u khlem leyt
he neg. go

‘He did not go’

13. u khlem šim leyt
he neg. subordinate neg. go

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I express my sincere gratitude to Prof. Ajit Kumar Baishya, Professor, Linguistics department, Assam University, Silchar, for his valuable comments and suggestions, which inspired and helped me to improve this paper. My thanks are due to my friends and co-scholars who encouraged me in writing this paper.

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Assessment of English Teaching Methodologies at Secondary Level in Bangladesh

Nitish Kumar Mondal, M.A. (Double)

Abstract

The objective of the project was to assess English teaching methodologies at secondary level in Bangladesh. A number of teachers were included both from rural and urban areas in the sample. For the purpose of data collection, a questionnaire was prepared. Data collection through the questionnaire was tabulated, analyzed and interpreted by applying percentage. Though a number of teaching methods were used at secondary level, the findings showed that the present method named “Communicative Language Teaching” used on the Secondary education in Bangladesh was not suitable for the current text book of English, where interaction between the teachers and the students were lacked of and two skills like reading and writing were applied only. This paper

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also discovered that teachers were not using this method wholeheartedly. Then the current method needed to be improved with adding grammar and literary piece, which could be applied through technological aspects.

Keywords: teacher, teaching methodologies, secondary level, technological.

1. Introduction

Teaching is a complex process which requires proper teaching methodologies, in order to inculcate knowledge in the mind of the students and to transfer knowledge to the next generation. Secondary education is a turning state therefore; effective teaching methodology is to be adopted according to the needs of the students so that proper guidance can be given.

According to Vijayalakshmi (2004), teaching is both an art and a science. Able teachers always find ways and means to improve their teaching techniques. With the change in time the teachers are asked to employ newer methods for teaching their students more effectively so that they must be able to cope with the demand of the age. The latest techniques of teaching are a need of hour. The progress of country depends upon the quality of its teachers. Ranga (2005) has commented on teacher education, ‘the irony of fate, however, is that teaching is the most unattractive profession and teacher no longer occupies honorable position in the society. Teaching can regain its earlier noble status in case the quality of teacher education is improved’.

The term ‘Teacher’ is used for the person who teaches the students, guides the learners and enables them how to read and write. Encyclopedia of education defines teacher education as, ‘education and preparation of individuals enabling them become professional teachers.’

Frank et al. (1987) have emphasized the need for making teacher education dynamic. They suggested that, ‘in order to keep pace with- technology changes in society the teacher education programs of all levels in country must be planned in such a way that the teachers produced by these programs, are broadly educated, scientific minded, uncompromising on quality innovative,

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but sympathetic towards students. Aggarwal (1990) has concluded that “teacher education is that knowledge, skills and abilities which is relevant to the life of teachers as teacher.”

It is also important to provide training to the teacher for adopting proper teaching methods. Teacher education is not teaching the teacher how to teach. It is the initiative, to keep it alive, to minimize the evils of the “hit and miss” process: and to save time, energy, money and trouble of the teacher and the taught. The necessity of the teacher to perceive that the course in teacher education would, help him minimize his trouble, and to appreciate that it would save the students from much of the painful process through which he has himself passed. Teacher education is needed for developing a purpose and for formation of a positive attitude for the profession.

2. Bangladesh Situation

According to Shami, et al. (2005) Secondary Education comprises of two stages- secondary and higher secondary. The secondary education is of five years duration in Bangladesh regarding VI-X. There is a secondary schools certificate (SSC) examination at the end of 10th class and it is conducted by the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education throughout the country. The medium of instruction in most of schools is Bengali, except in English medium schools whereas the higher education grades XI-XII, is imparted at Intermediate Colleges.

The students follow two years program of study at higher secondary level, which leads to the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC). The medium of instruction is Bengali in this level. The Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education at the end of 12th class examination for higher secondary certificate.

3. A brief Review of Previous Researches

Yasmin (1984) conducted research study on “a comparative study of the effectiveness of the inquiry and traditional methods for teaching biological sciences in laboratory at the High School Level.” A sample of 400 students was further divided into 8 groups (4 experimental and 4

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control). The findings of the study reveal that the inquiry approach is more effective as compared to traditional methods.

Haass (2002), in his research study titled, “The influence of teaching methods on student achievement on Virginia end of course standards of learning test for Algebra,” suggested that Algebra teachers should emphasize direct instruction, technology aided instruction, and problem-based learning. These three teaching methods categories ranked highest in both analyses.

Jason (2006) conducted a research study titled, “effective teaching methods for large classes” has concluded that the lecture/discussion teaching method was the most preferred among students. Student comments as to their reason for selecting this as the most valuable method seem to suggest that they have a desire to be somewhat active learners, engaging in discussion rather than passively listening to a lecture. Overall, the findings of this study suggest that faculty teaching large classes should attempt to include constructive active teaching methods in their courses whenever possible. Results indicate that most students prefer to be active in their learning process. The active and collaborative teaching methods examined in this study are not only desirable to many students, but they also appear to produce significant improvement in terms of learning outcomes.

4. Statement of the Problem

The present research was designed to investigate the assessment of English teaching methodologies at secondary level in Bangladesh.

5. Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Investigate the assessment of teaching English methodologies at secondary level.

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2. Explore advantages and disadvantages of various methods.
3. To identify the use of teaching method (which is used more) effectively.

6. Significance of the Study

This study has great importance for the teachers in general and for secondary school teachers in particular, as this study has collected a lot of information about teaching methods, their effectiveness and appropriateness about various schools at secondary level. Furthermore, study will guide the English teachers in exploring proper methodologies for teaching. The significance of the study will also be for the planners and education managers in policy formulation or revision of teacher education programs at secondary level in the country. It will also help the teachers gaining perfect idea about English teaching methods especially at secondary level in Bangladesh.

7. Introducing English Teaching Methods

There are many methods in secondary level for English teaching. Among them Grammar-translation method, Direct method, Audio-lingual method and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are very essential for English teaching. These methods can be sum up in the following ways—

7.1 Grammar Translation Method

Grammar Translation Method was first introduced in Germany especially in Prussia. Hence it was also called Prussian Method. This method is the oldest method of foreign language teaching, having existed for more than 2000 years which dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s and is being modified and used in different countries of the world today. This method was introduced for the teaching of English language in Bangladesh during the colonial period which is being used till today. It is a very traditional method which does not have any theoretical framework.

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Richards et al. (1986) states, “It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it that attempts to relate it to issue in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory”. Howatt (1984) depicts in his article that the high priority attached to meticulous students of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century.

This method is still common in many countries, even popular. Tests of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be scored through this method. Many standardized tests of foreign languages still do not attempt to tap into communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations and rote exercises”.

The principal characteristics of this method are:

It is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language.

1. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.
2. Classes are continued through mother tongue with a little use of the target language.
3. A number of vocabularies are taught in the lists of isolated words
4. Long hair-explanting explanation of grammar is presented and illustrated.
5. Reading of difficult classical text is started early.
6. Very little attention is paid to the context of text rather than focus on the grammatical issues of text.
7. Reading and writing is emphasized than speaking and listening.

6.2 Direct Method

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Direct Method, alternatively called “The Natural Method” begun in 1923 focusing on the foreign language that could be taught without translation or the use of the learner’s native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action (Richards et al., 2002). According to teaching quality improvement in secondary education project (Ministry of Education, 2008) this method became popular about 100 years ago. It has been said that this method was developed as a reaction to the grammar translation method. In this method, the learners are interested in a flow of examples of the L2, at the same time getting them engaged in conversations or questions/answers aiming at establishing “a direct bond between experiences and expressions.” It emphasizes direct contact with the target language in meaningful sentences. The idea was to teach the language ‘directly’ and naturally with plenty of oral exercises and active demonstration of the words being used through visual aids, dramatization, etc. Grammar is taught implicitly, not explicitly.

The key features of this method are as follows:

1. No use of any language except the target language
2. No use of explicit grammar
3. Use of visual aids
4. Use of dramatization (i.e. acting, mime)
5. Use of special gestures, to convey meaning

6.3 Audio-lingual Method

Americans needed to become orally proficient in the languages of their allies and enemies alike at the time of World War II, especially when they entered into the field of World War II. Coleman (1929) recommended this approach to foreign language teaching for using in American schools and colleges which emphasized teaching the comprehension of text which persuaded foreign teachers to focus on the reading text more than the teaching of oral skills. This method was based on linguistic and psychological theory and its main premises was the scientific descriptive analysis of a wide assessment of languages. On other hand, conditioning and habit-formation models of Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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learning put forward by behaviouristic psychologists were firmly related with the pattern practice of the Audio-lingual Method that Brown (1995) would like to say “firmly-grounded in linguistic and psychological theory”. Fries (1945) takes Brown’s comment one step forward mentioning that it is a linguistic and psychological theory.

The characteristics of this method can be drawn up in the following manner.

1. Vocabulary can be limited and applied in context
2. Some issues can be used like tapes, language labs and visual aids.
3. New materials are used through dialogue form
4. There will be made a tendency of memorization of vocabularies and phrases.
5. Pronunciation is very important.
6. Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.
7. There is little or no grammatical explanation is seen.
8. A little use of mother tongue is permitted by the teachers.
9. Error-free utterances are seen.
10. Successful responses are come out.

6.4 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes communication, as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. The origins of it are to be found in the changes of the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. Wilkins (1972) in his book titled “Notional Syllabus” played a significant role for the development of CLT and its greater application between the teachers and learners simultaneously.

Mackay (1995), on his learning of Latin through conversation rather than through the customary method of formal analysis and translation, says, “Without methods, without a book, without grammar or rules, without a ship, and without tears, I had learned a Latin as proper as that at my

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school master”. Though this method is fully related to language learning and teaching, it is difficult to synthesize all of the various definitions that have been offered.

The goal of CLT is to develop communicative competence. It means what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community which adjacent with a number of functions as: instrumental, regulatory, inter-act ional, personal, and heuristic, imaginative and representational. Though this method was started in England in the early 19th century but it was introduced for teaching English at secondary education in Bangladesh in 2001 and is being continued till today.

According to Rodgers (2001), there are four characteristics of the communicative view of language:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is to allow interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of function and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

7. Application of Methods in Bangladesh

The above mentioned methods are used in many countries of the world in different situations but these methods are not well-used in Bangladeshi teaching program like secondary level education. Among the above mentioned methods the grammar translation method is being used in Bangladesh before 1971 and even today at all stages of educational program including secondary and higher-secondary level education. But at present Communicative language teaching has been included with it and this method is developed by the English Language Teaching Improvement Project (ELTIP).

The purpose of using this method in Bangladesh was to update the English language teaching at the Secondary education in Bangladesh meaningfully. ELTIP started working since July 1997. The

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project is sponsored by the ministry of education. This project has been working to promote teaching learning of English in the Secondary level education in Bangladesh and introduced the communicative language teaching approach in the English curriculum of the country for the first time. It's now necessary to assess the suitability of CLT in context to Bangladesh.

8. Proving the Superiority of a Method over Another

Early assessments took place on the basis of theories employed: from the 1960s a range of language program evaluation sought to establish the superiority of a given language learning theory. Towell, et al. (1999) provided a 10-year longitudinal account of French as a foreign language program in a British university. They illustrate the importance of a sustained positive view of the Classroom experience. This is an aspect of evaluation which is widely implemented: Breen et al. (2001) developed the notion of 'teaching principles': 'reasons teachers give for particular techniques that they adopted during language lessons which revealed a set of guiding principles that appeared to be shared across the group' (p. 472). Their analysis showed that lessons do not have either an exclusive content (i.e. language) or student focus, but rather a dynamic balancing of these two dimensions of the teaching task. This study analyses the work of Woods (1996) and Kiely (2001) which showed that teachers' methodological decision making – how to teach – is shaped by the unfolding classroom interaction.

Richards (2006) explored one way in which such decision-making can be understood through an identity-oriented analysis of classroom interaction. Indeed, since the late 1980s, a small cadre of language program assessment has provided cogent and critical insights into the ways in which evaluation can serve internal as well as external interests, can inform formative as well as summative purposes, can empower language teachers and learners as well as ensure adherence to standards or outcomes, can draw upon multiple methodologies ('qualitative' as well as 'quantitative'), and can transform the value as well as the effectiveness of language education .

At the same time, it has possibly increased the demands of assessment in the contemporary educational landscape – that language educators in a variety of settings are becoming sufficiently

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tuned in to the necessity of evaluation as a path towards program improvement, educational effectiveness, and perhaps survival of the language teaching profession (Norris, 2006).

Language education must be an increase in public discourse about evaluation and the sharing of meaningful practices and models in venues available to language teaching researchers and practitioners (Foreign Language Program Evaluation Project, 2008).

Historically, these and related challenges have likely contributed to a perception of program evaluation as something that is apart from language education, largely external to the doing of effective language teaching, exclusively measurement-driven, highly summative and judgmental in oriented teaching and primarily equated with accountability and managerial models of education (Beretta, 1992).

In language program evaluation as well, periodic contributions over the years have emphasized such characteristics in an attempt to enhance evaluation's utility for language teaching (Mackay, 1988 and Mackay, 1994).

Hence, in order for evaluation to contribute maximally to the understanding and improvement of language education, it seems that evaluators are called upon to engage proactively in the design and implementation of methods that can respond to the actual intended uses and users of evaluation information within language programs (Norris, 2008). In the USA, public schools are under pressure to demonstrate significant increases in student achievement under the Federal No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB).

Kiely et al. (2005) explain that, 'for a range of reasons, some proper, others less so, evaluation processes and findings remain either insufficiently documented or unpublished' (p. 6). Those program evaluations that do exist are often conducted by publishers or only infrequently provide information about the conditions under which the programs were implemented or explanations for the programs' effectiveness or lack thereof. This lack of high-quality research prompted the Department of Education's Institute for Education Sciences, U.S.A. to create the What Works

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Clearinghouse, a project designed to review studies of instructional intervention effectiveness based on strict criteria for what constitutes scientifically based research in education. In fact, ‘not a single product has more than one study fully meeting WWC research standards’ (Oppenheimer, 2007).

A two-year evaluation of the Waterford Early Reading Program (hereafter the Waterford program) was implemented in the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) in Los Angeles, California.

Klapper et al. (2003) compared the impact of teaching in a university on German foreign language program. The previous studies worked on kindergarten, high school and university level but the present study worked on the secondary education in Bangladesh. However, recent study demonstrates how the research dimension of assessment still shapes views of improving English teaching Methods of secondary education in Bangladesh.

9. Successful Teaching

Mursell (1954) describes successful teaching as, “it has revealed a number of specific aspects or emphases in the total pattern of meaningful learning, which make the general orientation more definite.

Learning is essentially purposive. It is meaningful in the sense that it “matters” to the learner.

1. The basic process of learning is one of exploration and discovery: not of routine repetition.
2. The outcome or result achieved by learning is always the emergence of insight, or understanding or intelligible response.
3. The result is not tied to the situation in which it was achieved but, can be used also in other situations.”

Ibrahim ((1990) has also described effective teaching as: Main objective of teacher education program has always been to prepare effective teachers, such teachers should be capable of bringing desired behavioral changes in their students to an optimal level in relation to the infant in terms of human energy and material resources expended in the process. Teachers while teaching Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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in a class room will have to meet their challenges also to pass through various processes, such as communication of the content style of presentation, use of audio visual aids.

In brief, teacher effectiveness is to be assessed in an area which is concerned with relationship between the characteristics of teachers, teaching acts and their effects on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching. It is evident that the teacher has always to adopt variety of teaching methods and teaching strategies in teaching his subjects in classroom situation to make teaching more effective and result oriented.

10. Methodology

10.1. Sampling procedures

The population of this project was secondary level teachers. A total of 100 teachers were selected as the sample for this project. The respondents were from the different schools in three districts. The sample was selected through a random sampling method. A total of 100 English teachers were selected as respondents to whom the questionnaire was administered to collect data for this project.

10.2. Instrumentation

This project is descriptive and non- experimental. The project was based on primary data. The data were collected via the survey approach through a self- administrated questionnaire. The questionnaire survey method was preferred because the researcher investigated informant's use of English language teaching Method at secondary education. This method was chosen because

- (i) this method is suitable for empirical research;
- (ii) the data collected through this method is easily quantifiable;
- (iii) this method gives informants enough time to provide well thought out answers.

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In preparing the questionnaire, caution was exercised to ensure the standard and quality of the questions. The researcher was concerned about the validity, reliability, clarity, practicality, administrability of the instruments. In order to ensure that the instruments have been designed adequately and appropriately, the instruments were checked by the researcher himself. A pilot survey was conducted to study the feasibility of the instruments. The feedback from this pilot survey on the appropriateness of the questionnaire was then incorporated into the questionnaire.

10.3. Data Collection Procedures

Quantitative method was used to collect the data. The data was collected through a survey in the form of a questionnaire. Data collection took place from 10 October to 18 November 2010. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher himself. The questionnaires were distributed to the English teachers of the secondary level and requested them to return the completed questionnaires after answering.

10.4. Data analysis procedure:

Upon completion of the correction of data, the data was edited, coded classified and tabulated for computation and analysis. The analysis was done using SPSS (statistical package for social sciences) software. This software was used to examine and investigate about teachers' choice of answer through which the percentage values were obtained.

Conclusion

The report of this project assessed English Teaching Methods (ETM) of the Secondary education in Bangladesh and showed the utilization-focused approach. Though the objectives of this project were to know the present English teaching methods used at the Secondary education in Bangladesh and identify the merits and demerits of the existing methods by which assessment of Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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English teaching methods could be made successful. This study was able to know the present method named “Communicative Language Teaching” used on the Secondary education in Bangladesh and it was not suitable for the current text book of English where interaction between the teachers and the students were lacked of and two skills like reading and writing were applied only.

This project on the methods used in Secondary education, not only evaluated the English teaching methods meaningfully, but the methods were actually put to use in developing and improving as intended. This study also discovered that teachers were not using the ETM wholeheartedly. Then the current method needed to be improved through following recommendations.

Recommendations

Following recommendations were made on the basis of conclusions:

1. Teachers should use literary piece to involve the students in learning process in the classroom with their text.
2. Teachers should select the method of teaching in the light of topic and learners need and level.
3. Audio- Visual aids should be used more frequently by the teachers to make their teaching effective.
4. Teacher should also use grammar which could be applied through technological aspects in the classroom.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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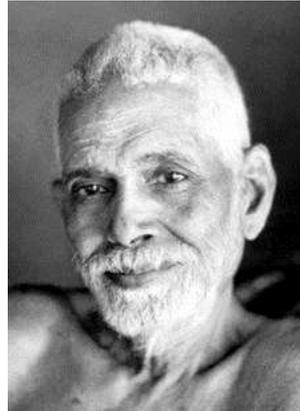
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Conceptualization of Metaphor in Maharshi Ramana - A Study of “The Marital Garland of Letters” and “The Song of Poppadum”

Kiran Sikka, M.Phil. Ph.D. Scholar

Amrita Sharma, Ph. D.



Ramana Maharshi 1879-1950

Metaphor in Literary Discourse

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Metaphor, a much discussed subject in literary discourse since the time of Aristotle, has continued to command serious attention even in contemporary thought as can be seen from the voluminous work appearing on the subject from time to time. Whether it is Andrew Ortony raising questions regarding metaphors as necessary for transmission of new ideas or Max Black defending his interaction view of metaphor or L. Jonathan Cohen's Semantics of Metaphor (Ortony, Andrew. 1993: 19-58) it is metaphor which has preoccupied the modern critical mind. Going beyond the stereotypes of the rational form of communication, metaphor leaps into areas where words or sentences are not merely seen as themselves but suggesting something else. The journey of a word - from known and apparent to suggest something, from explicit to implicit, from ordinary to extraordinary and from visual to mental - calls for many interpretations. Sometimes the ideas that go into mental construction, perception and understanding of a speaker's intension, when taken literally, do not make sense in the given context. It is here that metaphor stands functional as a mode of conceptualization which can be investigated with insights into the given language.

The present paper discusses conceptualization of metaphor in Maharshi Ramana's poetry.

The Saint-Poet, A Sage of *Jnana Marga*

Maharshi Ramana, a saint-poet, was born on 30th December 1879 as Venkatraman to an uncertified pleader Sundaram Aiyar and mother Alaggmal, in a village Tiruchuzhi, about thirty miles from Madurai. His father died when he was twelve and the family disintegrated. He was brought up by his mother and uncles. Intelligent but indifferent to his studies, though he learnt nothing much in school yet he reached higher classes. During this period, he did not show any inclination towards spirituality. It was in 1895 that he heard about *Arunachala* from an old couple and felt an inexplicable and indescribable ecstasy. In July 1896, he had a feeling of impending death which gave rise to many questions regarding dilemma of human life. He realized the ultimate revelation that the spirit transcending the body never dies.

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After this experience, Maharshi Ramana set out on a spiritual journey at a very tender age and attained self-realization at the age of seventeen. He sought liberation from the inherent tendencies of ego clouding the mortal humans throughout their lives. He was constantly aware of his identity with the Self — the deathless spirit. “The other thoughts might come and go like the various notes of music, but the ‘I’ continued like the fundamental *sruti* note that underlies and blends with all other notes,” (The Collected Works.2007: ix-xvii) he himself explains. This ‘I’ for him was liberation, a miracle, an awareness and an awakening. It was in this background that Venkatraman was named Maharshi Ramana —a title given to a great sage who inaugurates a new path. He opened a new path of *jnana marga* for his devotees who turned to him for spiritual instructions.

On his way to the attainment of supreme state of self-realization, he was inspired to write “The Five Hymns to Sri Arunachala” —an expression of attitude of the soul aspiring for union with God. The first of these hymns “The Marital Garland of Letters”, selected for the purpose of study in the present paper, is one of the most profound and moving poems written by Maharshi. The other poem “The Song of Poppadum” was composed for the purpose of giving spiritual instructions. The two poems present a contrast in the conceptualization of metaphors- the first being profound and intense, the other being lighthearted, humorous yet insightful. The present paper demonstrates metaphor as an integral part of his poetry and reveals a process of the poet’s conceptualization. The paper tries to explain and define metaphor, talks about conceptualization of metaphor and its embodiment in Maharshi’s poetry and concludes the discussion.

Metaphor Explored

As already stated, metaphor has been one of the most baffling mysteries of human speech since the earliest times. In the West, the discussion of metaphor started with Aristotle in *Poetics*. Aristotle’s views have left an indelible influence on Western literary criticism and aesthetic theory. He talks of the style which raises poetry from commonplace to unusual and lofty by the use of ornamental words. For him, the greatest thing by far was to be a master of metaphor. It was a thing that could not be learnt from others. It was also a sign of genius, since a good metaphor implied an intuitive perception of the similarity in dissimilars. (House,

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Humphrey.1970: 121) He posits that perfection of style needs among many other things metaphor for transference by analogy. Metaphor was recognized merely for its ornamental value by the time of Aristotle. Aristotle's views were considered important for the later discussions of metaphor.

The journey of metaphor traverses a long distance from the classical period to modern age with contributions of Cicero, Augustine, Peter Ramus, Coleridge and George Lakoff—some of them talking in favour and others against metaphor. The list is inexhaustible and growing. Cicero in *De oratore* articulated a view of language as an ethical conduct and viewed metaphor as “potentially corruptive finery” (121-123). Augustine in middle ages insisted on considering metaphor as a trope and still conceded its power to exceed mimetic fidelity (Augustine, 1983: 535). In keeping with the sweeping changes that marked renaissance, Peter Ramus and Francis Bacon rejected the figurative aspect of language and metaphor in particular. Shakespeare and John Donne however invented Elizabethan and metaphysical metaphors by striking a balance between logic, reason and subjectivity of struggle of self-determination and self-knowledge. John Locke in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* rejects figurative language and considers metaphors as promoting wrong ideas and moving passions (Locke, John. 1979: 508). It was Coleridge in Romantic period who talked about poetry as self expressive and therefore offered a better view of nature because of exercise of modes like metaphor. Thus it becomes clear that metaphor continued to be discussed as an important mode of communication with writers either accepting it or rejecting it. It was accepted either as ornamental or enriching the intrinsic value of meaning in the form of language.

Coming to twentieth century, it was I.A. Richards who emphasized that the business of a poet was to give order and coherence to a body of experience and hence freedom to a body of experience (Richards, I.A. 1974: 23). The poet does so through many means, one among them is metaphor. In *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*, Richards proposed two very useful terms “tenor” and “vehicle” while talking about metaphors, where the tenor is the idea conveyed or illuminated by the vehicle which is the actual figurative expression. The theory emphasized the conceptual incompatibility between the two terms. He further mentions that metaphors work for a number of

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reasons, other than that tenor and vehicle construct resemblances. Sometimes they also work due to disparities, sometimes through ambiguities, sometimes by creating new forms. Richards made a valuable contribution to the study of metaphor. (Richards. 1950: 87-112) Max Black in “More about Metaphor” made a strong case in favour of metaphor:

Conceptual boundaries not being rigid, but elastic and permeable; and because we often need to do so, the available literal resource of the language being insufficient to express our sense of the rich correspondences, interrelations, and analogies of domains conventionally separated; and because metaphorical thought and utterance sometimes embody insight expressible in no other fashion.(33)

However, there are strong links between metaphors and other tropes as some of them work on vertical selections choosing among equivalent options on the basis of similarity, contrast, substitution, synonyms and antonyms, whereas others like metonymy work on horizontal combinations constituting syntactic links relating through contiguity and juxtaposition. Metonymy also characterizes the use of the part for the whole for example “nice set of wheels” for “nice car” or vice-versa. The sense has been further enlarged to encompass any substitution based on any kind of contextual contiguity. Metaphor in the general sense characterizes the substitution of one similar concept for another. The similarity may be explicit or implicit. As far as imagery is concerned, the images by themselves will not necessarily develop symbolic or metaphoric quality but metaphors and other related tropes result from a combination and manipulation of images. In fact images are the raw material used for producing figures of speech -- metaphor being one of them. In metaphors, things could be personified or images used could be mainly visual.

It is clear that most of the figurative language, whether metonymy, metaphor, oxymoron, imagery and similes etc., work on the principles of likeness or contrast. Since these two principles also underlie the way we think, reason and imagine, all figurative language seems to have conceptualized thus. Certain metaphorical associations are so deeply entrenched in our

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mode of sensibility and consciousness that we tend to think that there must be a similarity either in the concepts or the association in the concepts is a form of similarity. We think and talk in metaphors. Metaphors are an important part of our communication— whether written or spoken. Searle made an important observation when he compared irony and speech acts with metaphors. He said that the utterances may belong to any of the category but they do not make sense when taken literally. It makes sense when the hearer reinterprets to render it appropriate. (Ortony, 99) However, this should mean that basically simile, personification, imagery and synecdoche work on a principle of likeness or contrast in one way or other. Whereas simile draws direct comparison between two distinctly different things by making use of words ‘like’ and ‘as’, in metonymy the term applied for one thing is applied to another with which it has become closely associated e.g. ‘crown’ can stand for a king, in synecdoche a part stands for whole, in personification, an inanimate object or an abstract concept is spoken as if endowed with human attributes. Imagery is also used to signify figurative language as vehicles for similes and metaphors.

Metaphors have now been recognized as more than figurative devices. They were considered only the device of poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish earlier. Previously viewed as characteristic of language alone, they were only a matter of words rather than thought or action. The whole idea underwent a complete change when George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in *Metaphors We Live By* rejected this view. They contend that metaphors are pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature(Lakoff, George and Mark Johnson.1980: 5). Andrew Ortony in his book *Metaphor and Thought* also recognized the importance of metaphors as their ability to provide alternative or new ways of viewing the world whereas so-called literal language was considered too restrictive because of its inability to provide those perspectives. For Ortony, metaphors are more than mere implicit comparisons— they are a use of language. (Ortony, Andrew. 1993: 344)

Thus metaphors are now seen as more appropriate for conceptual domains rather than linguistic expressions as conceptualization of metaphors characterizes into ‘polysemy’ which may result

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into either many related or different senses of meanings. This makes metaphor a rather complex phenomenon which needs to be worked on more seriously to discover layers of meanings hitherto wrapped in obscurity and abstractness. This brings us to a point where we can draw certain generalizations about metaphors which can be applied to poetry since poetry is basically metaphorical:

1. Metaphors have now been recognized as figures of thought not merely of speech.
2. They pervade in our conceptual system i.e. the way we think.
3. Metaphors are related to other rhetorical figures e.g. simile, imagery, irony, personification and synecdoche etc. as all of them work on either the principle of contrast or of comparison.
4. Metaphors are necessary because literal meaning in a given context does not always make sense.
5. Metaphors are important to explain the world beyond senses. Physical reality is describable with the help of literal language but how to explain the ideas that are beyond physical reality—is a question that has been addressed by the use of metaphor.

Maharshi and Metaphor

Maharshi's poetry is the depiction of an inner vision and conviction realized on his way to enlightenment. He belongs to the tradition of saints who were in direct contact with their absolute self and had even passed beyond the boundaries of senses in his earthly life. Before exploring the conceptualization of metaphor in Maharshi Ramana, it is important to trace his spiritual journey. Maharshi left Madurai forever to his uncle's home after his father's death. He had a sudden fear of death one day while sitting on the first floor of his uncle's house. The shock drove his mind inwards and the realization dawned on him that the deathless spirit of man is away from body, it is 'I' —the realized Self. This was a miraculous awakening in his life after which he was constantly aware of his identity with the Self. This was his philosophy of existence in which he remained immersed throughout his life after losing all interest in the manifested world. A conscious awareness with the *Atman*, the Absolute, the Spirit and Self of all brought

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ineffable bliss beyond life and death. All his poetry is an expression of this resplendent reality conceptualized in metaphors.

Study of Two Poems

For the purpose of the present study, we have selected only two of his poems: “The Marital Garland of Letters” and “The Song of Poppadum” from *The Collected Works of Sri Ramana Maharshi*. Maharshi spoke most lovingly about “Five Hymns to Arunachala” from which “The Marital Garland of Letters” has been taken because these poems came to him most compellingly. He tried to suppress them but the hymns flowed on their own. While the first group of the poems are the most profound and moving poems that express the attitude of the soul aspiring for the union with God, the second one is the best example to show that the day-to-day mundane activities can be philosophical and teach a spiritual way of life through metaphors. It is the practice of self-enquiry which helps one to get rid of obstacles of mind like doubts, ignorance and unawareness. This practice is revealed through various metaphors conceptualized in his poetry.

Arunachala in South India is a hill, but for Maharshi it stands for ‘God’. “The Marital Garland of Letters” is a poem of 108 stanzas, where each stanza ends with “Oh Arunachala”. In Sri Arunachala Mahatmya, Maharshi calls Arunachala “a heart of the world” and “heart-centre of Siva”. To borrow Richards’s terms ‘tenor’ and ‘vehicle’, Arunachala is a vehicle for tenor God. The underlying connection between Arunachala and God is the quality of stability and permanence. ‘Arunachala’ has been used as a refrain in the poem stitching the poem as a thread stitches a cloth. All the poems in “Five Hymns to Arunachala” have metaphorical concepts but the first hymn The Marital Garland of Letters makes a more interesting study as it is full of profound ideas and removes the delusion of devotees.

Maharshi composed the first hymn “The Marital Garland of Letters” for Sadhus who used to go to Tiruvannamalai to beg for food. This is the first among the “Five Hymns to Arunachala”- the others being “The Necklet of Nine Gems”, “Eleven Verses to Arunachala”, “Eight Stanzas to

Arunachala” and “Five Stanzas to Arunachala”. The introductory verse is an invocation to Sri Ganesa which celebrates the significance of Arunachala and Beacon:

The sudden rise of the blazing column of Annamalai in front of Brahma and Vishnu ...is symbolic of Heart Centre (Self) which shines of itself...

Getting rid of the ‘I am the body’ idea and merging the mind into the Heart to realize the Self as non-dual being ...is the beacon of light on Annamalai. (79)

Annamalai, as a blazing column in front of God Brahma and Visnu, is symbolic of *sphurana* of the heart centre as the realized self free of ego. The target domain in both the cases is *sphurana* i.e. burst forth. It indicates the blazing of the hill as well as realization of the heart. The common idea is the change in the hill because of glowing and change in the heart because of shedding ego. Arunachala displays a bright light. The heart centre displays a similar light when it realizes Self. The realization of heart is to get rid of the idea that self is the body. This awareness of non-dual being is the light in the heart. In “Self-enquiry”, Maharshi explains the idea by giving an example of a grain of rice hidden in the husk. When dehusked, it is rice. The self remains *jiva* bound by *Karma*. Released from the bondage of ignorance, it shines as *Siva*(33). Thus Arunachala stands forth as realized self free of ego and ignorance.

The Marital Garland to Siva - Metaphor

The poem begins with a prayer to God Ganpati to bless him. He says:

Gracious Ganpati with thy (loving) hand bless me, that I may make this a marital garland of letters worthy of Sri Arunachala, the bridegroom! (82)

At the outset, it is apparent that the words the Maharshi would write in God’s praise will form a marital garland for the bridegroom Arunachala as is the custom in Hindu marriages for a bride to put a garland around the bridegroom’s neck. The act symbolizes the union of two persons sought in marriage physically, mentally and spiritually. The idea runs throughout the poem in such beautiful expressions-“ honour me with the union with thyself”(84), “ tear off these robes,

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expose me naked , then robe me with thy love”(85), “ Enfold me body to body, limb to limb, or I am lost” (88) and “ Espouse me, I beseech Thee”(90). The tone of the poem is evocative of earnest request interspersed with taunt “thou didst aim (at me) with darts of love and then devoured me alive”(93) and rhetorical questions“ Does it not shame thee to stand like a post,(leaving me) to find thee by myself?” (88). The metaphor of marriage runs throughout the poem and reaches the pinnacle of spirituality while traversing a physical path.

Ramana earnestly requests Arunachala to not to take the fruit shriveled and spoilt because it is worthless. He wants Him to take and enjoy it ripe. Here ripe fruit is the human soul ready to meet God when the awareness of sense organs and the mind are completely destroyed. It leads one to the stage of *sahaja nirvikalpa*. It is the natural and pure state of soul without concepts and attachments. The ‘ripe fruit’ refers to the realized self of man which does not reincarnate because it meets God and no more passes through the cycle of births and deaths. The Indians have a strong belief in a way of life where *Karam Bija* inevitably leads to *KaramPhala* and the body has to enter a different type of existence for its next birth. This further leads to another reincarnation on the Earth . Maharshi Ramana’s poetry talks of human beings bound by *karma*. Once he gets released from this vicious circle, he attains his resplendent self and shines as *Siva*, the Deity.

However, as we reach towards the end of the poem, the implied comparison of the metaphor of marriage becomes more explicit as Maharshi talks about the mind wedded to the world to be now wedded to perfection. The conceptual metaphor of marriage continues as Maharshi moves further from mind’s embrace upon the bed of tender flowers in the room of the body to Arunachala. The expression when expanded displays Maharshi’s brilliance at work in poetry. The mind wants to embrace God Arunachala in the room of body. The metaphor of marriage enters into the realm of spirituality where the soul seeks ultimate union with God. Finally the sought union of soul with God reaches a stage when they enjoy each other in the house of open space and there are no day and night.

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The union of marriage surpasses time and space. This could be an ideal example of the what George Lakoff says about the experiential basis of metaphor that the conceptual system underlying a language contains thousands of conceptual metaphors-conventional mappings from one domain to another, such as the Event Structure Metaphor. (Ortony : 240). The metaphor of marriage is embedded deep in Indian psyche, thought and experience and is treated sacred. It is from these conventional images that Maharshi steps into the domain of conceptual metaphors.

Metaphors Wrapped in Irony

There are stanzas where metaphors are wrapped in irony. The simple expression in “Didst Thou not call me in?” (93) leads one into many interpretations; it could be an invitation unsolicited or could be an ironical statement. The invitation to the God’s home –the soul aspiring for union with him – should not remain uncalled for. He asks Arunachala like a person whom someone has invited home. There is a streak of personification as Arunachala – the hill is referred to as a living entity. The tone is obviously ironical. Irony takes place when the speaker says something intentionally at odds with the way he knows it to be. It is important to go through the whole expression to find a convergence of irony with metaphor “I have now come in. Now hard is thy lot, Oh Arunachala”. The ironic structure further deepens with “Does it become thee to sleep when I am outraged by others?” (84) The ‘others’ here are five senses. A deep and underlying conceptual metaphor of marriage is running concurrently but there are other metaphors which take an ironical shape. Predominantly it is the conceptual metaphor of marriage working with many other undercurrents of irony, simile and imagery.

Another noticeable thing about this particular poem is the use of compound words which when expanded work like metaphors. George A. Miller in *Images and models, similes and metaphors* talks about compound words and says that a greater variety of relational predicates must be inferred from them (Ortony: 400). Maharshi uses a compound word in “the strumpet mind will cease to walk the streets if only she find Thee. Disclose Thy beauty then and hold her bound, oh Arunachala!” (83)

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The mind is metaphorically referred to as “strumpet” – a female prostitute. ‘Strumpet’ is the vehicle for tenor ‘Mind’ which wanders in many directions with different thoughts arising. The similarity drawn between a prostitute wandering in streets and mind distracting in ego, attachments and senses is apparent. If the prostitute finds someone who can hold her permanently, her search will stop. In *Vivekachudamani*, a translation of Sankaracharya’s work, Maharshi himself explains that the self is like a man ‘swayed and dominated by lewd woman, of whom he is enamoured’ (The Collected Works: 245). The self as body also slips and enters into other things. Mind becomes quiet only after it finds its source as Arunachala – the God, and stays there. The use of compound word “strumpet mind” consisting of only two words-both nouns shows that one noun works as an adjective to another noun. What fascinates a reader most is how a metaphor can conceptualise in just two words. The contiguous words have their role in preparing the context however. There are examples of other phrases where they appear like epithets. “Hill of patience”, “Fiery gem” “Moon of grace” are such references.

Similes

There remain many similes in the hymn to be discussed. Although simile and metaphor do not seem to differ much in their usage except that in simile, the use of ‘like’ and ‘as’ is what distinguishes it from metaphor. However, metaphors are favored more as compared to similes because the hearer discovers something new about topic when he uses metaphors. Metaphors stretch language beyond its elastic limit and offer the readers an opportunity to derive more meaning than simlie. In Ramana Maharshi, the similes are rather far and few. In a long poem of 108 stanzas, there are approximately 6 similes. The first simile used is that of a lodestone attracting iron. The force of attraction is the common underlying link in this case. The tenors and vehicles are different. One is explicit when the iron is attracted by lodestone. The other is implicit when God attracts soul. Another simile is that of a creeper. Human being is a weak creeper and wants the support of a strong tree ‘God’. Maharshi does not want to droop like a tender creeper without any support. He desires his steadfast support. Maharshi also talks about a ship losing his way in the storm because it is without helmsman. The man has lost his way on his destination to the God in this world. Maharshi makes a request to God to ignore his

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shortcomings through a simile of a mirror shown to a nose less man who becomes self-conscious after looking at his reflection. In another simile, he wants to dissolve in the God like snow melts in water. The implied comparison is again indicative of the union of soul with God. Maharshi compares himself to a spider entwined in his web. Man also seems to be caught in the web of the world. But contrary to popular belief expressed in Indian thought, the ‘spider’ here is Arunachala- the God and the ‘web’ is his grace. What strikes us as different is the positive meaning in the simile of spider and web which has often been used negatively.

Creative Use of Language

What is particularly noticeable in this long poem by Maharshi is the constructive and creative use of language where metaphors do not appear merely extrinsic to the concepts of spiritual philosophy. They are intrinsic to the conceptualization and are neither frills nor ornaments. This makes the language more creative and metaphor becomes an essential characteristic of its creativity. The basic concept of Maharshi Ramana’s spiritual philosophy is self-enquiry. One has to inquire within oneself the true nature of Self. It is neither body nor ego. This gets conceptualized in the form of one metaphor of marriage with various other metaphors relatively interspersed. As carrier of ideas, metaphors do add to the richness of meaning in Maharshi Ramana.

The Song of Poppadum

The next poem “The Song of Poppadum” is an exquisite example of how ideas take shape of conceptual metaphors. It was composed in 1914-15 when Maharshi was living in Virupaksha cave where his mother did most of the cooking. One day she asked him to help in making *Poppadum*- a thin cake prepared from black gram flour. By giving instructions to his mother under the pretext of making *poppadum*, Maharshi asked his mother to experience the truth of Being-Awareness-Bliss.

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Metaphor of comparing this purely physical exercise related with cooking to a pure bliss of *Brahman* in its infinite silence runs throughout the poem. Cooking *poppadum* is wholly a metaphorical concept in this poem. There could be no better example of conceptual metaphor than “The Song of Poppadum”.

Black gram is ego, quern is the quest for wisdom, juice of tamarind is holy company, cumin is control of mind, pepper is self-restraint and salt is non-attachment. After grinding all of these in the mortar of Heart and grinding with pestle of mind, one needs to pound with ‘I’ and roll it with a pin of stillness. The frying is to be done in the ghee of ‘*Brahman*’ in the pan of infinite silence. Whatever comes out is the abiding *poppadum* of Self -true and imperishable.

Interaction View of Metaphor

Max Black talks about two types of subjects and defends his interaction view of metaphor in “More about Metaphor” by saying:

The secondary or subsidiary subject is a system rather than an individual thing. The metaphorical utterance works by projecting upon the primary subject. The maker of a metaphorical subject selects, emphasizes, suppresses and organizes features of the primary subject. The two subjects interact either by inciting the hearer to select some of the secondary subject’s properties, or inviting him to construct a parallel implication or inducing him to make parallel changes in secondary subject (Ortony: 27).

Thus the two subjects in metaphor in Maharshi Ramana can be described in one of the above cited ways and the duality of reference can be marked by ‘focus’ and ‘frame’. “The Song of Poppadum” is an exquisite example of interaction view of metaphor as can be seen by applying the features of realized Self to the principal subject of cooking. Here the realized Self is focus and cooking a frame. The True Self after realization is a system rather than an individual thing. When cooking and realizing self interact, the result is remarkable in the form of the indestructible, blissful and ever-abiding Self-a Godly Self.

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The poem thus gives an idea how metaphorical expressions germinate from metaphorical concepts and structure the daily activities of man. The *jnana* and *bhakti marga* are not merely abstract spiritual pursuits of life achievable only in the other world; they are practically possible and attainable in this world while living and doing the mundane activities of day-to-day life. *Bhakti marga* is not separate from *Karma marga*, it is innate-very much there in the life we live. Maharshi never asked any of his disciples to leave everything and go away into a forest forlorn. He asked everyone to pursue the path of self-knowledge while living among the people. It is from this life lived within oneself that one dives and brings out the pearl of Self- pure, abiding and resplendent.

Philosophy and Poetry

The Hindu philosophy recognizes the existence of subtler bodies of human being. These are material, subtle and causal. The five sheaths mentioned in the poem- physical, mental, vital, and intellectual and the blissful- all work in the subtle bodies of man. “Take- the black-gram, ego-self,/Growing in the five-fold body-field”, he says(33). The use of compound words is particularly noticeable in this poem also as they again become metaphors when expanded. “Ego-self ”, Heart-mortar ”, “mind-pestle”and “ body-field” are a few such expressions. Ego-self is black gram and is raw ingredient from which poppadum of realized Self will be prepared. Body consists of five senses and is a field where black gram of ego grows. Cumin seed of mind control needs to be added. After frying over fire of knowledge, ‘I’ is transmuted into abiding self. This is the real recipe of preparing Self. Metaphors have conceptualized in Maharshi’s poetry in the form of linguistic expressions because he has experienced them as he experienced the cooking.

Maharshi conceptualized metaphors in his poetry in such a way that they became an expression of his philosophy. The philosophy of Maharshi Ramana starts with a question “Who am I?” and ends with the realization of Self. Both are ‘I’- one ‘I’ is in bondage, the other is liberated. The bondage and liberation are mere linguistic terms and work in accordance with some basic thing of which they are the modifications. The state of pure being which is common to all and which is always experienced directly by everybody in one’s true nature is self-realization. In

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“Vivekachudamani”, he posits that consciousness of ‘I’ is the unbroken single essence of both **Isvara** and individual. It is the Brahman in ‘I’ the Self which one experiences and finally recognizes as Self-effulgent (208-269). All poetry written by Maharshi is directed towards the realization of this idea which gets conceptualized in the form of different metaphors. A few of them have been enumerated above in the discussion of two poems. The two poems selected for this discussion delineate two basic metaphors conceptualized in Maharshi Ramana’s poetry-the metaphor of marriage in “The Marital Garland of Letters” and the metaphor of cooking in “The Song of Poppadum”.

The Process of Convergence

The two metaphors work and get conceptualized in the respective poems not individually but converge with similes, imagery and irony. One can discern a pattern in the metaphors in the above discussed poems. In “The Marital Garland of Letters”, the main metaphor gets conceptualized in marriage which is considered a sacred union of souls according to Indian thought and psyche. There are other metaphors which serve two purposes, either they are helpful in creating context in which the metaphor of marriage becomes explicitly clear or create a variety and break the monotony of a single metaphor. The similes, irony and imagery also assist in the same way.

Similarly the metaphor of cooking runs throughout “The Song of Poppadum”. Woven around a single metaphor, this small poem is light-hearted. This helps to make the spiritual philosophy of Maharshi Ramana uncomplicated, straightforward and interesting rather than grave and solemn. The first poem is long, profound, intense and explicitly metaphorical, the second is small, deep, witty, humorous and implicitly metaphorical. To conclude, we can say that the metaphors in the given poems pervade in the way we think. They are beyond senses and are embedded in the human psyche. They are vital because they unfold the mysteries of ‘I’ the ego into ‘I’ the Self. They cry the truth of man and the thunderous silence of God (Osborne. 2000: 454). It is between these two ends that Maharshi’s metaphors get conceptualized.

Part of Sadhana

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Metaphors in Maharshi Ramana are deeply entrenched in his mode of sensibility and are directed both by *Karma Marga* and *Jnana Marga* - the path of action and the path of knowledge. These assumptions become conceptualized in his poetry. His spiritual philosophy is not merely a way of meditation but can also be applied in the day to day events of life. The metaphors in his poetry come from daily happenings of life which are not an obstacle to *Sadhna* but a way of *Sadhna*. Some of the metaphors recur in his poems while others occur infrequently, however together they weave the fabric of thought dotted with similes, imagery, irony and metonymy. Maharshi's poetry is full of metaphors which have their origin in a world beyond senses and are embedded deep into his consciousness. However these metaphors are not divorced from the realities of life. Thus conceptualized, they convey a philosophy of spiritual life unpretentiously which otherwise would be abstract and difficult to follow.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Gender Difference in Code-Switching and Code-Mixing in Text Messages of Undergraduate Students

Rida Rabbani, M.A. Student in English Language and Literature

Hammad Mushtaq, M.S. English

Abstract

This study analyzes the gender difference in code switching and code mixing between English and Urdu languages in text messages composed by undergraduate students. The population included 974 students of Foundation University while the sample consisted of 42 students. The sample was randomly collected. The research used the code switching and code mixing theories as tool of analysis. The data was collected directly from the students of two university colleges, i.e. Foundation University College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and Foundation University Institute of Management and Engineering Sciences.

Twenty-one female and twenty-one male undergraduate students were asked to forward three text messages and the data thus collected was analyzed using SPSS software. The messages were analyzed by finding differences between the SMS's sent by the female and male undergraduate students. The frequency of code switching and code mixing in the two genders was also examined. The mean of code switching and code mixing scores of the sample was almost normally distributed which proposed that boys and girls do not differ in code switching and code mixing scores. The study established that there was no gender difference involved in code switching and code mixing in text messages of the undergraduate students

Key words: code switching, code mixing, gender differences, text messaging/SMS

Introduction

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Code-mixing can be understood as the switching of languages that occurs within sentences, usually at the level of words or idiomatic expressions. Code-mixing is a reality because these days an increasingly large number of people are bilingual, trilingual or multilingual. Chances of code switching and code mixing proliferate when people from different cultures and speaking different languages interact with each other. Code-mixing has become socially and communicatively essential and we just cannot spend a day without indulging in it. It helps us in developing and improving relationships, and also enables us to adapt to any environment we are in. Language is not just a mean of expressing or conveying meaning, it also offers a look into the culture of the speakers; therefore, it presents itself as an interesting topic to scholars.

Many of the world's bilingual communities produce discourses that involve the interchange of two or more languages. This type of discourse has been variously termed "code-switching", "code-alternation", or "language-mixing". Since the late 1970s, a number of studies have appeared in linguistics journals on such issues. The term "code-mixing" refers to mixing of two or more languages within a sentence while the term "code-switching" refers to mixing of two or more languages at the clause level in a discourse in a fully grammatical way (Poplack, 2001). Code-mixing is defined by Bhatia and Ritchie as "the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence" (2004). However, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether it is a case of borrowing or code-mixing (Myers-Scotton 2002; Poplack 2001).

Studies of code mixing have generally dealt with the issues of oral language and cross-lingual mixing. Myers-Scotton (1993), in this regard, has proposed the Markedness Model and posited that code-switching is often utilized for in a social situation for negotiation purpose, and code-switching, functionally speaking, can be considered a social occurrence. Stanlaw (1987) mentions a significant reason for the use of loanwords in English is "that they provide linguistic tools that individuals can use in personal and highly creative ways." Takashi (1997) opposed Stanlaw and posited that it appears "inadequate to attribute the high number of English elements which do not fill lexical gaps to the loanword's modern connotation alone."

Samsuri (1983: 9) in his book, *Analisa Bahasa*, asserts that language is a tool that is used to express people's thoughts and feelings, their will and their behaviors; a tool that is used to influence and to be influenced, and language is a first base and the root for human society. Many people often use the English language in their conversation. Nile defines code switching as a phenomenon in which two parties converse to "signal changes in context by using alternate grammatical systems or subsystems, or codes." He further states that "the mental representation of these codes cannot be directly observed, either by analysts or by parties in interaction" (2006, p.17).

English expressions are frequently found in the conversation of Pakistani youth. Code-mixing refers to the mixing of two or more languages or language varieties in speech. Code mixing is considered to be similar to practice of pidgins; a pidgin, however, is produced across communities that do not have a shared language. Code-mixing occurs where more than two languages are shared by the members of different communities. Code switching can be defined as the use of two or more languages in the same speech context. After a lot of

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research on code switching, scholars and researchers from all over the world came out with their own definitions.

Bokamba (1987) considers code-switching to be “the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event” while he considers code-mixing to be “the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases and clauses from a co-operative activity where the participants, in order to infer what is intended, must reconcile what they hear with what they understand”.

Bloom and Gumperz (1972 cited in Namba, 2000) identify two types of code switching. Firstly, situational code switching where the speaker will switch their code depending on the appropriate situation at that instant and secondly, metaphorical code switching where the speakers will switch their code in order to attain a particular communicative effect.

Spolsky (1998: 45) says, "It is very common that people develop some knowledge and ability in a second language and so become bilingual. The simplest definition of a bilingual is a person who has some functional ability in a second language. This may vary from a limited ability in one or more domains, to very strong command of both languages."

Wardhaugh (1992:107) says, "Conversational code-mixing involves the deliberate mixing of two languages without an associated topic change."

Hudson (1996: 53) defines code-mixing as a case "where a fluent bilingual talking to another fluent bilingual changes language without any change at all in the situation." He also says, "To get the right effect the speakers balance the two languages against each other as a kind of linguistic cocktail."

According to Haugen (1953:280), "The strongest possible motive for language learning is the need of associating with the speakers of the language". Staneley Lieberman (1981:173) says, "The linguistic demands of the work-world are among the most important forces influencing the acquisition of a second language".

Purpose of This Research

The purpose of this research is to analyze the gender difference in code-switching and code-mixing among university students. Gendered differences are those that society associates with men and women and are not necessarily the outcomes of biological factors. Research reveals that males and females repeatedly do not differ in the ways specific by culture stereotypes. Males are typically larger as compared to women and have more strength than them throughout most of their lifespan. Right from birth boys are more active than girls (Eaton & Enns, 1986). In contrast, girls have less mortality rates and are less susceptible to stress and disease (Zaslow & Hayes, 1986). Research suggests differences between males and females in several areas i.e. verbal ability, cognitive, aggression, help and support, emotions, communication.

Hypothesis

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1. There is a high frequency of code switching and code mixing between Urdu and English languages both among male and female students.
2. Female students do more code switching and code mixing than male students in text messaging.

Objectives of the Study

1. To measure the frequency of code switching and code-mixing between Urdu and English languages among male and female undergraduate students in text messaging/SMS.
2. To determine the gender difference in code switching and code mixing between Urdu and English in SMS of undergraduate students.

Sample

Students of this study constituted population of Foundation University, Rawalpindi. Distribution of sample across different groups was 21 male and 21 female students which make a total of 42 students. The age range was 19-22. All the subjects were students.

Instrument

The design of the study was descriptive. Twenty-one female and 21 male undergraduate students of Foundation University were asked to send three messages to the researcher's cell phone number so that the frequency of code switching and code mixing can be found in these messages. Code-switching and code-mixing theories were employed to analyze SMS's of male and female students. Subjects' responses were transcribed for study.

Significance

The result of the study is helpful in finding answers to the questions that cannot be obtained through interviews and observations. It is helpful in exploring the variances among male and female students in the level of code switching and code mixing in text messaging. The results and findings will also aid the future linguistic researchers in understanding the code-switching and code-mixing phenomena in gender perspective.

Procedure

The data collection procedure took 5 days. The male and female students were informed about the purpose and objectives of the research and their consent was taken for being part of the study. They were asked to disclose their age whereas they were told that writing their names was not mandatory. The Code Switching and Code Mixing theories were applied as tools of analysis. The data was collected directly from the students of two universities i.e. Foundation University College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and Foundation University Institute of Management and Engineering Sciences. Twenty-one female and twenty-one male undergraduate students were asked to forward three SMS each from their inbox to the researcher's cell phone. They were also told that the messages should not be forwarded/pre-typed messages. They were also told that their responses would only be used for research purposes and their cell phone numbers and names would not be revealed in the research

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process. After collection of data their responses were analyzed with the help of scoring method. Data was computed through computer software SPSS and *t* tests were applied.

Research Questions

1. What is the frequency of Urdu to English and English to Urdu code switching and code mixing among male and female students in SMS's sent by undergraduate students?
2. Is there any gender difference of code switching and code mixing in SMS sent by undergraduate students?

Table 4.1

Frequency distribution of Code Switching

Class intervals	Frequency
0 – 1	8
2 – 3	9
4 – 5	10
6 – 7	6
8 – 9	3
10 – 11	3
12 – 13	0
14 – 15	3

N= 42

There is one number difference between class intervals. While making the class intervals the lowest and highest scores of the sample were taken and the range of class intervals was between two digits (0-1). The number falls within the class intervals e.g. 0-1 and 8 is the frequency. According to the above table the frequency distribution scores of code switching were almost normally distributed. The above distribution is also represented in the form of line graph.

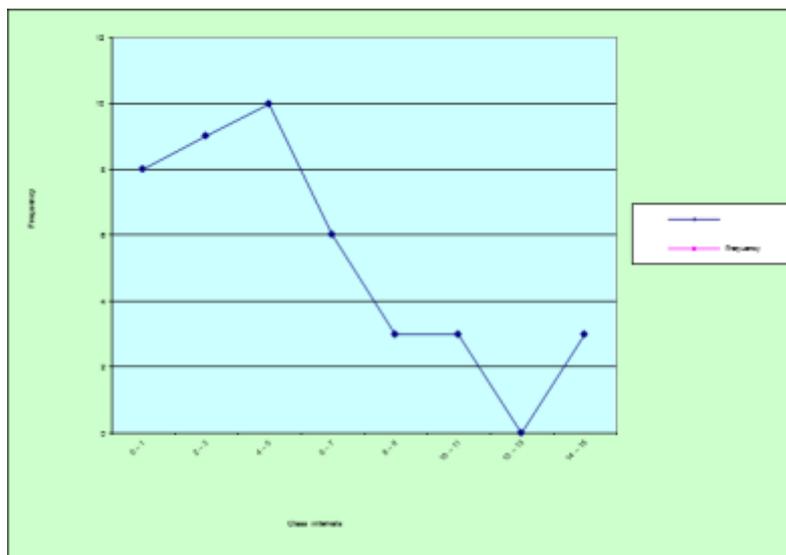


Fig. 1 Graph Representing Frequency distribution of Code Switching

Table 4.2

Frequency distribution of Code Mixing

Class intervals	Frequency
0 – 1	14
2 – 3	14
4 – 5	6
6 – 7	2
8 – 9	2
10 – 11	4

N= 42

There is one number difference between class intervals. The illustration indicates that the frequency scores of the code mixing scores were not normally distributed. The number falls within the class intervals e.g. 0-1. The highest frequency in code switching and code mixing is 14. So, the code mixing has a higher frequency. The above distribution is also represented in the form of line graph.

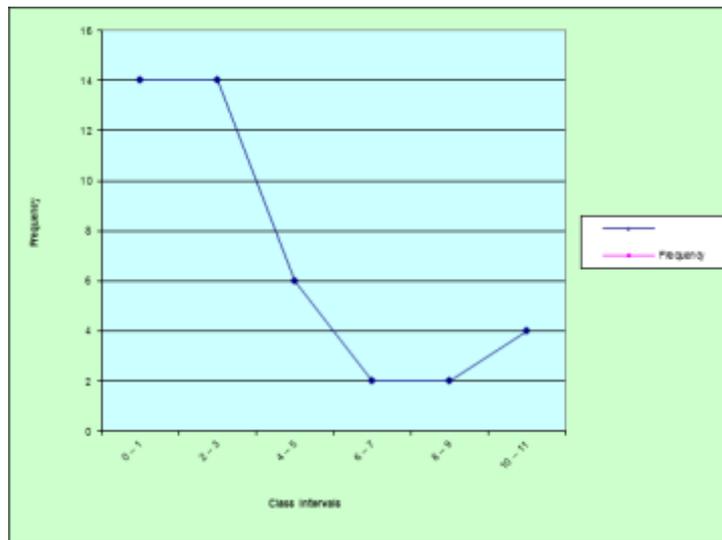


Fig. 2 Graph Representing Frequency distribution of Code Mixing

Table 4.3

Significance of Mean, Standard Deviation between Girls and Boys on Code Switching

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	SE Diff	t. Test	P
Male	21	5.6667	4.09			
				1.25	1.009	.05
Female	21	4.2875	4.00			

df= 19

$t_{.05} = 2.09$

The t value of 2.09 could not reach the critical t value at .05 level of significance. Therefore, there is no significant difference between mean code switching scores of male and female students. So, our hypothesis was rejected.

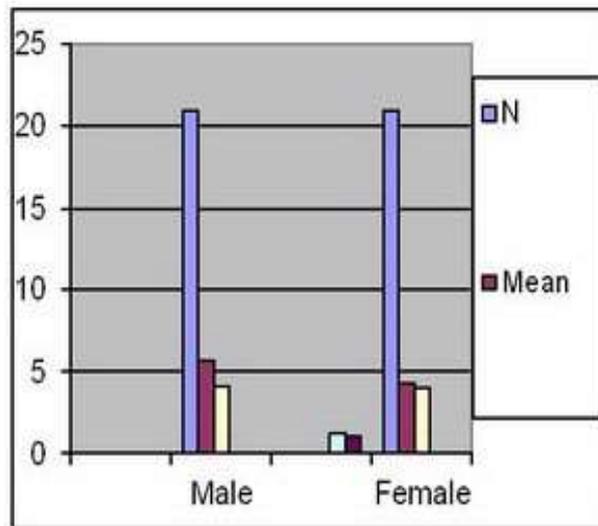


Fig. 3 Significance difference between code switching of boys and girls

Table 4.4

Significance Difference between Girls Code Mixing

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	SE Diff	t. Test	P
Male	21	3.5238	3.40028			
				1	.125	.05
Female	21	3.6667	3.00555			

df = 19

$t_{.05} = 2.09$

There is no significant difference between mean code mixing scores of male and female students because the t value 2.09 could not reach the .05 level of significance. So, our hypothesis was rejected.

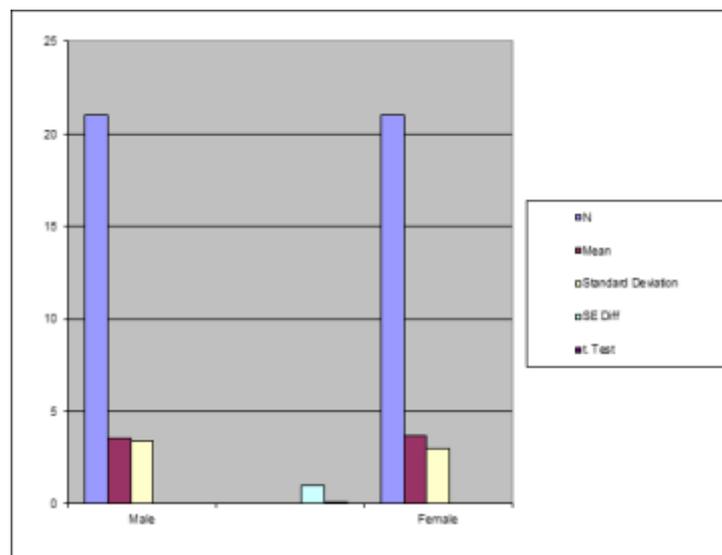


Fig. 4 Significance difference between code mixing of boys and girls

Findings

The findings of the study were:

1. The frequency distribution of code switching scores was 8, 9, 10, 6, 3,3,0,3 = 42 this shows that the frequency scores of code switching were almost normally distributed. (Table no.1)
2. The frequency distribution of the code mixing was 14,14,6,2,2,4 = 42, which depicts that the frequency distribution of the code mixing was not normally distributed. (Table no.2)
3. The mean value of code switching scores of boys was 5.66 and of girls was 4.28, standard deviation value of boys was 4.09 and of girls was 4.00, and the standard error of difference was 1.25. The t value of 1.009 could not reach the critical t value of .05, level of significance. Therefore there is no significant difference between mean of the boys and girls code switching scores. (Table no.3)
4. The mean value of code mixing scores of boys was 3.52 and of girls was 3.66, standard deviation value of boys was 3.40 and of girls was 3.00. The standard error of the difference was 1 and the t value calculated was .125, which is non-significant at the t value of .05 level of significance. Therefore there is no significant difference between the mean of the boys and girls code mixing scores of sample. (Table no.4)

Conclusion

Code switching and code mixing between Urdu and English languages frequently takes place in SMS messages among university students. The code switching scores of the sample were, almost, normally distributed which means that boys and girls did not diverge in code switching scores. There is no difference between code mixing scores of boys and girls. This means that the second hypothesis was rejected. Finally, the advent of new modes of communication like SMS over the past two decades has resulted in increased indulgence in

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code-switching and code mixing throughout Pakistan which also suggests that extensive code-switching and code mixing may lead to entirely novel linguistic varieties.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Vowel Space Areas across Age, Gender and Dialects in Telugu

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Abstract

Vowel space is an acoustic measure for indexing the size of the vowel articulatory working space constructed using F1 and F2 of vowels /i/, /a/ and /u/. Watson et.al., (2004) reported significant differences in the vowel space among different age groups (50s, 70s and 80s). Larger vowel space and area could be indicators of clear speech and used for judging the speech intelligibility (Carrell, 1984; Blomgren, Robb & Chen, 1998; Ferguson & Kewley-Port, 2007).

Though vowel space has been used as a diagnostic tool in Telugu population, no studies on the vowel space across the age, gender and region groups exist in Telugu literature. This justified the current study on obtaining vowel space for different age, gender and region groups of Telugu language. Speech samples consisting of target word in CVCV/CVCCV context with varying preceding consonants were recorded from 72 Telugu speaking normal individuals in age groups (Group I: 06 to 09 years; Group II: 13 – 15 years; Group III: 20 – 30 years) from three different regions (Coastal, Rayalaseema and Telengana).

Analysis of the recorded speech was done using CSL 4500. Formant frequencies F1 and F2 were recorded to draw the vowel triangle and to calculate the vowel space. The results suggest that with age increase the vowel space decreased; females have larger vowel space than males and

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samples of Coastal region speaker have larger vowel space followed by Telengana and Rayalaseema regions.

Keywords: *Formant frequency, Vowels, Telugu, vowel space.*

Abbreviations

F1 and F2 – First and Second Formant frequencies.

Introduction

The vowel space is a graphical method to represent speech sounds, such as vowels, and their location in both "acoustic" and "articulatory" space. The first two formants are used to plot the vowel space, where the vertical axis represents the first formant frequency (F1) and the horizontal axis, the second formant frequency with the lines connecting the points representing the gap between the first two formants (F2-F1). This 2-dimensional representation corresponds, to a certain degree, to tongue body position, in an articulatory space.

The method usually used is to set up an imaginary "vowel space" and define vowels by their position in the space. Vowel space is an acoustic measure for indexing the size of the vowel articulatory working space constructed using F1 and F2 of vowels /i/, /a/ and /u/. Watson et.al., (2004) reported significant differences in the vowel space among different age groups (50s, 70s and 80s). Larger vowel space and area has been considered as an indicator of clear speech and used for judging the speech intelligibility (Carrell, 1984; Blomgren, Robb & Chen, 1998; Ferguson & Kewley-Port, 2007).

Formant Frequency

The formant frequency values differ across individuals, gender and dialects. In spite of these variations, the vowels are perceived and produced in similar manner. To understand how they differ, the vowel space is used. Literature has reported that, in spite of differences in the formant frequency values which influence the phonetic quality of particular vowels, the extended vowel space area is unaffected by dialectal variation. No gender variations in the vowel space used were observed in three distinct regional dialects of American English. (Jacewicz, Allen Fox, & Salmons, 2007).

Formant is defined as a property of the resonating vocal tract (Fant, 1960). However, Monsen & Engebretson (1983) defined formants as the property of the acoustic signal which has concentration of energy along a frequency scale, defined by the prominence of several harmonics. The formants of a speech sound are known as the first formant (F1), second formant (F2), third formant (F3) and so on. The formant frequencies of vowels are affected by the length of the pharyngeal-oral tract, the vocal tract constriction and degree of narrowness of the constriction (Pickett, 1996).

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Formant frequencies are related to the volume of the cavities in front of (oral cavity) and behind the constriction (pharyngeal cavity) of the vocal tract. In general, larger vocal tracts with larger volumes will resonate at lower frequencies, while smaller volumes resonate at higher frequencies. Formant frequencies are influenced by the vocal tract configuration. It has been presumed that the 1st formant corresponds to the back cavity and the 2nd formant to the front cavity of the mouth (Joos, 1948). Hasegawa-Johnson et.al., (2003) reported that formant frequencies and log area were independent of vowel place. F2 is maximally sensitive to area changes near the vocal tract constriction. F1 is maximally sensitive to area near the glottis, except for vowel /i/. In the literature, it is proved that, the first two formants, and in some cases, the first three formants are most important for vowel perception. (Monsen & Engebretson, 1983; Carlson & Granström, 1978; Carlson, Granström & Klatt, 1979).

Some Studies

Eguchi and Hirish (1969), Kent (1976), Kent, Weismer and Kent, (1989) and Most. et al.,(2000) reported changes in formant frequencies (F1 and F2) across the age groups in English vowels. This difference in the formant frequencies logically should and will be reflected in the vowel space used by the different age groups. Watson, Palethorpe & Harrington (2004) in their study on vowels in New Zeland English speakers, have reported that, F1 lowering was seen over the age. Cox (2004) in his study on understanding the acoustic characteristics of /hVd/ vowels reported that, gender differences in formant values demonstrate non-linear variation. The open vowels when compared to close vowels had clear gender variations. Man (2007) reported that F1 and F2 formant frequency values for the vowels produced by male speakers were lower than those of female speakers. They also reported that the relative distance between the mid vowels and the high vowels is greater for female speakers than for the male speakers in the vowel ellipses.

Iso vowel lines have been used in different regional languages and pathological cases. Using iso-vowel lines, F1, F2 were plotted in a myositis case, where all the formant frequencies were much lower than the expected normative data. Vowels /i/ and /u/ were distorted and the investigator emphasized the need for periodic spectrographic analysis of speech to monitor the progress made from medical treatment and speech therapy (Duggirala, 1983-1984).

Children with history of tracheotomy presented varied F2 dimension for /i/ and /u/ and F1 dimension for /□/ and /i/. Iso-vowel lines were used to map the results and were found to be dispersed. Based on this, it was stated that children undergoing tracheotomy would experience difficulty with tongue extension and retraction (Kertoy et al., 1999) and the study highlighted the use of iso-vowel lines and formant analysis in describing the speech characteristics in children with history of tracheotomy.

Whitehill, Ciocca, Chan & Samman (2004) analyzed vowel space, formant frequencies (F1 & F2) in glossectomy patients and found that, F1 and its range did not show any significant difference; however, F2 was lower for vowel /i/ and its range was restricted when compared to

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control speakers. They concluded that, among the parameters studied, F2 range could serve as a sensitive correlate for vowel intelligibility for speakers with partial glossectomy.

F1 and F2 Variance

From the literature it is evident that F1 and F2 of vowels vary based on vowel, age, gender and dialects. Although attempts have been made to study the vowel formants in Telugu, there is no published literature on F1 F2 data, iso-vowel lines, vowel space across the age, gender and regions. Studies on different clinical population have reported that, that iso-vowel lines help in differential diagnosis and in monitoring progress in rehabilitation (Duggirala, 1983-1984; Whiteh ill, Ciocca, Chan & Samman, 2004; Kertoy et al., 1999). The aim of the current study was to study F1, F2 and calculate vowel space for normal individuals in different age, gender and region groups in Telugu.

Method

Material

A list of 60 meaningful words (Krishna, 2009) consisting of all ten short and long vowels present in Telugu, in all possible preceding consonant and semivowel (CVCCV/CVVCV) context was used. The target word was embedded in the final position of a carrier sentence “/i: padamu (target word) /” (This word is _____), to obtain reasonable uniform stress and intonation patterns (Bennett, 1981; Most, Amir & Tobin, 2000). The words were grouped based on their manner and place of articulation and voicing features of the preceding consonant.

Participants

A total of 72 Telugu speaking normal individuals from three different regions (Coastal, Rayalaseema and Telengana) in three different age groups (Group I: 06 to 09 years; Group II: 13 – 15 years; Group III: 20 – 30 years) with equal gender ratio participated in the study. The mean age of Group I was 8 years; Group II, 13 years; and Group III 23 years. All the participants were born in Andhra Pradesh and were native Telugu speakers. A qualified Speech-Language Pathologist and Audiologist evaluated and certified their speech, language, and hearing, as being normal at the time of data collection.

Procedure

After an informed consent, the randomly selected participants from the respective groups were comfortably seated in a quiet room and their speech samples were recorded using a condenser microphone and Wave Surfer recording software. The participants were asked to read the sentence presented to them visually. The speech sample was recorded at a sampling rate of 22,050 kHz and bit rate of 256 kbps. A total of 4320 samples were analyzed for the formant frequencies of the target vowel present in the target word using Computerized Speech Lab (CSL) 4500. An anti-aliasing filter with a 10 kHz cutoff frequency was used before A/D conversion and a pre-emphasis factor of 0.8 was applied.

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The researcher re-measured 10% of the tokens (random selection) after 6 months of the first measure for intra-judge reliability. Results from the paired *t*-test revealed the two measures as highly reliable ($t_{(431)} = 1.026$, $p = 0.309$). An experienced Speech Language Pathologist, unaware of the purpose of the study, measured temporal and spectral characteristics of 10% of the tokens (random selection) for inter-judge reliability. Results from the paired *t*-test suggested high reliability ($t_{(431)} = 0.10$, $p = 0.920$).

Mean and standard deviation values were used to summarize the variations in F1 and F2 of the vowel in different age, gender and region groups. To evaluate the effect of covariates (age, gender and region) on formant frequencies, a multilevel approach (Quene & Bergh, 2004) was used. All the statistical analysis was carried out using the SPSS 16 and MIWin 1.1 software.

Results

The current study aimed at studying the First and Second formant frequencies of the vowels in Telugu across regions, gender and age groups and drawing vowel space to understand the acoustic/phonetic characteristics among these groups. Table 1 represents the mean F1 and F2 values obtained for vowels /i/, /a/ and /u/ and their standard deviation.

Table 1: Mean F1 & F2 (Hz) and SD of /i/, /a/ and /u/ vowels in Telugu speakers.

N=4320

Vowel	Format Frequency	Mean	SD
/i/	F1	545.23	81.7
	F2	2494.05	342.14
/a/	F1	809.3	124.26
	F2	1479.72	188.42
/u/	F1	535.38	72.85
	F2	947.08	80.6

Scrutiny of the F1 data revealed that, central low mid vowel /a/ had the highest mean F1 followed by /i/ and back high vowel /u/. Front high vowel /i/ has highest mean F2, followed by central low mid vowel /a/ and high back vowel /u/. Further, the data was analyzed for each age group, children, adolescent and adults. The results are depicted in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean F1 & F2 (Hz) and SD of /i/, /a/ and /u/ vowels in Telugu speakers across different age groups.

N=4320

Vowel		Children		Adolescent		Adult	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
/i/	F1	586.82	82.87	546.66	72.57	502.77	486.98
	F2	2529.8	356.53	2563.53	347.19	2390.78	300.4
/a/	F1	885.76	87.61	811.44	112.63	730.67	713.76
	F2	1569.16	153.47	1490.76	178.18	1378.64	182.41
/u/	F1	572.45	66.48	538.15	69.13	495.7	487.39
	F2	951.12	80.19	947.29	75.14	942.88	86.29

From Table 2 it is observed that, F1 for all vowels (/i/, /a/ and /u/) reduced as the age increased. Except for vowel /i/, F2 decreased as the age progressed. For vowel /i/, F2 had maximum of 2563.53 Hz and reduced in adults. Among all age groups, central low mid vowel /a/ had the highest mean F1 followed by /i/ and back high vowel /u/. Front high vowel /i/ had highest mean F2, followed by central low mid vowel /a/ and high back vowel /u/. The results obtained for both genders for F1 and F2 are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Mean F1 & F2 (Hz) and SD of /i/, /a/ and /u/ vowels in Telugu speakers across the genders.

N=4320

Vowel	Formants	Female		Male	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
/i/	F1	580.56	65.93	509.57	80.8
	F2	2598.3	295.78	2388.82	254.64
/a/	F1	851.47	97.99	766.83	133.29
	F2	1541.05	164.17	1418.79	191.46
/u/	F1	564.08	60.2	506.6	73.16
	F2	947.74	83.26	946.44	77.96

From Table 3 it is observed that, gender differences do exist for both formant frequencies across the vowels. Females showed higher values compared to males for all formant frequencies and for all vowels compared. Here too, central low mid vowel /a/ had the highest mean F1 followed by /i/ and back high vowel /u/. Front high vowel /i/ had highest mean F2, followed by

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central low mid vowel /a/ and high back vowel /u/. F1 and F2 values were compared for the three vowels /i/, /a/ and /u/ across the three dialects. The results are given in Table 4.

Table 4: Mean F1 & F2 (Hz) and SD of /i/, /a/ and /u/ vowels in Telugu speakers across the three dialects.

N=4320

Vowels		Coastal		Rayalseema		Telengana	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
/i/	F1	530.87	81.55	552.71	88.38	552.2	73.58
	F2	2501.67	326.23	2522.93	367.55	2457.85	333.45
/a/	F1	797.83	129.67	795.29	117.13	834.84	122.36
	F2	1477.67	185.51	1482.04	188.77	1479.42	192.06
/u/	F1	525.92	77.27	542.56	71.97	537.59	68.43
	F2	947.61	86.75	942.92	81.87	950.66	72.88

From Table 4, it is evident that, formant frequencies F1 and F2 varied between vowels studied across the regions. Vowel /i/ and /u/ had higher F1 in speakers of Rayalaseema followed by Telengana and Coastal region while for vowel /a/, speakers from Telengana had higher F1 followed by Coastal and Rayalseema. A similar pattern was observed for F2 formant among all the vowels. Central low mid vowel /a/ had the highest mean F1 followed by /i/ and back high vowel /u/ among the regions. Front high vowel /i/ had highest mean F2, followed by central low mid vowel /a/ and high back vowel /u/.

The vowel space in the current study was drawn using PRAAT software considering F1 and F2 values of /i/, /a/ and /u/ of the overall data across different groups (age, gender and region) as depicted in Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively. Vowel space area was calculated by using the model of Blomgren et.al., (1998), for the different groups of the current study and presented in Table 5

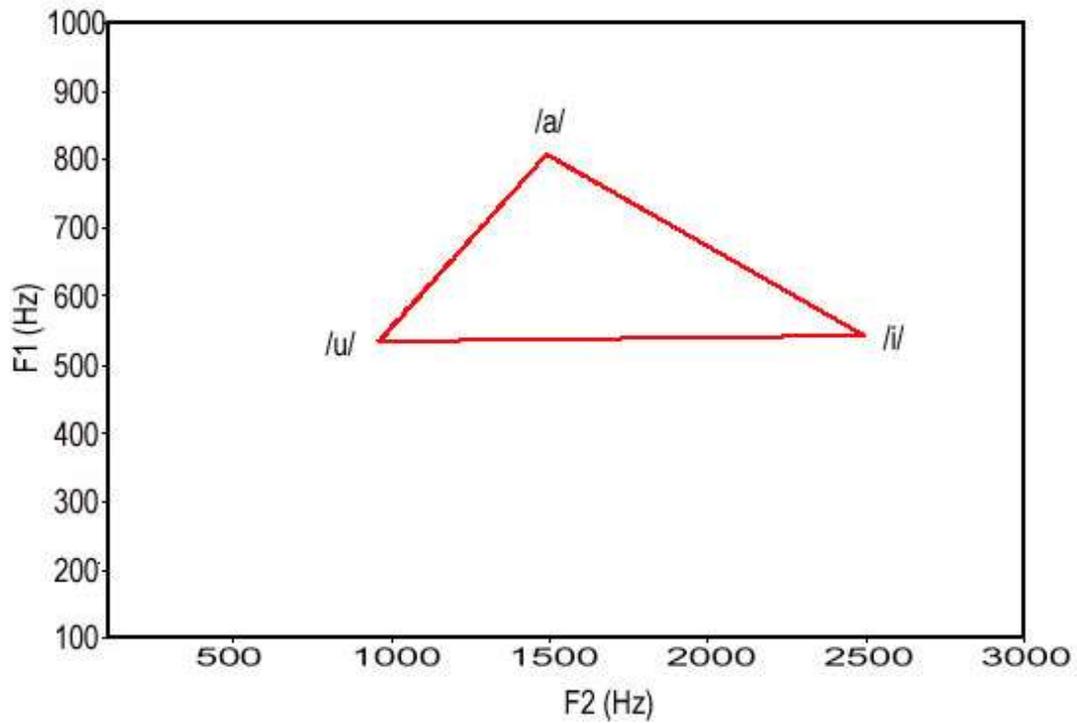


Figure 4.3.1: Vowel space for vowel /a/, /i/ and /u/

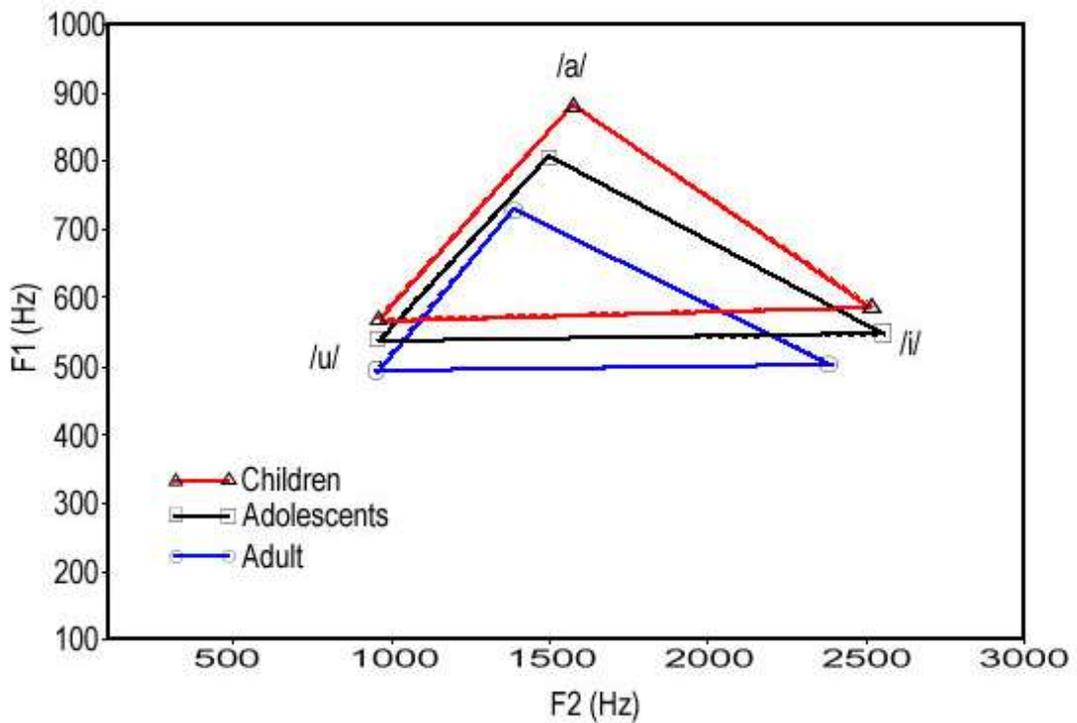


Figure 4.3.2: Vowel space for age categories

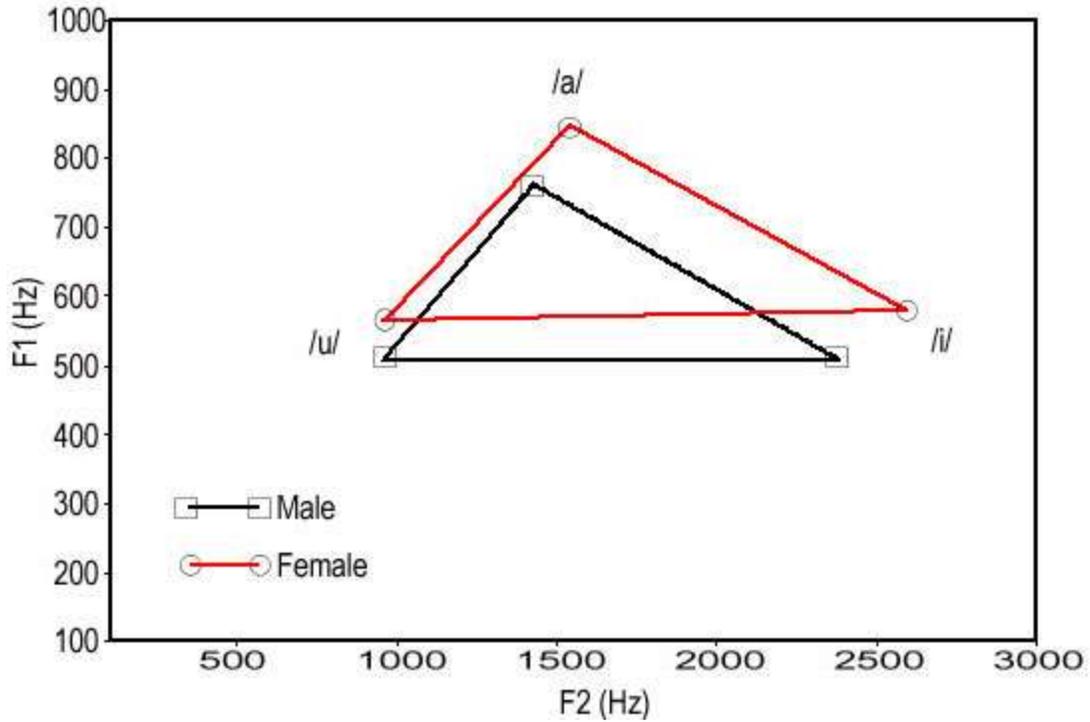


Figure 4.3.3: Vowel space for gender categories

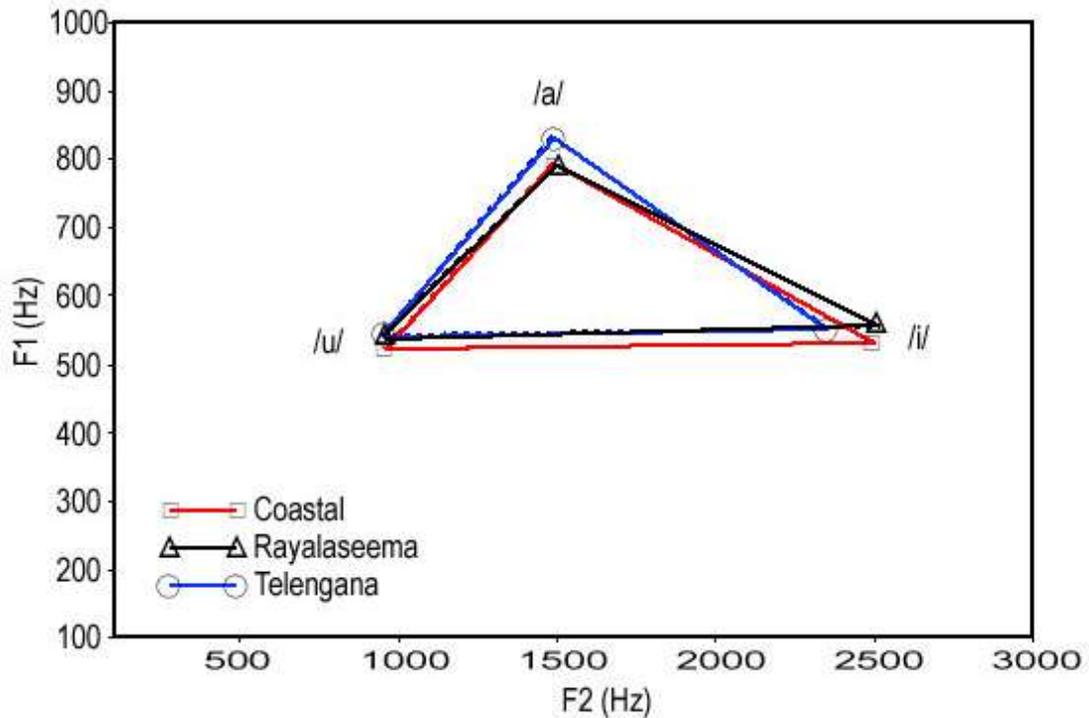


Figure 4.3.4: Vowel space for region categories

Table 5: Vowel space area in different groups

	Overall	Age			Gender		Region		
		Children	Adolescents	Adult	Female	Male	Coastal	Rayalaseema	Telengana
Area (Mz ²)	209279	242631	218412	168614	232167	186752	210019	197170	219822

On scrutiny of the data in Table 5 and Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4, it is observed that vowel space is different between the groups. Though the age groups considered in the current study are not the same as in literature (Watson et.al.,2004), age related changes in the vowel space did emerge.

Conclusion

In the current study, smaller vowel space is noted for adults as compared to children, for males as compared to females and for speakers from Rayalaseema region as compared to Coastal or Telengana. The presence of the larger vowel space and area could be indicators of clear speech and could be used for judging the intelligibility of speech (Carrell, 1984; Blomgren, Robb & Chen, 1998; Ferguson & Kewley-Port, 2007).

In the current study Telegana region had larger vowel space which could be interpreted as speakers from Telengana have more clear speech. This is not true as per literature, which reports that speakers from Coastal region have more clear speech. Female having higher vowels space as compared to males indicates females having clearer speech than males. Blomgren et.al., (1998), Klich & May (1982), Duggirala (1983-1984) and Turner, Tjaden & Weismer (1995) have used vowel space in differential diagnosis. The data obtained in this study could be used by the clinicians in differential diagnosis of various communication disorders. With contradictory reports on association between vowel space and vowel intelligibility (Ferguson & Kewley-Port, 2007) more studies on its clinical utility are warranted.

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12 : 1 January 2012

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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An Analysis of Deviations of Register in T. S. Eliot's Poem *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*

Muhammad Saleem, M.Phil.

ABSTRACT

This paper analyses T. S. Eliot's poem *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock* as a piece of literary collage by way of exploring various deviations of register in it. T. S. Eliot's modern poetic sensibility, in its creative processes, tends to hug the shores of different registers, discourses and disciplines of knowledge. The words that he borrows from registers of medical profession, marine world, smoky atmosphere, polluted urban landscapes, religion, commonplace and absurd current cultural behaviours and literature are metaphorised and proverbialised in his literary collage. Their surrealistic nature does at once familiarize them with the reader. This orientation of modernity helps the poet to portray skillfully the feelings, situations and dimensions of modern life actualized through characters like Prufrock.

The study at the lexical, phrase and clause level consists of three phases of identification, description and interpretation of the violations of poetic register in the poem. These borrowings from different registers and discourses are not only to defamiliarise and foreground the text; they also betray the exact size and colour of the psychological conditions and emotions of the persona. These irregularities of content that point towards the unification of modern learning and knowledge are the chief sources to prove strength, shine and weave of the modern poem.

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Key Words: Deviations of Register, Literary Stylistics, T. S. Eliot, The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock, Foregrounding.

1. Introduction

Learning, in modern terms, is no more linked with once watertight compartmentalization of different disciplines of knowledge; vast fuzziness at the boundaries of disciplines and overlapping of the modern branches of knowledge is a common phenomenon today. Under the influence of this fashion/trend the modern poets “asset their freedom from constraints of ‘poetical’ language” with “an unprecedented audacity” (Leech, 1989, p. 49-50).

Wide and deep observation, vast experience, mature wisdom, scholarly outlook and superb sensibility of poets like Larkin, Ezra Pound and T.S. Eliot propel them to “make use of the stylistic device of transposing pieces of ordinary, non-poetic language into a poetic context” (Leech, 1989, p.59) and graft the borrowings of words, phrases and sentences from the multiplicity of non-poetic registers into the poetic discourse.

This method of “composition recalls the painter’s technique of ‘collage’” (Leech, 1989, p.58). T.S. Eliot’s poetry is an example of literary collage as we meet here a lot of deviations of register and mixing/mingling of registers rubbing shoulders with the poetic diction incongruously. Nearly all the deviations of register in the poem *The Love song of J. Alfred Prufrock* work as metaphors. Holme says that a metaphor consists of two domains: “source domain and target domain” (Holme, 2004, p.17). The source domain maps onto the target domain. Metaphors create new meanings. In this process the reader has to abandon the literal meanings and resort to the imaginative meanings.

Geoffrey N. Leech’s noted book on literary stylistics *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry* is chosen to work as the theoretical frame for the present study.

2. Linguistic Items Referring to Medical Profession and Routine Activities

The third line of the poem ‘Like a patient etherized upon a table’ is an example of register borrowing; the linguistic chunk ‘a patient etherized upon a table’ belongs to the medical register. This phrase is a common place practice in the medical register but it turns into a powerful metaphor of modern life when grafted in the poem; it is to serve different artistic purposes.

First, it foregrounds the start of the poem to attract the attention of the reader. Second, this metaphysical conceit is, in fact, to shock and destabilize the reader; it tells us, categorically, about the total paralysis of the persona; ether is “not the breath of the spirit but the deadener of consciousness and volition” (Drew, 1950, p.54); this chunk of medical register not only materialises a psychological state of the persona, it also conveys the size and colour of that state. It is described with finality that if ‘Let us go’ pointed to some type of possibility for an action at the start of the interior monologue, ‘Like a patient etherized upon a table’ does roll it back.

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The clause 'I have measured out my life with coffee spoons' itself echoes the disposition of a literary collage. The phrase 'coffee spoons' refers to the register of kitchen. To measure out life collocates with evenings, mornings and afternoons, but to use it with 'coffee spoon' is a deviant use; the recontextualisation of this chunk transfers its semantics into the pragmatics. The transplantation of a non-poetic expression 'coffee spoons' into poetic discourse, here, concentrates upon the noisy, mechanical, disturbed and lifeless mornings and afternoons of the persona.

Each and every moment of the modern man's life is under the grind and din of the 'coffee spoons' which symbolizes the latest practices and measures of the present civilization which is enveloped in artificiality only. Traditionally, coffee taking is an important activity because it leads to the doing of some important task. But now, with the present persona, this principle of cause and effect is inverted. Here the din of the coffee spoon draws a parallel to the current absurd life which is essentially noisy in its composition.

The persona is enthusiastic to seek more and more shelter and refuge in 'time' to avoid action; but time increases his hollowness, unease and tension only; and it is tragic of him. But when he reaches the line 'Before the taking of a toast and tea', the ridicule of the persona knows no bounds. The lexical items 'a toast' and 'tea' deal with the register of food. Their use in the new context mataphorises them. In their implicational suggestions they stand for substanceless crutches that are resorted to because of the absence of integrity of character, self assertion and confidence in the persona.

3. Lexical Items Referring to Urban Landscapes and Fog

The following lines present an example of register mixing to describe the polluted urban landscapes:

Let us go, through certain half-deserted streets,
The muttering retreats
Of restless nights in one-night cheap hotels
And sawdust restaurants with oyster-shells:
Streets that follow like a tedious argument
Of insidious intent (4-9)

The linguistic expressions 'The muttering retreats', 'oyster-shells', 'one-night cheap hotels/And sawdust restaurants' and 'tedious argument' are related to the registers of army, fish, hotels and logic, respectively. This mixing of different registers is not a normal usage of language; it is a marked use to turn the start of the poem unusual and signaled, to attract the attention of the reader and evoke some desired aesthetic and poetic effects. These different images crystallize the abundance of psychological impasses and mental "locations" (Scofield, 1988, p.58) which will keep the persona involved in his internal world, never to allow him to come to the surface for

action. These various places and locations are the cause which results in effect of ‘a patient etherised upon the table’.

The fog scene presents a striking example of the “incongruity of register mingling” (Leech, 1989, p.50). Different categories of lexemes and linguistic chunks are yoked together, to give birth to the impression and effect of defamiliarisation. The linguistic expressions ‘back’, ‘muzzle’ and ‘tongue’ represent the registers consisting of the parts of an animal’s body and the verbal chunks like ‘slipped by the terrace’, ‘made a sudden leap’, ‘seeing’, ‘curled’, ‘lingered’, ‘stand’ and ‘rubs’ stand for the registers of the motions and actions of the parts of the body; ‘The yellow smoke’, ‘The yellow fog’ and ‘the soot’ belong to the registers of flying impurities in the atmosphere; ‘the window-panes’, ‘pools’, ‘drains’, ‘chimneys’ and a ‘house’ in the darkness of night pertain to the register of concrete objects in the physical environment.

The adjacency and clustering of all these non-poetic discourse types in a piece of poetry turns it into a literary collage, to capture the attention of the reader and serve different artistic purposes. The sooty, smoky atmosphere along with timid, lethargic and filthy cat bracketed with ill smelling drains, chimneys and pools stresses the modern man’s dried up moral fountain, sense of nothingness, insecurity and imprisonment and agonizing states and frustration zones in which he is to exist. The cat scene deals with a “desire which ends in inertia” (Williamson, 1988, p.60).

4. Words Referring to the Marine World and Religion

The lines 73-74 are violently deviant because they consist of some odd lexemes which are never observed in the diction of poetry up till now:

I should have been a pair of ragged claws
Scuttling across the floors of silent seas. (73-74)

In this example of register borrowing some specific and linguistic expressions like ‘a pair of ragged claws’ and ‘scuttling across the floors of silent seas’, which betray the register of dangerous and ugly marine life, are absolutely non-poetic words, grafted in the body of a poem. It is a very strange example of register borrowing which puts aside all the etiquettes and delicacies of stylistic decorum. This foregrounded section of the poem attracts the attention of the reader and serves different artistic purposes visualized by the poet. The coarseness of the above quoted lexical expressions is synchronized with the persona’s dangerous efforts to escape from the gnawing social realities, his eroding insecurity and the tormenting fears and doubts which continue to dampen his mechanical inhaling and exhaling.

The last verse-paragraph also presents a cluster of different discourse types. The lexemes and phrases ‘bottoms’, ‘trousers rolled’, ‘part my hair behind’, ‘to eat peach’, and ‘white flannel trousers’ point to the register of romantic dandyism.

The lexical items and linguistic expressions like ‘mermaids singing’, ‘waves’, ‘riding seaward’, ‘combing the white hair’, ‘waves blown back’, ‘chambers of the sea’, ‘sea-girls’ and ‘wreathed with sea weed’ belong to the language of ocean and oceanic mythology. Up till the repetition of the clause ‘I grow old’ the persona has been busy in making plans, seeking different avenues and using various channels but in some lonely chamber of his unconsciousness or sub-consciousness, to come to the surface for action. His repeated sense of failure propels him to transcend the sense of imprisonment in the society and migrate to the charm of romantic plane, through the dandy images; from here he moves to the world of mermaids and sea-girls that symbolize the pleasant ideas and objects in the province of imagination and fancy, which like the persona’s various earlier pretences succumbs to ‘human voices’ soon.

The lines 81-83 present a beautiful example of register borrowing:

But though I have wept and fasted, wept and prayed,
Though I have seen my head (grown slightly bald) brought in upon a platter,
I am no prophet-and here’s no great matter; (81-83)

The lexemes ‘wept’, ‘fasted’ and ‘prayed’, with their clear Biblical ring, belong to the register of religion. The two lines refer to the martyrdom of John the Baptist whose head was brought to Herod’s court because of his prophetic honesty in the revelation of truth. The juxtaposing of these two religious references in the lap of poetic diction is foregrounded and marked to enhance the comic, mock-heroic, ridiculous and ironic dimension of the text to the level of profusion. The persona boasts of fasting, weeping and praying, of which he is incapable; he is, in fact, a mock-heroic John the Baptist, always fearing rather than loving death.

5. Register Mixing

The title of the poem *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock* contains a remarkable instance of deviation of register. The phrase ‘The Love Song of’ is poetic in discursal terms but the linguistic chunk ‘J.Alfred Prufrock’ is unpoetic in nature; “‘J.Alfred’ suggests petty bourgeois pretension”(Calder, 1987, p.25) or the name of some company in the modern market economy and commerce; “‘Pru’ imputes prudishness and joined to ‘frock’, ‘primness’; ‘Frock’ further suggests babyishness and perhaps sexual ambivalence” (Calder, 1987, p.25-26); Southam says that the name ‘Prufrock’ “awakens—prudence, primness, prissiness”(Southam,1977, p.29). It means the expressions ‘J.Alfred’, ‘Pru’ and ‘frock’ belong to the registers of the market economy, prudishness and female clothes. This is not a common use of language; it is an unusual organization of words to foreground the title of the poem, to stir the desired stylistic sensations and impressions.

‘The Love Song’, in the traditional terms, is always with an absorbing, commendable and romantic character; but here it is sung by a “jokey name” (Calder, 1987, p.26). The placing of ‘J. Alfred’, ‘Pru’ and ‘frock’ after ‘the Love Song...’ is an intentional and clear realization of the mockery of the traditional love song.

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These three non-poetic expressions do betray the funny features which are in fact the real constituents of the persona: the unfitness of the persona for the activity is concretized through these violations of the poetic register. That is why the poem is “the richest comedy in the annals of literary anecdote” (Kenner, 1979, p.3). T.S. Eliot’s “whimsical feline humour prefixed” (Kenner, 1979, p.3) the name of Prufrock. ‘The love song’ by an unromantic character ‘J. Alfred Prufrock’ produces the ripples of comedy all around, to announce the persona’s mock-heroic voice; he is a clownish image, far short of heroics. For a subtle minded reader the title of the poem under discussion is but a signboard of a theatre whose “mechanism is allied to the mock-heroic” (Kenner, 1979, p.5) effects only.

The lines 37-44 exhibit the mixture of two registers of clothes and of human physiology. The lexical terms and phrases like ‘a bald spot’, ‘hair’, ‘chin’, ‘arms’ and ‘legs’ stand for different parts of the persona’s body and the formal expressions, ‘pin’, ‘necktie’, ‘coat’ and ‘collar’ refer to the register of clothes. The juxtaposition of these two registers deviates from the common norms of poetic diction.

These deviations not only “outrage the stylistic decorum” (Leech, 1989, p.50) but they are also well devised to attract the attention of the reader and highlight the main theme of the poem. In the discussion of artistic effects and sensations that the mingling of these registers stir, the cognitive stylisticians would assert and dwell on the persona’s inability to assert which is highlighted through ‘asserted by a simple pin’. His thin legs, thin arms and thin hair are the metaphor of his thin courage and his costly, fashionable, rich and modest clothes are his endeavour to enrich himself in modesty and calibre but in vain. What is his problem? He is a victim of “too much mental debate” (Bush, 1983, p.137) outlined in *Ash-Wednesday* as ‘too much discuss, too much explain’, instead of taking concrete action.

The lines 55-61 demonstrate an instance of juxtaposing of three types of non-poetic registers:

And I have I known the eyes already, known them all -
The eyes that fix you in formulated phrase,
And when I am formulated, sprawling on a pin,
When I am pinned and wriggling on the wall,
Then how should I begin
To spit out all the butt-ends of my days and ways?
And how should I presume? (55-61)

The lexical items ‘fix’, ‘formulated’ and ‘formulated phrase’ refer to the register of shrewd verbal assessment about others; the linguistic expression like ‘sprawling’, ‘pinned’ and ‘wriggling on the wall’ refer to helpless and pinned insect and its pitiable movements; in the line ‘To spit out all the butt-ends of my days and ways’ the expressions especially ‘spit out’ and ‘butt-ends’ pertain to the register of smoking. All these mingled non-poetic registers, which are embedded in the matrix of poetic language, violently rack and rock all the stylistic decencies and

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decorum to arrest the attention of the reader and to foreground the relevant textual portion to serve some artistic purposes and to contribute to the main themes of the artistic piece.

This mixing of registers stresses the three phased regressive movement in the persona; the eyes first destabilize him, then turn him into a mean creature, ‘pinned’ insect and then they cause the detestable insect to voice his “added self-disgust”(Drew,1950, p.53) in words like ‘spit out’ and ‘butt-ends’. In brief, the persona’s insecurities and complexes are emphasized. Description of abject and mean conditions of the persona is not possible without the help of these deviations of register. These words and phrases which are just common things in their parent registers become proverbial in character and richly implicational in the Eliotic world.

The lines 87-96 present an instance of register mixing:

And would it have been worth it, after all,
After the cups, the marmalade, the tea,
Among the porcelain, among some talk of you and me,
Would it have been worth while,
To have bitten off the matter with a smile,
To have squeezed the universe into a ball
To roll it toward some overwhelming question,
To say: ‘I am Lazarus, come from the dead,
Come back to tell you all, I shall tell you all’ -
If one, settling a pillow by her head, (87-96)

The lexemes ‘the marmalade’, ‘the tea’, ‘the cups’ and ‘the porcelain’ pertain to the registers of food and utensils; ‘to have squeezed the universe into a ball’ echoes the last lines of *To His Coy Mistress*, where the poet urges his mistress to enjoy love with him urgently and intensely. ‘I am Lazarus, come from the dead’ refers to the Biblical Lazarus who comes to the world of people to warn them of the agonizing life of the hell. The contiguity of all these registers foregrounds the concerned section of the poem, to stir the artistic effects and stylistic impressions.

This cluster of discourse types emphasizes the disjointed and segmented personality of the persona. The quick succession of images and thoughts does not guarantee the solidness of a human; rather it is to define his nothingness, worthlessness and lifelessness only. He thinks that the experience with cups, tea and marmalade should romanticize and energize him sufficiently to squeeze the universe into a ball as a metaphysical lover has capacity to do; but the reality soon dawns upon him and he recognizes himself as a Lazarus who is unable to do any thing admirable except telling people that the dwellers of the hell are the most pessimistic and wretched souls in the universe. Here hell is his own life.

The lines 101-106 also present an assemblage of different registers:

After the sunsets and the dooryards and the sprinkled streets,
After the novels, after the teacups, after the skirts that trail along the floor-
And this, and so much more? -
It is impossible to say just what I mean!
But as if a magic lantern threw the nerves in patterns on a screen:
Would it have been worth while (101- 106)

The lexemes ‘dooryards’, ‘sprinkled streets’, ‘skirts that trail along the floor’, ‘tea cups’ and ‘novels’ account for the register of the modern man’s mechanical routine activities; the line ‘as if a magic lantern threw the nerves in patterns on the screen’, which belongs to the register of an x-ray machine, vehemently shakes the niceties of the stylistic decorum of poetry. The transposition of the register of x-raying machine in the poetic language works as a powerful cause of ‘It is impossible to say just what I mean!’. This linguistic deviation is devised to reveal the filthy, ill-smelling and inferior interior of the persona accurately.

6. Conclusion

While making a conclusion regarding the above cited research, certain findings jump to our attention.

First, deviations of register in the poem are basically images rather stable images. These solid and concrete images were inevitable to clearly characterize the vague, fluid and instable aspects, situations and entity of the persona. With out these borrowed lexical items the monologue of Prufrock which takes place in some dark chamber of the mind of the persona is simply inaudible and meaningless. We recognize the persona but only through their loud colours and sounds.

Second, the words borrowed from other registers depict the size, colour, gravity, depth and intensity of the frustrations, fears and apprehensions of the persona accurately. That is why the portions where these words are grafted are exclusively the glow and triumph of the poem.

Third, these transplanted linguistic expressions successfully plead the case that human learning and knowledge is unified. Water tight compartmentalization of various types of learning is unnatural. Different disciplines of knowledge and registers are the currents of the ocean that continue to mingle with each other.

Fourth, these deviations of register work as metaphors in the changed context. They are nonsensical in their semantic meanings but when the reader moves to his imaginative

lexicon, they bulge out excellent metaphorical sense which is the main source of the great popularity of the poem.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com

12 : 1 January 2012

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An Analysis of Deviations of Register in T. S. Eliot's Poem *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*

LANGUAGE IN INDIA
Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow
Volume 12 : 1 January 2012
ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.
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The Role of the Suffix ‘- bi’ in Manipuri

P. Madhubala, Ph.D.

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Abstract

This is an investigation of the different functions of the suffix -bi in Manipuri. It gives different shades of meanings in different environments. Generally the suffix -bi denotes the benefactive and request meanings but there are also extended meanings which indicate persuasive, less polite and self-possession, suggestive and aspectual action, etc., depending upon its environments. An attempt is made in the present paper to unravel the semantic properties of the suffix -bi, which explicates many semantic nuances.

Introduction

In Manipuri the suffix -bi is used in different context of situation. It explains about the different roles in different context. It has been classified into seven types of different meaning, categories. The various semantic nuances are given below:

I.	-bi	‘benefactive’
II.	-bi	‘politeness’
III.	-bi	‘suggestive and aspectual action’

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IV.	-bi	‘capability’
V.	-bi	‘less polite and self possession’
VI.	-bi	‘doubtful and uncertainty action’
VII.	-bi	‘persuasive’

Table-I

I. Benefactive: It denotes the speaker’s action of doing something for someone.

For example:

1. t^həbək - si əy - nə magi - dəmək təw -bi - bə - ni
work - this I -AG he of only do - BEN - NMZ - COP
‘I do this work for him only.’
2. layrik - si əy - nə magi - dəmək pu - bi - bə - ni
book -this I-AG he of only carry - BEN - NMZ - COP
‘I carry the book only for him only.’
3. əy - nə wa - si magi -dəmək hay -bi -bə -ni
I -AG word - this he of only speak -BEN -NMZ COP
‘I speak this only for him.’

The above sentences show the speaker’s action of doing something for someone. The verbal form pubibəni ‘carry’, indicates that the benefactive marker -bi is directly added to the verbal root pu- and further followed by the nominizer -bə and -ni copula.

II. Politeness

It denotes the speaker’s language usage is of refined manner. In Manipuri, when the request marker -bi is added to the verbal form, it indicates polite form of expression. The polite form of expression always occurs with –yu command marker. The polite form of expression may be of two types: (a) action has to be taken by the hearer for his own benefit (b) action has to be taken by the hearer for the benefit of the speaker.

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(a) Action has to be taken by the hearer for his own benefit.

For example:

4. ca -du əmuk - tə pay - bi - yu
tea - the once -only hold -REQ - COM
'Please have the tea.'

5. siŋju - si ca - bi - yu
vegetable dish -this eat - REQ -COM
'please have the vegetable dish (hotchpotch).'

There are other types of verbal forms which are used by the speaker in a more formal and cordial way. The lists of the verbal forms are given below.

habə	'to eat'
leŋbə	'to move'
ceppə	'to sleep'
p ^h anbə	'to smoke'
cayt ^h əbə	'to bathe'
leŋk ^h ətpa	'to get up'
p ^h anba	'to drink (tea, water, etc.) '
t ^h onbə	'to dress'

The following sentences illustrate the phenomenon:

6. pannə - si ha - bi - yu
betelnut - this eat - REQ - COM
'please have the betelnut.'

7. luk ha - bi - yu
 rice eat - REQ - COM
 'please have the meal.'
8. som - də leŋ - bi - yu
 direction LOC move - REQ - COM
 'please go this way (along this direction).'

(b) Action has to be taken by the hearer for the benefit of the speaker.

For example:

9. lay əmə yek - pi - yu
 picture one draw - REQ - COM
 'please draw a picture (for me).'
10. əca - pot əmə ləy - bi - yu
 eat - thing one buy - REQ - COM
 'please buy any edible thing (for me).'
11. pot əsi t^haŋ - bi - yu
 thing - this lift - REQ - COM
 'please carry this thing (for me).'

III. Suggestive Aspectual Action:

It denotes the speaker's suggestion over an event. When the benefactive suffix –bi occurs with intentive marker -ge it indicates the meaning of suggestive aspectual action. The speaker performs the action just immediately after the utterance or action to be taken after some time. For example:

12. əy layrik - tu pa - bi - ge
 I book - the read - BEN - INTEN
 'I will read the book (for you).'

13. əy baltin - du t^həŋ - bi - ge
 I bucket - the lift - BEN - INTEN
 'I will carry the bucket (for you).'

14. əy cak t^hoŋ - bi - ge
 I rice cook - BEN -INTEN
 'I will cook the rice (for you).'

IV. Capability:

It denotes the speaker's ability of doing or facing the circumstances. Here, the speaker is using extensive referential clues in order to show the capability of doing or facing the circumstances. For example:

15. ka -du mi cəŋ -bə ki -nəy ədubu əy - di tum - bi - ge
 room -the man enter - NZR fear -RECI but I -EMPH sleep - BEN - INTEN
 'Everybody afraid the room but I can sleep (there) in.'

16. əy puk - ti t^hal - le ədubu lem - də -nə - bə ca - bi - ge
 I stomach full - PERF but left over -NEG -CAU -NMZ eat - BEN - INTEN
 'My stomach is full but I can eat for not to left over.'

17. nəŋ wa - rəm mənɪ ədunə əy p^hi - du su -bi - ge
 you tire - past - COMP so I cloth - the wash - BEN - INTEN
 'You must be tired so I can wash the cloth (for you).'

V. Less polite and self possession:

When the request suffix -bi occurs with command negative marker, it also denotes less polite and self-possession. There is some kind of irritation on the part of the speaker. In order to reduce the degree of his rudeness to the hearer or action doer. For example:

18. əy - gi pot pay - bi - nu
 I - of thing hold - REQ -COM NEG
 'Don't touch my belongings.'

19. əy - gi p^{hi} sok - pi -nu
I - of cloth touch - REQ - COM NEG
'Don't touch my cloth.'

20. əy - gi wa ŋaŋ - bi -nu
I of word speak - REQ - COM NEG
'Don't speak about me.'

VI. Doubtful and uncertainty action:

It denotes the speaker's assumption of a doubtful and uncertainty action over an event. When the request marker -bi occurs with the interrogative marker -bra, it indicates the meaning of an assumption of a doubtful and uncertainty action which was performed already. For example:

21. ma -nə ya - bi - bra
he - AG agree - BEN - INTR
'Did he accept?'

22. ma - nə ta - bi - bra
he -AG. listen - BEN - INTR
'Did he listen (to go)?'

23. ma -nə ŋaŋ - bi - bra
he - AG speak - BEN - INTR
'Did he speak (the matter)?'

24. nəŋ yaw - bi -bra
you join - BEN -INTR
'Did you join?'

VII. Persuasive:

It denotes the speaker's persuasion to induce the hearer to do the action immediately. When the request marker -bi occurs with persuasive marker -ro, it indicates the meaning of persuasion to the hearer to do the action immediately. For example:

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25. somdə leŋ - bi - ro
direction move -REQ - PRSU
'Please go this way'
26. cep - pi - ro
sleep - REQ - PRSU
'Please do sleep'
27. ca -bi - ro
eat -REQ -PRSU
'Please eat'
28. hay - bi -ro
speak -REQ - PRSU
'Please speak (immediately).'

Conclusion:

The present paper attempts to cast the different functions of -bi suffix which is highly complicated to demonstrate not only in Manipuri Grammar but also in dictionary. Manipuri grammarians used to examine the functions of Manipuri suffixes which are extensively extended with different functions denoting upon its environments.

Abbreviations:

AG	'agentive'
ASP	'aspect'
BEN	'benefactive'
CAU	'causative'
COM	'command'
COMP	'completive'
COP	'copula'
EMPH	'emphasis'
INTEN	'intensive'
INTR	'interrogative'
NMZ	'nominalizer'
PERF	'perfective'
PRSU	'persuasive'
RECI	'reciprocal'

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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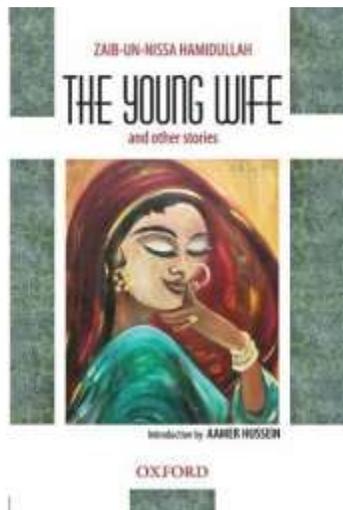
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*“Antara or Majnun?” - Exploring Femininities and Sexualities
in Zaib-un-Nissa Hamidullah’s *The Bull and the She Devil**

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Abstract

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*“Antara or Majnun?” - Exploring Femininities and Sexualities in Zaib-un-Nissa
Hamidullah’s *The Bull and the She Devil**

The story *The Bull and the She Devil* written by Zaib-Un-Nissa Hamidullah represents the male-female dynamics in Punjabi, predominantly Muslim society. Hamidullah's collection of short stories *The Young Wife and Other Stories* raises various social and cultural issues in Pakistani, pre-dominantly Muslim society. *The Bull and the She Devil* unveils the psychological responses resulting from the suppressed male sexuality. It also explores how the identities and sexualities of men and women are conceived in response to pre-existing beliefs about gender roles.

Taking Mernissi's (2003) theoretical considerations as the starting point, the study unveils the dynamics behind sexual regulation of Muslim woman living in Punjab as represented in the short story, and whether woman's sexuality is seen as active or passive in contrast with that of men.

The analysis of the story reveals that the sexuality of Muslim woman is seen as active and the responses of Ghulam Qadir, the protagonist, are emblematic of his attempt to control and regulate that sexuality to satisfy his desire of being Punjabi machismo. His failure in the end results in his suicide.

Introduction

Sexual in-equality is perhaps the most common phenomenon in human history and its roots could be traced into the social set of beliefs of those societies. *The Bull and the She Devil* by Zaib-un-Nissa Hamidullah is significant because it explores the dilemma of the protagonist, Ghulam Qadir, whose machismo and the world view of being "the master" trains him to see his wife as submissive. Failing to come to terms with this reality, he commits suicide.

The story which falls under the rubric of post-colonialism represents how gender operates in all its intricate details such as the home, the family, the body, the discursive practices and most importantly, the system of beliefs in a Punjabi village.

The story unveils how the dominant discourses prescribe only two roles for a man in relation to a woman. Either he could be *Antara*, the Arab legendary hero who loved his land and fought for his tribe. His wife was almost sick in his love but he was oblivious to her fascination. The other role is that of "*Majnun*" a man in love with a woman and therefore considered mad.

The first role carries with it all the positive connotations and the second role consists of everything negative in masculinity.

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Sexual desire results in developing close ties between a man and his wife and puts him on the verge of weakness and madness, in the light of the dominant discourses. Repression of sexual desire, hence, is an assurance of masculinity. The protagonist in the story under discussion chooses repression of his sexual desire for the gratification of his manliness. The paper explores the causes and repercussions of the repression of sexuality in the light of the feminist theory.

Feministic Praxis on Gender and Sexuality

Mernissi (2003) believed that in Islamic jurisprudence female sexuality is seen as active, in contrast with that of European, and most importantly, against the Freudian concept, where female sexuality is seen as passive. She draws her ideas primarily from Ghazali, an 11th Century expert in Islamic jurisprudence and Sufism. His ground breaking work *Revivification of Religious Sciences*, offered alternative arguments, from that of orthodox Islamic philosophers, on various social issues.

Mernissi (2003) believes that men and women are socialized to see each other as poles apart in a Muslim society. Female sexuality is seen as *fitna*, a havoc which wrecks the functioning of the society. Segregation of sexes into public and private spheres makes them see each other as belonging to the opposite poles. This segregation is supported by the institutional means that support oppression of women such as physical beating and violence. Also, the set of beliefs such as folklore and art forms support this segregation.

Freud sees female sexuality as submissive and male sexuality as aggressive (cited in Mernissi: 2003) On the contrary, Mernissi postulates in the light of the arguments given by Ghazali, that both male and female have an identical cell (Ghazali uses the word *ma*, water drop) Similarly, Imam Muslim (cited in Mernissi: 2003) note that a woman causes fascination or irresistible attraction which a man experiences. "*She resembles Satan in his irresistible power over the individual* (p.42). Mernissi refers to folk Moroccan culture where the threat of female sexuality is voiced in the story of Aisha Kandish, a demon who is libidinous and assaults men in the streets.

Similarly, in Punjabi folk literature, a man who loves his wife is called "Zan Mureed" (a woman's disciple) which is a self-destructive state for this man. Similarly, a proverb which prescribes the low status and no affection for a woman says: *Aurat paoon ki jooti hoti hai.*" (A woman is equal to the slipper of the man)

Another proverb describes three causes of disruption in society is "*Zan, Zar and Zaal*" (Woman, wealth and offsprings).

The destructive and libidinous representation of Muslim woman also abounds in the Western literature. Lisa Lowe (cited in Moghissi: 1999) uncovered the sexual fantasies

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associated with Muslim woman. Gustave Flaubert (cited in Lowe 1991:76) sees Muslim woman as highly sexual. “*La femme orientale generated sexual pleasure, but was impassive, undemanding and insenate herself; her oriental mystery never failed to charm, her resources never exhausted.*”

Moghissi (1999) argues that the fear of female sexuality in Muslim society is for two reasons:

First, it makes men preoccupied with sexual performance, with prolonging intercourse and with searching for a sexual strategy that can meet female expectations in bed. Hence sexual relations constitute a continuing crisis for the believer, because they divert attention from God (Sabbah, 1988: 50, 90). Second, woman’s seductive power is a threat to Muslim social order. (p.24)

According to Moghissi (1999) the fear of female sexuality is not specific to Islam. Jewish traditionalists see women as having aggressive sexual drive and men are passive victims of her charms. Similarly, Christians saw women as dangerous because they arouse desire among men. Rehman (2002) notices that the sexuality of woman is regulated by attaching the concept of *Izzat* and *Asmat* with her. Having sexual desire or taking independent decisions about marriage and sexuality would be considered dishonorable for a woman.

However, the image of Mary and the concept of virgin birth enables the assimilation of this troublesome aspect of feminine into the legitimate areas of sociality so long as the woman desexualizes herself to become a secret and pure presence in the heart of carnal mystery. She becomes a nurturing, nourishing soil whose fecundity is entirely passive. (p.111)

Being denied the privileges, which are bestowed on the menfolk, but not on the women, propagate the concept of inequality of genders. Hussain (1994) notes:

Within this hierarchised relationship, it is not surprising that the bad woman is depicted as the one who shows scant respect for established norms of feminine behavior. (p.113)

This bad woman, in many cases, faces physical violence for her disregard of patriarchy. Hussain (1994) further points out that the woman is excluded from the discourses of power yet contain it with in socio symbolic discourse. Being the signifier of desire, the only role considered fit for a woman is to be a pleasure object.

Ruswa’s “Umrao Jan Ada” (cited in Hussain : 1994) recalls the image of courtesan in whose apartments, the poetry and music grows. She is the symbol of male fantasy

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because of her irresistible physical charms. Also, she poses a threat to the traditional family system. If a man is caught in her snares, the only outcome is the destruction of the basic unit of society, i.e., the family.

The next section of this paper analyses the representations of women in the short story. Furthermore, the identities and sexualities will also be discussed.

Analysis

In the short story, *The Bull and the She Devil*, the story revolves around a man who is possessed by the haunting power of his wife's irresistible charms. However, he is more aware of the threat it poses to the patriarchy because of her power "to persuade" and her "soft accents." Also, her existence as a separate being was threatening because more people could have a share in her love.

"To possess her was his one object in life now. And yet, had he not already possessed her a score of times and over? Had he not claimed her again and yet again, night after night? Was she not, without any manner of doubt, his woman? His, by every claim that man can have over woman? And yet... And yet there was this doubt that disturbed and tormented him, this new element in the relationship between man and woman of even the possibility of which he had been oblivious." (p.43)

This new element is the fact that his wife's love is shared by the other people living in his house, i.e., his brother, nephew and the bull. Hussain (1994) postulates that the relationship between the husband and wife, as framed in several types of discourses demands complete obedience on the part of women of even the slightest whims of their husbands. She cites at least the code mentioned in *Bahishti Zewar*, by Maulana Ashraf Ali Thanvi.

Understand this! The relationship between a husband and wife is for life. Therefore it is your moral imperative to hold the man's heart in your hand by obeying his slightest behest. If he asks you to stand all night with folded hands, you must do so, as in this alone lies your salvation. (p.123)

The discourses, similar to the one mentioned above, put all the responsibility of maintaining a relationship on the shoulders of woman. The kind of obedience demanded from her (i.e., understanding the male's intention with his little or no expression and adhering to it) is not possible if she retains her individual identity as a human being.

The matchmaker woman also instills the similar gender roles in the mind of Ghualm Qadir:

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For not only is Shirin as sweet as the scent of Champak flowers, but she is as supple as reed and will sway to your slightest wishes, for she is a child nurtured to womanhood in an atmosphere of tenderness and affection. One who, they say, has a heart filled to overflowing with love of everything living. And' here the old woman's furtive eyes had peered lasciviously into his, "that over-flowing cup of love will be yours to drink your fill. (p.44)

The discourse attributes the qualities of sweetness and complete obedience of the slightest wishes of her husband to his wife. Furthermore, being a loving and tender hearted person, she is supposed to satisfy the sensual desires of the husband according to his heart's desire. The woman then is represented as an object of male fantasy, a mystery to be unraveled and most importantly, not a human being but "*an over-flowing cup of love.*"

After the marriage, Ghulam Qadir treats her only as a body to satisfy his senses. To him, the bull, the lands and his wife are one and the same thing.

He remembered how, when first he had brought her here as a bride, all his ardent young manhood aflame, he had had his fill of her. To him she was, those first few weeks, a body. A body and nothing more. A body beautiful and soft that eased the so long suppressed desires of his senses. (p.43)

After gratification of sensual desires, the machismo demanded a complete denial of his separate identity. She must be punished for not being a part of her husband. The protagonist in the story beats his wife for the same reason:

But as the weeks passed and he saw her about their mud hut, the way she walked, the way she smiled at others, the tender look in her eyes as she patted the bullock, in his mind a doubt was born. For she remained a separate being, an individual in her own right, a stranger. Yes, a stranger, even though her body grew sweetly familiar. (p.44)

Ghulam Qadir gave a thorough beating to his bull because the animal was sharing love of his wife. He also hated his brother and nephew for the same reason.

"Faithless creature," he shouted at the poor, uncomprehending animal. "Even you have surrendered your soul into this She Devil's keeping." ... "She's after my soul as well," he shouted. "She wants to ensnare me as she has ensnared all the others. She Devil, She Devil, She Devil!" (p.47)

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Other than ensnaring the affection of his brother and nephew, the wife is shown to exercise a strong influence over the soul of the husband.

Khuri (2001) points out that a man's duty is to make love with the woman, not to love a woman. The tale of *Majnun Laila* is an instance of it. Literally translated as "Mad Man of Laila," *majnun* is a metaphor for every man who professes to love a woman, and by the virtue of it, he is in a state of mental sickness. Ghulam Qadir hates his nephew Allah Wassaya because he is a romantic lad, on the verge of falling in love with a woman.

That handsome strapping youth on the verge of manhood with something of the weakness of womanhood within him. A something that made him waste his time playing on a flute, gazing up at the moon or planting flowers round the house. (p.49)

The manliness demands a complete control over the sexuality of his woman. If a woman is proven to be wanton, honor killing is and should be the natural outcome for protecting the honor of the family. In the end of the story, Ghulam Qadir murders his nephew and hits his brother because both share love of his wife. His bull also receives a share of his beating because he is more in control of his wife, which is a challenge to his manliness.

The conclusion of the story is marked with Ghulam Qadir's jumping into the well as he sees the image of his wife in his imagination. This time he calls her "She devil!" with dried eyes, accepting the influence, the woman exercises over her and most importantly, convinced of how destructive that influence could be.

Conclusion

Foucault (1976) postulates that power is an intricate web and even the have-nots exercise their share of power in one way or the other. The story reveals how the gender roles in our society forbid a man to recognize "authority" or "power" as an attribute of a woman, particularly in heterosexual marriages. Some discourses prevalent in the society offer only one explanation of female sexuality, i.e., its destructive power. The fixed gender roles in many cultures forbid a man to love a woman, rather he can only make love with a woman. The attributes of manliness demands a man to be in-charge of regulating the female sexuality. More specifically, the treatment Shirin receives at the hands of Ghulam Qadir in the short story, reflect the power relations prevalent in the society. It is this politics of gendering that I have tried to uncover in this paper.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Sana Imtiaz, M.Phil. in English Scholar

“Antara or Majnun?” - Exploring Femininities and Sexualities in Zaib-un-Nissa
Hamidullah’s *The Bull and the She Devil*

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Functioning of Groundwater Market for Irrigation - A Study in Cuddalore District, Tamil Nadu

S. Manonmani, M.A., M.Phil., and N. Malathi, Ph.D.

Abstract

Ground water is expensive and relatively scarce in recent years. Due to short supply of surface water the farmers are to depend on groundwater market to irrigate their land for crop cultivation. In Cuddalore District, large number of buyers and sellers cultivate paddy, which is a water intensive crop. So, there is emergence of groundwater markets in Cuddalore district with two types of arrangements. Firstly, irrigation services are provided on the basis of demand, and water charges are levied per acre. Secondly, irrigation services are provided for the whole crop season, and fixed share of crop produced is given as water charge. However, for buyers of groundwater, area-pricing arrangement has given higher returns than that of crop-sharing as shown from the study in Panruti Block, Cuddalore District.

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Introduction

Irrigated agriculture has been an essential factor for food security in the last decades. In the future, it will most probably be called upon to produce large fraction of food supply needed by the growing world population. At the same time agriculture will however have to cope with increasing competition for water.

Development of groundwater took a major stride through private modern water extraction mechanisms, ownership of which are highly skewed towards large farmers due to huge capital investment needed and relatively better consideration of land holdings among them (Dhawan 1982, and Shah, 1993). Thus small and marginal farmers and even large farmers with fragmented land holdings have to depend on tube-wells or bore-wells to irrigate their crop, which has led to emergence of an informal water market.

In India, the area irrigated by canal and tank has declined from 201 lakh hectares in the year 1998-99 to 185 lakh hectares in the year 2007-08, whereas the area irrigated by tube-well irrigation and other wells has increased from 340 lakh hectares in 1998-99 to 377.87 lakh hectares in 2007-08 (Government of India, 2009).

In Tamil Nadu, the net area irrigated has improved from 28.01 lakh. ha. in 2001-02 to 29.31 lakh. ha. in 2008-09. It is noted from the Table-1, the percentage of net area irrigated by canals and tanks has been decreased by 2.5 percent 1.2 percent respectively during the same period. The net area irrigated by wells and tube wells has increased from 51.3 percent in 2001-02 to 55.1 percent in 2008-09. The net area as percentage to net area sown and Gross area as a percentage to gross area sown had also rose to more than 58 per cent. The proportion of gross area irrigated to net irrigated (irrigation intensity) has been reduced from 1.22 in 2001-02 to 1.16 in the year 2008-09.

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Table-1
Irrigation Indicators in Tamil Nadu

Items	2001-02	2008-09
Total Rainfall (mm)	795.2	1023.1
Net Area Irrigated (in lakh ha.)	28.01 (100)	29.31 (100)
A. Canals	8.01 (28.6)	7.65 (26.1)
B. Tanks	5.37 (19.2)	5.40 (18.4)
C. Wells & Tube wells	14.49 (51.7)	16.14 (55.1)
D. Others	0.14 (0.5)	.11 (0.4)
Gross Area Irrigated (in ha.)	34.12	33.93
Irrigation Intensity (%)	1.22	1.16
Net Area Irrigated as % to Net Area Sown	54.15	58.12
Gross Area Irrigated as % to Gross Area Sown	54.8	58.26

Source: Season and Crop Report, Tamil Nadu 2001-02 & 2008-09

Emergence of Groundwater Market

When there is short supply of canal water, farmers depend on groundwater which is available for his use in the piece of land he owns. But all the farmers need not have access to the groundwater since installing pump sets require huge investments. Even though Tamilnadu government provides electricity at free of cost all the farmers are not able to install pump sets because of huge investments. The high investment costs of electric tube-wells encouraged their owners to operate their pumps at a higher level of capacity utilization by supplying irrigation service to other farmers.

Recent proliferation of private well irrigation systems, especially in South Asia, has stimulated the groundwater transactions involving bilateral bargaining between sellers and buyers over multiple types of contracts, including output sharing contracts.

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Study Domain and Data Source

Tamil Nadu shares about 4 per cent in respect of the geographical area, 7 per cent of population and 3 per cent of water resources of the country. The gross cropped area in 2008-09 accounted for about 39 per cent of the total geographical area, of which 56 percent of the land was irrigated. Average rainfall in Tamilnadu state ranges from 100-180 cm. in the east to 70-90 cm. in the west. The State comprises 32 Districts more than half of the area is irrigated by Shallow tube-wells (groundwater). About 90 percent of the rainfall occurs during the south-west monsoon. The total area of Cuddalore District is 3678 sq.km. It has 3 revenue divisions, 6 taluks,13 blocks and 880 villages. This area falls under the agro climatic conditions of east coast plains.

The study was primarily based on primary data which was collected during 2008-09 using simple random sampling technique from randomly selected Panruti block of Cuddalore District, TamilNadu. Four villages were selected from the block and from each selected village 30 farmers were randomly selected. Thus the sample size was 120. The normal rainfall of the district is 716.5 mm. North east monsoon while 373.6 mm. South west monsoon. The actual rainfall in the district is North east monsoon is 1346.1 and South west monsoon is 340.3 mm. The major sources of irrigation in the district are tube-well, canals and ordinary wells.

The Structure of Groundwater Market in the Study Area

The four villages investigated in the study area located in Panruti block, in Cuddalore District, Tamilnadu, India. The farmers in this area cultivate paddy (kuruvai and samba) sugarcane, black gram, marigold, brinjal etc. The farmers cultivate paddy in two seasons such as kuruvai and samba. In the beginning of the kuruvai season there is scanty rainfall, therefore the farmers depend on groundwater for irrigation. Whereas in Samba season they got the good rainwater at the beginning and at the end scanty rain fall. In summer season some of the farmer cultivates cucumber and black gram which needs little water.

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The dominant means of irrigation in the study area is private tube well with electric pump sets.

Table: 2
Distribution of Sample sellers and Buyers of irrigation water

Farm size (in acres)	No. of Buyers	No. of Sellers	Total
Small(below 2.5)	52	5	57
Medium(2.5- 5)	7	17	24
Large (above 5)	1	38	39
Total	60	60	120

Source: Primary Data

In the Study area 120 farmers were investigated. Table 2 shows the distribution of sample sellers and buyers of irrigation water in study area. Many of the small farmers buy water for irrigation while large number of large farmers sells water. In the study area the farmers do not have access to groundwater and so they buy water from tube-well owners.

The household survey shows that the investment and maintenance cost of tube-well ranges from one lakh to 3 lakhs depending on the horse power of the engine and the depth of the tube-well. Most of the farmers borrowed money from commercial banks to finance their irrigation investment. Land is the most important collateral in the rural credit market and the buyers' land holdings are smaller than those of sellers in the sample, thus, the inaccessibility of credit is one of the barriers preventing the buyers from installing their own irrigation systems.

The survey shows that the average investment and maintenance cost of tube-well increases with horse power. The investment cost includes ridging cost/pump set cost, cost of electrification and cost of shed. The maintenance cost includes the material cost and the labour cost. The investment cost is not only depends on the horsepower but also depend on depth of the tube-well. In the study area the maximum depth of the tube-well is 520 feet and the minimum depth is 100 feet.

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There seems to be no social restrictions against entering into the water market. Shah(1993), concludes from available field surveys that no discrimination exists in sales or in the quality of service on the basis of caste, political affiliation, economic and social status. This is consistent with this survey, which shows more than 70 percent transaction occurs between groups from different castes.

Two type of pricing practices fallowed by the farmers in the study area such as output pricing and area pricing. Under output pricing the buyers pay for the water by providing a certain portion of their product after the harvest of the crop. Under area pricing, water buyers pay a fixed amount of cash once per season for specified irrigation acreage for the entire season.

The type of pricing practices for water varies from crop to crop. In the study area the farmers practicing output pricing for crops paddy and groundnut. One third of the product is given by the buyer of water to the seller for these crops. Area pricing method is followed by the farmers for other crops such as sugarcane, gingili, vegetables, flowers, casuarinas, black gram, cucumber etc. The fixed charge per acre varies from crop to crop under area pricing. In the study area the irrigation cost is the major cost among the total cost of cultivation for various crops. It is given in the following table.

Table- 3
Cost Structure of Major Crops Cultivated in Cuddalore District (in Rs.)

Name of crop	Total Cost of Cultivation (per acre)	Irrigation Cost (per acre)	% of Irrigation cost to Total Cost
Paddy (Kurruvai)	12000	5560	46.3
Paddy (Samba)	10000	3670	36.7
Ground nut	20000	3000	15.0
Sugarcane	25000	4500	18.0
	25000	3900	15.6
Gingili	2000	500	25.0

Source: Computed

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The cost of cultivation and the percentage share of irrigation cost are shown in the table-3. It is noted from the table nearly 40 to 50 percent of total cost of cultivation is for irrigation for the crop paddy both in kuruvai and in samba seasons because of the farmers depend on groundwater market for irrigation. The percent of irrigation cost in total cost is low for other crops compared to paddy. In the study area the pricing practice for paddy is crop sharing (output pricing), while the pricing practice for other crops is area pricing. This shows that the crop sharing arrangements reduces the net return to the farmers especially in paddy.

Table-4

Net Income of the Buyers of Groundwater for Irrigation (in Rs. per acre) from Major Crops Cultivated in the Study Area

Name of Crop	Gross Income from Cultivation	Cost of Cultivation	Net Income	Benefit –cost Ratio
Output pricing crops				
Paddy (Kuruvai)	29925	12000	17925	1.5
Paddy (Samba)	26235	10000	16235	1.6
Groundnut	40500	20000	20500	1.0
Area pricing crops				
Sugarcane	84000	25000	59000	2.4
Gingili	6000	2000	4000	2.0
Tapioca	77000	25000	52000	2.1

Source: Computed

Table-4 tells that the buyers of irrigation water get low income and the benefit cost ratio is also less for the crops cultivated under output pricing method, because they have to pay one-third of their production as water charge to water selling farmers. When comparing this with area pricing crops the buyers get larger net income and the benefit –cost ratio is also higher for those crops.

Conclusion

This paper explores the pricing practices that are followed and the investment and maintenance cost of tube-well of the sample respondents in the 4 villages of Panruti

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Block, Cuddalore District. The major findings of the study are under output sharing buyers pay higher water prices to sellers than under other type. And small farmers are not access to water by their own tube-well because of large amount is needed for installing tube-well. The study suggests that if the credit facilities available to the farmers to install pump sets by commercial banks then it would increase the number of potential sellers then groundwater prices could become lower. Thus informal groundwater market will work well if effective monitoring and contact adherence mechanisms are embedded and if a sufficient number of potential sellers exist.

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Syntactical and Morphological Differences in British and American English

Sardar Fayyaz ul Hassan

Abstract

This article discusses morphological and syntactic differences in British and American English. It aims at discussing the differences from an evaluative point of view. It is an invitation to the researchers to view and work on American English differently rather than going by the general conception of simplification. Language has always been authentic and strong source of identification. The same is true to the American English.

1. Introduction

Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (7th edition, p.829) defines language as "the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area". Language is innate in human beings (Chomsky, 1957), and it is considered next to food. As it is difficult to point out what kind of food is more important? Indian, Chinese or American etc, same is with language. However, politically and scientifically dominating nations influence the world with their languages. No doubt that social and political strength gives currency to a language or a variety of any language both at national and international level. It

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was the time when George Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) characterized England and America as two nations divided by common language (wikipedia2011), and it could be true even now. However, American language called American English (AE) obviously sounds in a different way. Bough C. Albert and Cable Thomas (1981:130) show the initial and onward reaction to the emergence of American English:

From the time that differences in the vocabulary and idiom of Americans began to be noticed they began the subject of comment and soon of controversy. In the beginning English comment was uniformly adverse, at least as far back as the utterance of Dr. Johnson, and to a large extent it still is today. Often American were accused of corrupting the English Language by introducing new and unfamiliar words, whereas they were in fact only continuing to employ terms familiar in the seventeenth century which had become obsolete in England. When the injustice of this attitude was perceived, Americans began to defend their use of English and, with a growing sense of their position among nations, to demand parity for their speech with the English of England. Over this difference of point of view a controversy was carried on through most of the nineteenth century and can hardly be said to have died down completely at the present day.

British English (UK English) is a collective term for the forms of English language spoken in the British aisles. According to Norbert Schmitt (2006), "It has been spoken for 1,500 years in Britain, and there have been different dialects from the start."P.180. When British use, it refers to the written Standard English and the Scottish regional variations. The inhabitants of these aisles do not use the term often, although they do refer to the Scottish English, Welsh English, and Irish English and so many dialects thereof. The broader use of the term covers the language spoken throughout the United Kingdom including standard and non standard, formal and informal, at all times, in all regions, at all social levels.

American English is a diverse form of English because "in America, the inhabitants were of such diverse origins and moved around and mixed so much as the country grew that no one dialect dominated, and the various dialects of English that they spoke seem to have blended together into a comparatively uniform new one". Norbert Schmitt (2006:177).

American English is used mostly in the United States of American. It is US official's and the language of media. Canadian English falls out of the definition of American English although

the pronunciation is similar to that in the United States. Historically, American English seems establishing its roots when the first wave of English-speaking immigrants was settled in North American in 17th century. By the time till now it has been used as a tool of communication in the United States.

2. Focus of This Paper

After this short background the striking differences between British English (BE) and American English (AE) are discussed keeping in view the areas, mentioned above.

This research focuses on the striking differences between British English (BE) and American English. The special focus is on the gap in the field of morphology and its outcome. The popular claim is that the Americans have gone for simplification. But we should also keep in view the aspects of complication and identification as well.

3. Differences in British and American English

3.1 Resultative Past and Present Perfect

To express resultative past British use Present Perfect. Americans have two options. They use Present Perfect or Simple Past.

BE: Mohsin isn't at home. He has gone shopping.

AE: Mohsin isn't at home. He went shopping. **OR** He has gone shopping.

3.2. Recent Past

To express recent past with *just* British use present perfect. Americans use the simple past or present perfect (Michael Swan1995:41).

BE: He has just finished the lunch.

AE: He has just finished the lunch. **OR**

He just finished the lunch.

3.3. Present perfect with *already, yet, never, ever*

The British use the Present Perfect tense with *already, yet, never, ever*, etc, for an action in a period of time up to present. Americans use either the Simple Past or Present Perfect.

BE: She has eaten the dinner already.

Alina hasn't come yet.

Have you ever read American literature?

AE: She ate the dinner already. **OR**

Khalid didn't come yet. **OR**

Khalid hasn't come yet.

Did you ever go to America? **OR**

Have you ever gone to American?

I never read the American literature. **OR**

I have never read the American literature.

It can be inferred from the differences stated above that the Americans have an additional source to express.

3.4. Expressing Future with *will/shall*

According to Norbert Schmitt (2006), to express future, the British use *will or shall* in the first person. Americans rarely use *shall*.

BE: I shall never forget you.

AE: I will never forget you.

The British use 'shall' to make offers. The Americans use 'should' to do so.

BE: Shall I give you a pen?

AE: Should I give you a pen?

3.5. The use of 'needn't to' or 'don't need to'

The British use 'needn't to' or 'don't need to' but in American English the usual form is 'don't need to'.

BE: You needn't come again. **OR**

You don't need to come again.

AE: You don't need to come again.

3.6. The use of *should* after *demand insist* and *recommend*

The British often use *should* after *demand, insist* and *recommend*. Americans rarely use *should*.

BE: *He insisted that he should see his father.* **OR** He insisted that he see his father.

AE: He insisted he see his father.

3.7. The use of Group Nouns

Norbert Schmitt & Richard Marsden (2006), write that group nouns such as "government", takes either a singular or plural verb in BE depending on speakers' notion of reference. These nouns normally have a singular verb in AE (p.192). Other group nouns are *family, team, committee, etc.*

BE: The committee meets / meet next Monday.

Pakistan team is going to win the match.

AE: The committee meets / meet next Monday

3.8. Telephone Conversation

While conversing on the telephone both Americans and British say "This is" to say *who they are* but the usage is different when they ask *who the other person is*.

BE: Hello is that Ali?

Who is that?

AE: Hello, is this Ali?

Who is this?

3.9. 'Who' and 'Whom'

The Americans prefer to use *who* rather than *whom*.

BE: Whom do you want to see?

AE: Who do you want to see?

3.10. The Use of Prepositions

The following grid from Norbert Schmitt (2006:191) shows the difference in the use of prepositions.

British English	American English
..... Live <i>in</i> Main street Live <i>on</i> Main street
..... Fill <i>in</i> a form Fill out a form
.....check up <i>on</i> something...check <i>out</i> something...
..... <i>at</i> the weekend <i>on</i> the weekend
Britons are <i>in</i> two minds about something.	Americans are <i>of</i> two minds about something.
Britons can cater <i>for</i> all tastes.	American can cater <i>to</i> all tastes.
Ten minutes past seven	Ten minutes past / after seven
Five minutes to seven	Five minutes to / of seven
Friday to Sunday	Friday through Sunday
Different from / to	Different from / than.....
Ten minutes past seven	Ten minutes past / after seven
Five minutes to seven	Five minutes to / of seven

3.11. The Use of Regular and Irregular Verbs

The verbs burs, dream, learn, smell, spill and spoil have both regular and irregular forms. The British commonly prefer irregular forms whereas Americans prefer regular forms.

BE: dream Dreamt

AE: dream dreamed

In British English, the verb *dive* is a regular verb. In American English it is an irregular verb.

BE: dive dived dived

AE: dive dove dived

3.12. The Choice of Spellings

The web page, www.studyenglishtoday.net/british-american-spelling.html, authored and designed by M.Boyanova (2011), gives appropriate examples and the researcher has used some of the examples to support the claim, made below in 1, 2 and 3.

1. The British write double ‘l’ in an unstressed syllable before a suffix begging with a vowel, American don’t do so.

BE: signal Signalling / signalled

quarrelquarrelling / quarrelled

AE: signal Signaling / signaled

quarrelquarreling / quarrelled

2. The true example of simplification in American English is of spelling changes. These changes are in accordance with the sound of the words. The words ending in, *-our*, *-tre*, *-logue*, and *-ise* in British English end in *-or*, *-ter*, *-log*, and *-ize* respectively in American English. The grid given below reflects this record.

British English	American English
Labour, colour, honour, neighbour, harbour, etc	<i>Labor, color, honor, neighbor, harbor, flavor, etc</i>
Centre, theatre, metre, millimetre, etc.	<i>Center, theater, meter, millimeter, etc.</i>
Catalogue, dialogue, monologue, etc.	<i>Catelog, dialog, monolog, etc.</i>
Realise, analyse, apologise, normalise, specialise, etc.	<i>Realize, analyze, apologize, normalize, specialize, etc.</i>

3. There are more examples of spelling differences.

British English	American English
Cheque	Check
Defence	Defense
Jeweller	Jeweler
Nickle	Nickel
Programme	Program
Skilful / Skillful	Skillful
Storey	Story
Traveller	Traveler
Tyre	Tire

3.13. Simplification and Complications in Spellings

The claim of simplification is not without complications. For instance, there are a lot of words that require the application of the formula “spell in accordance with sound” such as *knob, cough, vague, raise*, etc. But these continue to be exceptions so far. Some of the simplifications are resulting in semantic ambiguity.

BE: This is a check.

This is a cheque.

AE: This is a check. (Test)

This is a check. (A piece of booklet used to withdraw money).

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Both the above given sentences in BE give clear meaning on their own. But in American English due to the change of spelling (cheque..... check) the sentences are ambiguous. This ambiguity can be removed only by providing additional context.

Another source of simplification opted by Americans is that the words are spelt as they are in BE: but they are pronounced differently. The following examples have been taken from Michael Swan (1995), Sardar (2008) & Norbert Schmitt (2006) to support this idea:

Word	BE	AE
Colonel	/'kɜ:nl/	/'kʊlɒnəl/ or /'kɜ:rnəl/
Duty	/'dju:tɪ/	/'du:tɪ/
Illuminate	/'lju:mɪneɪt/	/'lu:mɪneɪt/
Lieutenant	/leɪ'tenənt/	/lu:'tenənt/
Missile	/'mɪsaɪl/	/'mɪsəl/
New	/'nju:/	/'nu:/
Occasion	/ə'keɪʒn/	/ə'keɪdʒn/
Pleasure	/'pleɪʒə(r)/	/'pleɪʒər/
Student	/'stju:d(ə)nt/	/'stu:dənt/
Schedule	/'ʃedju:l/	/'skedʒu:l
Tomato	/tə'ma:təʊ/	/tə'meɪtəʊ/
Tune	/'tju:n/	/'tu:n/

These words indicate different variations. One of these variations seems a permanent one as the sound /j/ looks to disappear. Another striking variation is the change of sound produced by the occurrence of the letter 'a'. The British will pronounce it as /a:/ while Americans will pronounce it as /æ/. There is a large list of such words. Some of them are *glass, pass, class, fast, chance, commander, etc.*

There are certain words that have the same spelling but the sound differs due to the change of stress. Norbert Schmitt & Richard Marsden (2006:186) records the following examples:

Word	BE	AE
Military	/mílitrɪ /	/mílətèri/
Arbitrary	/á:bitrɪ/	/ árɒtrèri/
Cemetery	/sémətri/	/sémətéri/
Testimony	/téstəməni/	/téstəmáuni/

Michael Swan (1995:42), Norbert Schmitt (2006:189), Sardar (2008:248), and (<http://www.englishclub.com> .2011) also present a large range of differences in the choice of words and expressions:

BE	AE
Anti-clockwise	counter-clockwise
Aeroplane	Airplane
Antenna	Ariel
Angry	Mad
Anywhere	Anywhere / Anyplace
Autumn	Fall / Autumn
Barrister / Solicitor	Attorney / lawyer
Bill (in a restaurant)	Check / bill
Boot (of a car)	Trunk
Bonnet (on a car)	Hood
Biscuit	Cookie / cracker
Camping stove	Camp stove
Cash dispenser	Cash machine / ATM
Cashier	Teller
Check in desk	Check in counter
Chips	French-fries
Cot	Crib

Cotton wool	Absorbent cotton
Counter foil / check stub	Check stub
Crossroads	Intersections
Crisps	Chips / potato chips
Dialling code	Area code
Doctor's surgery	Doctor's office
Dustman	Garbage collector
Dustbin	Garbage can / trashcan
Dynamo	Generator
Engaged (phone)	Busy
Film	Movie / film
Flat / apartment	Apartment
Flat tyre / puncture	Flat tire
Football	Soccer
Fortnight / two weeks	Two weeks
Gear box	Transmission
Gear lever (on a car)	Gear shift
Get – got – got	Get – got – gotten
Ground floor – first floor	First floor – second floor
Handbag	Pocket book / purse/ handbag
Hoarding	Billboard
Holiday / holidays	Vacation / vacations
Hotel reception	Front desk
Jug	pitcher
Keeping fit	keep in shape
Lift	Elevator
Mad	Crazy
Main road / motorway	Highway / freeway
Maize / sweet corn	corn
Mean	Stingy
Nappy	Diaper
Notice	Sign

Notice board	Bulletin board
Pavement / footpath	Sidewalk
Paying in	making a deposit
Petrol	Gas / gasoline
Pony trekking	Horse back riding
Post	Mail
Practice (N) / Practise (V)	practice (N / V)
Purse	Coin / purse
Railway	Railroad
Return / return journey	Round trip
Rubber / eraser	Eraser
Rubbish	Garbage / trash
Ruck sack / back bag	Backpack
Seaside	Beach
Silencer	Muffler
Skipping rope	jump rope
Spanner	Wrench
Steward	flight attendant
Sweet	candy
Tap (indoor)	Faucet / tap
Tap (outdoors)	Spigot / faucet
Taxi	Cab / taxi
Timetable	Schedule / timetable
Torch	Flashlight
Trailer	Cart
Trainers	Sneakers
Tramlines (Tennis)	Sidelines
Trolley	Cart
Trousers	Pants / trouser
Truck call	Long-distance call
Underground	Subway
Van / lorry	Truck

Windscreen (on a car)

Windshield

Zip

Zipper

4. Conclusion

This description of differences doesn't mean that there aren't any more differences. A huge difference is there in the areas of pronunciation, stress and intonation pattern. In fact Americans thought of casting off the language of their colonial masters after the war of independence. Practically, it didn't happen for them as English was the mother tongue of the majority of the people. In spite of all this, this feeling of pride or identification made the Americans develop their English through slight and sometimes significant variations in all the areas of language.

The closer look at this variation reveals the reality that sometimes it is resulting in simplification and sometimes in complication with reference to British English. In real sense, it is recognized all over the world that American English has gained currency after the World War II. All this is due to the continued political, social and economic domination since then. The clear image of American English is also shown by this fact that the English spoken in Canada, Puerto Rico, Philippines and American Samoa is categorized as a deviation from American English rather than British English.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Sardar Fayyaz ul Hassan

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com

12: 1 January 2012

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Syntactical and Morphological Differences in British and American English

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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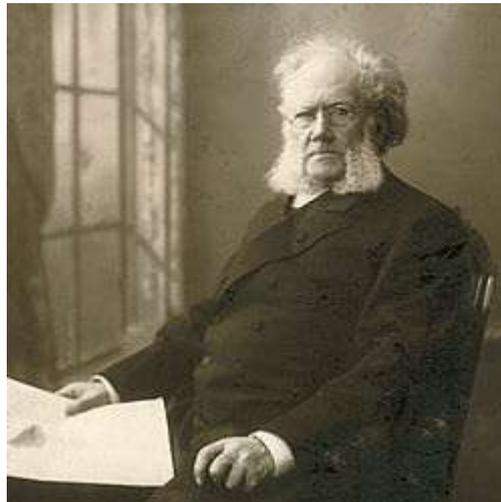
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Revenge in *John Gabriel Borkman*

Md. Sarwar Jahan, M.Phil.



Henrik Ibsen 1828-1906

Point of Departure

The point of departure for my claim is Peter Madsen's "Nature's Revenge: The dialectics of mastering in late Ibsen" where he writes, "the attempt to create the economic preconditions for the development of the natural resources involved repression of natural human attitudes.

In order to raise the treasure of nature he (Borkman) had to strike down on his own inner

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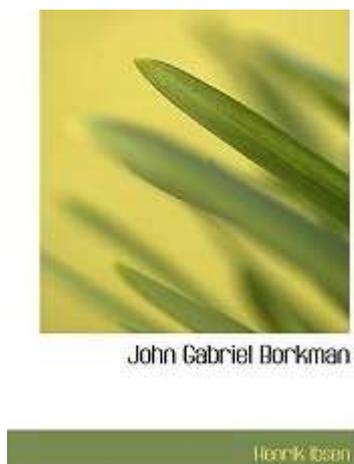
Revenge in John Gabriel Borkman

nature by sacrificing his love to Ella Rentheim. But nature takes its revenge: emptiness invades his life” (Madsen 77). I believe that ‘revenge’ in this play is related with the Renaissance aspirations of the major characters, which is not related to modernity alone. A universal search for glory is also involved here that distorts human relationships. I would show how nature’s revenge is enacted through the motive of revenge working in each character as the basic human relationships break down.

Theoretical Basis and Basic Question

Madsen’s essay would be my theoretical basis; along with it, I would discuss Karen Horney, an American psychiatrist, whose theory on search for glory helps me to take the topic. I will start with the statement where she writes, “the last element in the search of glory, more destructive than the others, is the drive *toward a vindictive triumph*. It may be closely linked up with the drive for actual achievement and success, but if so, its chief aim is to put others to shame or defeat them through one’s very success; or to attain the power, by rising to prominence, to inflict suffering upon them—mostly of a humiliating kind.”(Horney 1950, 26-27) Though her theory is basically meant for the children I would apply it on the adult characters of this play, and ask “Why did they incline towards this vindictive triumph?”

The Characters in Search for Glory



Madsen begins his essay by pointing to a question if Ibsen could be considered a modernist. He sees modernity as how the individual and the collectives experience the process of modernisation and its effects. This process is dependant on cultural and material conditions

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by which an individual subject appropriates a situation. Borkman's search for glory is directly related with the modernization process because his glorious kingdom is established on the reality of the 19th century industrialization of Europe. To achieve his glory Borkman used unlawful means and he was not hesitant or ashamed to cling to dishonesty. He did not have the slightest idea of its consequences, even while talking to his old friend Foldal he judges himself as an extraordinary man and the rest as average people. In the conversation with Foldal he says that it is a curse that they, the "exceptional, chosen people" must bear and as he says: "The common herd- the average man and woman--they do not understand us, Vilhelm." (This and the other quotations from the play are extracted from William Archer's translation accessed at <http://www.gutenberg.org/files/18792/18792.txt> on 7.5.2009 at 12.30.) This is the symptom of suffering from the superiority complex that makes human beings too rigid and cruel to keep pace with normal humanity. He is preoccupied with dreams, which even restricts his thoughts while talking to his beloved:

Borkman: [without listening to her]: Can you see the smoke from the great steamships out on the fjord?

Ella: No.

Borkman: I can. They come and they go. They carry the spirit of unity all round the world. They shed light and warmth over the souls in many a thousand homes. That was that I dreamt of doing [...] Oh, but all these--they are only like the outworks around the kingdom, I tell you!

Ella: The kingdom, did you say? What kingdom?

Borkman: My kingdom of course! The kingdom I was on the point of conquering when I--when I died.

He left Ella to attain his own glory and she is the victim of his all encompassing vision, but this victimization teaches her to become another Borkman. She starts a new mission that may restore her glory. Ella initially does not make it clear why she comes to stay at Borkman's house but gradually expresses her desire in two different circumstances. To her sister she tells about Erhart that "I want to free him from your power--your will--your despotism" and later while talking to Mr Borkman she claims to win Erhart completely and said "Let Erhart bear my name after me!" By doing so she actually wants to remain alive after her death because

doctors have already told her that she may perhaps last out the winter. This is how she finds meaning in her life and fixes a goal which she in a round about way expresses to her sister. But the things were not so easy because Ella's presence in the house made the atmosphere very tensed; specially Mrs Borkman suspected her of some ill intentions and made it clear in her behaviour. Ella declared her rightful purpose by expressing her love:

Ella. First let me tell you, I think I too have a certain claim upon Erhart. Do you think I haven't?

Mrs. Borkman. [Glancing round the room.] No doubt--after all the money you have spent upon him.

Ella. Oh, not on that account, Gunhild. But because I love him.

Mrs. Borkman. [Smiling scornfully.] Love my son? Is it possible? You? In spite of everything?

Ella. Yes, it is possible--in spite of everything. And it is true. I love Erhart--as much as I can love any one--now--at my time of life.

Her glorious mission is fully exposed to Borkman, and this mission was undertaken as a vengeance against his act.

Ella. Why else should I have taken him to me, and kept him as long as ever I could? Why?

Borkman. I thought it was out of pity, like all the rest that you did.

Ella. [In strong inward emotion.] Pity! Ha, ha! I have never known pity, since you deserted me. I was incapable of feeling it. If a poor starved child came into my kitchen, shivering, and crying, and begging for a morsel of food, I let the servants look to it. I never felt any desire to take the child to myself, to warm it at my own hearth, to have the pleasure of seeing it eat and be satisfied. And yet I was not like that when I was young; that I remember clearly! It is you that have created an empty, barren desert within me--and without me too!

On the other hand, Mrs. Borkman's mission in life has different meaning. Her lost honour is to be restored through that, but this seems to be resentful and bitter. Her moral fight with Ella regarding the son's possession is simultaneously her passion for a glorious life which will also inflict pain and humiliation on Ella although she mentions Borkman in the following conversation:

Mrs. Borkman:[Drawing herself up menacingly.] But I tell you this, Ella, I do not give in yet! I shall redeem myself yet--you may make up your mind to that!

Ella. [Eagerly] Redeem yourself! What do you mean by that?

Mrs. Borkman. Redeem my name, and honour, and fortune! Redeem my ruined life-- that is what I mean! I have some one in reserve; let me tell you--one who will wash away every stain that he has left.

Erhart, too, has his own vision of life. He shares neither the industrialised dominion of Borkman, nor the impassionate restitution of his mother's past glory. His mission is simply 'to live'. He, as a confused young man, takes life in an abstract way, and craves for abstract happiness.

Erhart: [with a sudden glow]: I am young! I want to live, for once in a way, as well as other people! I want to live my own life! [...]

[Passionately.] Yes, but I don't want to work now! For I am young! That's what I never realised before; but now the knowledge is tingling through every vein in my body. I will not work! I will only live, live, live!

He does not explain his idea of living, but he is obviously a lotus-eater, a destitute young man whose psyche has been toyed with many times by the elders in life and that has moulded his intention and understanding of 'living'. First it is the mother who for her goal destroys the mother- son relationship by imposing certain "mission" on him for which Erhart says, "Oh, say rather what you have consecrated my life to. You, you have been my will. You have never given me leave to have any of my own. But now I cannot bear this yoke any longer. I am young; remember that, mother. I cannot consecrate my life to making atonement for another--whoever that other may be."

Victims of the Circumstances?

If we want to reject the idea of revenge completely, which is very unlikely, we have to establish the characters as victims of circumstances. Borkman is neither a victim nor a criminal. His inborn passion for power and wealth is an integral part of modernised Europe that has taught the individual to become self centred and cruel. Madsen compares him with Solness, which is interesting, as both of them share the Renaissance aspirations of growing up to the ultimate. Apart from the protagonist, the other characters in the play are somehow or other vindictive. It stands on the basic idea of revenge. In the play Ibsen has dealt with

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revenge in two different ways, one is explicit and the other is implicit. The latter is related to the subconscious mind of the characters. Long before the actual beginning of the play the first vengeful had already been enacted. In the conversation between Ella and Borkman in the second act this intention of revenge is mentioned.

Borkman. You might perfectly well have been happy with him. And then I should have been saved.

Ella. You?

Borkman. Yes, you would have saved me, Ella.

Ella. How do you mean?

Borkman. He thought I was at the bottom of your obstinacy--of your perpetual refusals. And then he took his revenge. It was so easy for him; he had all my frank, confiding letters in his keeping. He made his own use of them; and then it was all over with me—for the time, that is to say. So you see it is all your doing, Ella!

This someone was none but Borkman's confidant Mr. Hinkel and this revenge is the basis of all other sufferings, downfall and so called 'missions' in the other characters. It is Borkman himself who became the first victim of revenge and he thinks the twin-sisters are, to some extent, responsible for his unrealised dream. It is interesting to observe that he shows different attitudes towards them, with Ella he is sympathetic and emotional but he is arrogant and ruthless towards his wife. He knew it very well that Ella did not do any wrong to him, was not responsible for his downfall; but he accused Mrs Borkman in the court which is evident in her conversation with Ella where Mrs Borkman says, "did he not say in court that it was I who began his ruin? That I spent money so recklessly?" He blames, while talking to Foldal, both the sisters for taking his son Erhart away from him. He says, "I never do any one injustice! Both of them have gone and poisoned his mind against me, I tell you!"

His immediate reaction to them was contradictory. When Ella goes to meet him in his isolated room he says, [Staring at her.] "Who are you? What do you want with me?" He is inquisitive and soft with Ella here but at the end of this act when Mrs Borkman enters he is aggressive and inflicts humiliation by uttering "I allow no one to come up to my room!" And "the worst "powers of evil" are in yourself, Gunhild!"

Could it be logical for Borkman to take revenge against Hinkel and was he in a position to do so? As far as the story goes and the other factors are concerned Borkman was not in a position to do anything against Hinkel because lawfully he was found guilty and that he lost all economic power. Foldal, though in anger, also feels in the same manner and says to Borkman that “You would have to be legally rehabilitated---”. Borkman replied with certain self believe which worked as a dream in the core of his heart and this is where his sense of superiority works as the basis of his revenge.

Though Borkman remained stubbornly faithful in his goal he could not achieve that. If only his mission would be fulfilled he would have got the feeling of winning the battle and satisfy his ego which is evident in the conversation between Borkman and Foldal.

Borkman.[Stopping in front of him.] You are quite right in what you said just now--you have not made any career. But I promise you this, Vilhelm, that when once the hour of my restoration strikes----

Foldal. [Making a movement to rise.] Oh, thanks, thanks!

Borkman. [Waving his hand.] No, please be seated. [With rising excitement.] When the hour of my restoration strikes--when they see that they cannot get on without me--when they come to me, here in the gallery, and crawl to my feet, and beseech me to take the reins of the bank again----! The new bank, that they have founded and can't carry on----[Placing himself beside the writing-table in the same attitude as before, and striking his breast.] Here I shall stand, and receive them!!

Forgetting and completely ignoring his own fault he creates an imaginary situation where he sets himself as a very strong and powerful person, who takes the honour to forgiving them for their fault, and greet them and raise them to his level. Borkman's inner psychology is clearly understandable through his choice of words in the above-mentioned speech.

From the very beginning of the play one can sense that for some unknown reason there is a miscommunication and breach going on between the sisters. In the course of time it becomes clear that the cause of this miscommunication is Borkman. When Ella meets Mrs Borkman in the opening scene the reaction of the latter clearly points to their uneasy past:

Ella (hesitating by the door). You look quite surprised to see me, Gunhild.

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Mrs Borkman(standing stiffly upright between the sofa and the table, steadying the fingertips against the cloth). Aren't you mistaken? The manager of the state lives in the annex, you know.

Mrs Borkman indicates at something unnatural in her sister's motive behind Erhart's upbringing. She asks "but when you set about, all on your own, to bring up Erhart for me— what was your motive in that?" Ella was not ready for the question and she is hesitant to answer and instead of replying she returns the question, "my motive?" She seems to take time to cover up her real feelings here which might bring other unwanted questions. She says that she "came to love him so dearly," but Mrs Borkman is not satisfied with the answer and discards it by saying, "pooh – people situated as we are have something else than happiness to think of." Ella declares to Borkman, "it was the love of my inmost heart for Erhart--and for you too--that made me do it!"

The answer Ella gives here and what she says about her feeling for Erhart afterwards do not conform to the answer she gives to Borkman in their conversation in the second act. Interestingly enough, in the same conversation she accuses Borkman for "killing the capacity to love." She definitely knows it quite clearly that she can not win back her beloved but by winning the heart of Erhart she can get the feeling of winning the battle against her sister.

Ella. Why else should I have taken him to me, and kept him as long as ever I could? Why?

Borkman. I thought it was out of pity, like all the rest that you did.

Ella. [In strong inward emotion.] Pity! Ha, ha! I have never known pity, since you deserted me. I was incapable of feeling it. If a poor starved child came into my kitchen, shivering, and crying, and begging for a morsel of food, I let the servants look to it. I never felt any desire to take the child to myself, to warm it at my own hearth, to have the pleasure of seeing it eat and be satisfied. And yet I was not like that when I was young; that I remember clearly! It is you that have created an empty, barren desert within me--and without me too!

Borkman. Except only for Erhart.

Ella. Yes, except for your son. But I am hardened to every other living thing. You have cheated me of a mother's joy and happiness in life--and of a mother's sorrows and tears as well. And perhaps that is the heaviest part of the loss to me.

Borkman. Do you say that, Ella?

Ella. Who knows? It may be that a mother's sorrows and tears were what I needed most. [With still deeper emotion.] But at that time I could not resign myself to my loss; and that was why I took Erhart to me. I won him entirely. Won his whole, warm, trustful childish heart--until---- oh! (II)

Isn't Ella pointing to compensate her love by winning and taking the control of the 'trusting heart of a child'? Otherwise why would she mention to Mrs Borkman

Ella. Then I will win him back from you! [Hoarsely, half whispering] We two have fought a life-and-death battle before, Gunhild--for a man's soul!.Do you still think that victory was worth the winning?

Mrs. Borkman. [Darkly.] No; Heaven knows you are right there.

Ella. You need look for no victory worth the winning this time either.

Ella who understood Erhart much better than his mother but unfortunately what she did to bring happiness in his life put her under a big question mark. Her notion to liberate Erhart from the grip of his mother was an act of victimising the real mother as ethically Ella does not have the right to possess him.

Ella, unlike Lona Hessel in *Pillars of Society*, operates a dark intention to avenge her defeat. Lona never thought of restoring her name after losing Bernick through taking away Betty's child. The immortal mother in her could forgive Betty and Bernick, and she wanted Bernick to acknowledge his guilt instead of being an agent of pain for him. Ella is more complicated than Lona. It is interesting that when she realises that her sister won't allow Erhart to go with her she seeks for Borkman's help to get back his son though she accused him of abandoning her and killing the ability to love. To her Borkman was a 'criminal'. The irony of the fact is that she seeks help to that criminal who had committed 'the supreme, mortal sin'. Did she then get any positive sign from Borkman to believe that he still loved her or whatever she said was nothing but emotional accusation?

In their conversation Borkman clearly stated what he felt about her when he abandoned her. Joan Templeton calls Borkman "the most ruthless" of Ibsen's last four ambitious men (1997, 291) because he "coolly trades" Ella and betrays Gunhild. Templeton also calls him an egotist as he only takes part peripherally in the conflict between the sisters over the possession of his son. She writes, "Ibsen is less interested in Borkman's abuse of Ella and

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Gunhild, cruel though it was, than in the women's continuing absorption in their victimization. Consumed by Borkman's transgressions against them, they have spent years nursing their injuries" (ibid, 292). But as if to oppose Templeton's aggressive remarks, Borkman utters in the play something in his defence.

Borkman (not looking at her). One doesn't care to take all that's dearest along on a journey like that. [...]

Ella. That I was dearest of all to you?

Borkman. Yes, I have—something of that impression.

Ella is with Borkman to the end, but she cannot forgive Mrs. Borkman. The battle of possessing Erhart started immediately after Borkman's being free from prison. Borkman had "a valid enough excuse" and Mrs Borkman was economically not solvent to look after her son, so it was Ella who took the charge of young Erhart for bringing him up. Ella couldn't accept that nor could she prevent. From then on Mrs Borkman has grown a feeling of distrust against her sister and so when Ella after eight years come to their house to take Erhart to her custody possibly she sensed it and hence showed cool attitude towards Ella at the beginning of the play. In the name of freeing Erhart from his mother's control and domination Ella proposes complete freedom in taking his own decision when his mother asked him not to go to the Hinkel's—"I should like you to feel quite free, Erhart".

In one hand Ella was deprived of love and on the other she was forced to believe that she had been defeated by her sister, which might have made her vindictive. For that reason she took the challenge of winning the heart of Erhart completely because that would be the only possible way to take revenge and satisfy herself. Ibsen with his masterful stroke created the character of Ella. At least we get some positivism in her approach. Comprehending the husband-wife relationship she asked "Could you not make the first movement, then" but Mrs Borkman's self-ego, her incapacity to grasp the whole situation, Borkman's obstinacy and humiliation shown to her made her stick to the blind path of revenge that made the situation more complex.

Moreover, Ella's psychological war against her sister prevented them from showing any rationality. Ella's sympathy and love for Borkman helped her to do something positive for him, to bring hope in his life, to establish him in the normal course of life though she knows that Borkman has done all the wrong against her. Ella even accused him of committing "double murder". It would have been natural if she took some steps against Borkman as he sinned against Ella. But she does not do anything against him rather her desire to win the only child of the family makes Mrs Borkman the ultimate victim, because Erhart is the sole and last mental refuge of her.

Conclusion

Karen Horney writes that human beings have amazing capacity to consider values in a reversed way which works unconsciously. "Thus", she writes, "inconsistency turns into unlimited freedom, blind rebellion against an existing code of morals into being above common prejudice, a taboo on doing anything for oneself into saintly unselfishness, a need to appease into sheer goodness, dependency into love, exploiting others into astuteness. A capacity to assert egocentric claims appears as strength, vindictiveness as justice ...and so on." Most of these qualities are traceable in the characters so far we have brought into discussion. In this way they form a vicious circle, from which there is no apparent or immediate solution. She mentions that these unconscious processes remind her of the Trolls in Ibsen's *Peer Gynt*, for whom "black looks white, and ugly fair, big looks little, and filthy clean (Horney 94)"

As long as, Horney further writes, "you live in a self-sufficient dream world like *Peer Gynt*, Ibsen says, you can not be true to yourself. Between the two there is no bridge. They are too different in principle to allow for any compromise solution. And if you are not true to yourself, but live an egocentric life of imagined grandeur, then you will play ducks and drakes with your values too."(ibid 94) We see the same situation in *John Gabriel Borkman*. In the name of glory and achievement, fixed by the characters, they act in such an irrational way that completely destroys the base of personal and social relationship without which man's existence crumple down. Unfortunately this can not be understood properly when

human beings are within it because then they create their own sense of judgement which is completely biased and their “human consciousness blinded” (Madsen 73). There is no point of return for the characters from this situation. Ibsen as usual does not predict or suggest any solution in the context as his plays do not profess to indicate how a better state of things could be introduced; he considers himself only a portrait-painter (Sherard 1897). The portraits he paints in *Jon Gabriel Borkman* are certainly some of the most complicated ones who are driven by revenge motive but become the victims of their own passion for glory.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com
12 : 1 January 2012
Md. Sarwar Jahan, M.Phil.
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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Testing and Evaluation: A Significant Characteristic of Language Learning and Teaching

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Abstract

This paper deals with Testing and Evaluation which is an important aspect of the process of language learning and teaching. A Linguistics approach to language teaching is a scientific and objective approach and is based on the theoretical knowledge of Linguistics. Since language testing involves language, one cannot ignore the assumptions of Linguistics. Linguistics has to offer many things to the teaching of native and foreign languages. Similarly it is also recognized that Linguistics can be of great help in evolving the methodology of the construction of language tests.

Key Words: Testing & Evaluation, Language Learning & Teaching, Measuring, Examination, Various type of test etc.

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Introduction

Testing and evaluation has attracted much attention of the Scholars of Linguistics as well as language teachers. Much research has been done in this particular area. There have been revolutionary changes in the method & procedure of language testing. Research has been conducted in order to find out a scientific and standard method for language testing. Various linguists have suggested the measures which one has to take into account while constructing a language test.

There are various requirements of a test, without which a test cannot be considered a valid and standard. Ingram (1974:319) observes that the search for 'objective' testing methods is the direct out come of dissatisfaction with the unreliability of the marking of traditional examinations.

Objective Type of Tests

Tests are set up so as to eliminate any differences in results due to variations in the judgment of one marker at different times. The objective type test derives its name from the objectivity in scoring. Since there is only one correct answer to such a test and since in most cases the answer is given along with the test and the candidate is simply required to indicate the correct answer with a tick or a number, the subjective judgment of the examiner cannot vitiate the scoring. As far as scoring is concerned, these tests are highly reliable.

Some of the popular types of objective type tests are: Constant-Alternative, Rearrangement type, Multiple-Choice type, Matching type, True-False type, Yes/No Answer type, Completion type (Fill-in the blank type) etc.

Objective Type Tests versus Traditional Tests

The objective type tests have certain distinct advantages over the traditional essay type tests, i.e. (a) objective type tests can cover a large area of syllabus in a relatively short time and (b) objective type tests can be scored easily & objectively.

Traditionally, the system of evaluation was subjective in nature. Bhat (1992) is of the view that the present examination system is conducted to determine fail or pass of the participants. The examinations test the knowledge of textbooks and the competence of the teacher rather than the competence of the student. Major portions of syllabus are deleted while setting up question papers. This infused a stigma of "Choice Making" on the part of learners and the aim is only to pass the examination rather than master the course. This contributed to the degeneration of the evaluation system.

A subjective test is based on an opinion or judgment on the part of examiner, which is expected to match with that of an examinee. It involves more of memorization

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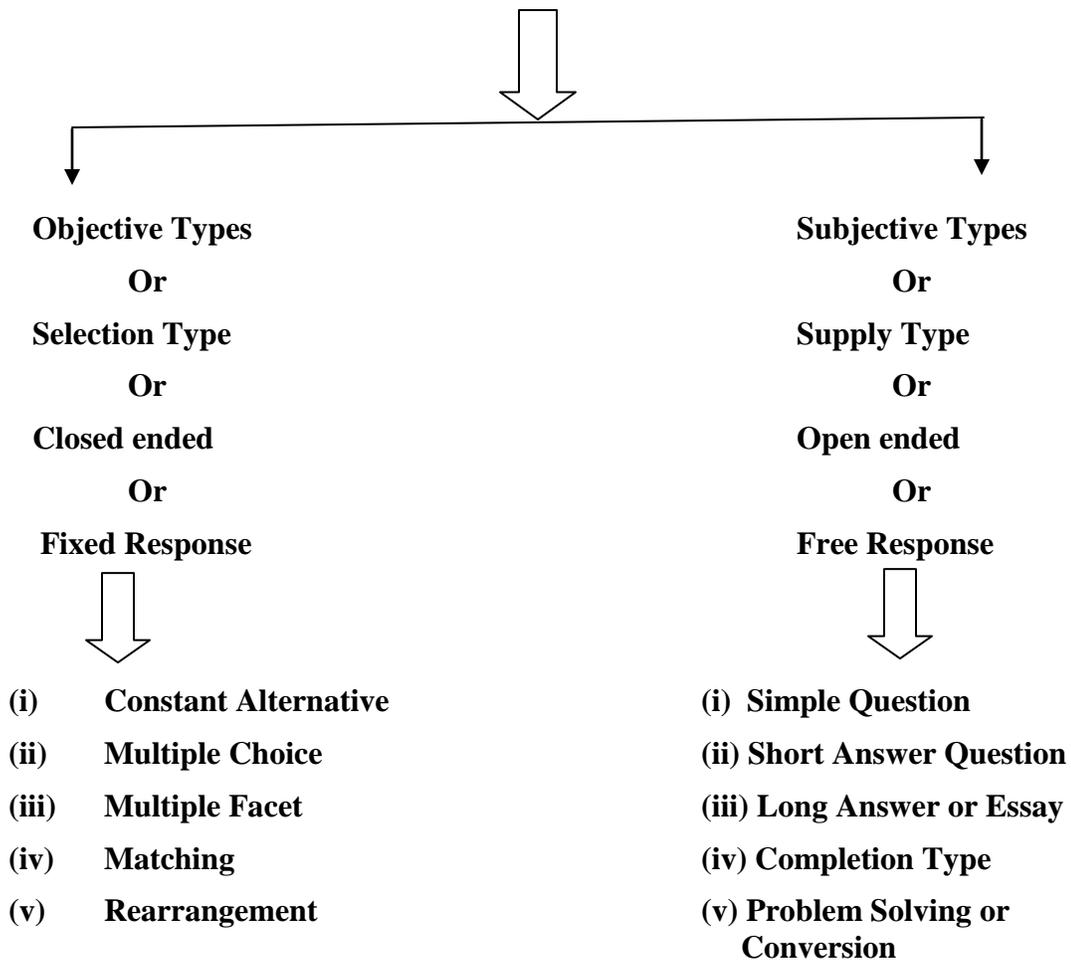
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on the part of learner, while an objective test is scored mechanically and involves measurement.

Some of the popular types of Subjective type tests are: Simple Question type, Short Answer type, Long Answer type, Problem solving, Completion etc. They are shown given below:

Item Types



Review of Literature

Testing, Evaluation and Examination

Testing has been described by the scholars of the Linguistics as a “device” or “instrument”, which measures the linguistic knowledge or competence of the learners.

A test has been defined as a “measuring device”. Measurement is the process of assigning numerical value to the response for a given task to each of the members or a set of objects or group of persons normally examinees.

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Ingram (1974:313) is of the view that “tests, like examinations, invite candidates to display their knowledge or skills in a concentrated fashion, so that the result can be graded, and inferences made from the standard of performance that can be expected from the candidate, either at the time of the test or at some future time”. A test is conducted to measure the knowledge of an individual and to compare him with other individuals who belong to the same group.

According to Carrol (1965: 364), “the purpose of testing is always to render information to aid in making intelligent decisions about possible courses of action. Some times these decisions affect only the future design or used of the tests themselves, in which case we are dealing with solely experimental uses of tests. Some times the decisions have to do with the retention or alteration of courses of training, as when one decides that poor tests results are due to in effective training”.

Pit Corder (1973:351) is of the view that “language tests are measuring instruments and they are applied to learners, not to the teaching materials or teachers. For this reason they do not tell us ‘directly’ about the contribution of the ‘teacher’ or the ‘materials’ to the learning process. They are designed to measure the learners ‘knowledge of’ or ‘competence’ in the language at particular moment in his course and nothing else. The knowledge of one pupil may be compared with the knowledge of others or with that of the same pupil at a different time, or with same standard or norm, as in the case of height, weight, temperature etc.”

According to Halliday, et al., (1966:215), “tests are an attempt to construct an instrument for measuring attainment, or progress, or ability in language skills.”

Thus, testing is a set of techniques of questioning and observing to find out how far learning is taking place, whether the students are following the teacher or instructor, and what are the problems of the students? It is also used to assess the knowledge of the students in order to compare one individual to another individual in the same group.

The term *evaluation* in modern educational practice is used for “tests” and “examination”. It is a general term that covers both. It is a much more comprehensive term than either test or examination. The term *test* refers to the measurement of the competence of the learners with reference to the particular area of knowledge, whereas the term *examination* refers to particular standard that is to be achieved by the learner after a particular level.

A test is regarded as an attempt to see whether the things taught have been learned, while examination is regarded as an attempt to find out whether the students have attained certain predetermined standard. Thus, a test is directly concerned with teaching while an examination is linked with an externally fixed standard of achievement. However, since both tests and examinations have the same common function, namely evaluation, it has become conventional to call them ‘tests’.

Principles of Testing

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- ❖ Anything which can be defined can be tested.
- ❖ Anything which cannot be defined cannot be tested.
- ❖ What is being taught only that is to be tested.
- ❖ You cannot test what you have not taught.
- ❖ Testing should provide information that is credible and very useful.
- ❖ Testing should be impartial and independent in its function.
- ❖ It should always be against some identified standards.

In the area of testing and evaluation, evaluation refers to the judgment of performance as process or product of change. In other words, it is the process of testing, appraising and judging achievement, growth, product, process or changes in these, through the use of formal and informal tests and techniques. The process of evaluation is global in conception and application. There are three major components that constitute the concept of evaluation and testing, i.e. **C**ontent, **M**ethod and **P**urpose.

Content: Content has different connotation in testing. The general assumption is that whatever has been taught is to be tested. Hence, whatever is assumed as content for teaching will become the content for testing too? In Second Language teaching, structure gets focused as main content. In First Language teaching, meaning gets the main focus and in the area of education, the traits of personality.

Method: A means or manner of procedure, especially a regular and systematic way of accomplishing something. In other words, it refers to the plans or procedures followed to accomplish a task or attain a goal. In testing, it refers to the procedure to be followed according to a definite, established, logical or systematic plan.

Purpose: In the field of testing it is defined as the reason for which something exists/happens. It is synonymously used to represent the terms goal, aim and objective. Goal refers to a very broad and ultimate category, aim to a more specific set of purposes, and objective as the most precisely defined ends which can be described in terms of behavioral outcomes in the field of education.

Discussion

1. Tests designed for various purposes:

Tests are designed for different purposes, which help in making decisions about possible course of action. Keeping in view the purpose, tests may be characterized as follows:

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(a) Proficiency tests:

It is designed to find out how much of a language a person actually knows. As Davies (1977:46) suggests, “proficiency tests, as we see it, are concerned with assessing what has been learned of a known or an unknown syllabus”. This test may be used generally before language teaching programme in order to prepare the teaching materials for the learning programme. On the basis of the information collected through this test, language teachers prepare their teaching materials. This test is very helpful in order to organize teaching materials according to the current need.

(b) Achievement tests:

This test is constructed to find out that how much of a course a learner has actually mastered. Paterno (1965: 376) is of the view that “An achievement test is an inquiry to see if what has been taught is retained”. It determines that how much of the material of a course has actually been mastered by the learner. This includes only what has been taught to him. These tests are generally given at the end of the teaching programme.

(c) Prognostic tests:

This test is designed to predict the knowledge of a person, that, up to which level he is able to learn. This test is very useful for selecting the students in any language learning programme and the material of teaching, which is sufficient to the learner in any teaching programme.

(d) Diagnostic tests:

Diagnostic test differs from other tests on the basis of the use of the information obtained and to the absence of a skill in the learner. The purpose of this test is to find out what remains to be taught during the course of learning. As Davies (1977:47) points out that, “a diagnostic test may be constructed for itself or it may be an additional use made of an achievement or proficiency test. If it is specially constructed it could perhaps be argued that some element of learner’s skills, or rather absence of skill, is involved because the tester is concerned with discovering what might be termed non-achievement”. Through this test a teacher can know where the learner needs more attention and which area of language skills has to be practiced more. This test also points out the shortcomings of the learner and of teaching materials. And if teacher will know shortcomings of the learner and of teaching materials, he could adopt certain remedial methods in order to remove the learning difficulties.

2. Preparation of tests:

Objective tests are designed to elicit specific responses. It can be quickly judged as correct or incorrect. Objective tests can be of two types: discrete items and passage items. Tests can be constructed successfully only after the objectives of the course are finalized. An instructor has to determine the objectives of the test as well as prepare a general plan in advance. In modern language teaching programmes, an equal emphasis is given to all the basic language skills i.e. Comprehension, Speaking, Reading and Writing, from the beginning of the course, and language tests are to be prepared accordingly. In language testing, time is an important factor. Both the duration of a test and its proper administration at regular intervals are essential factors to be kept in mind.

There are three main stages of preparation of a test.

- (i) **Planning:** It covers outlining test, listing of topics, casting of ideas for items and material collection.
- (ii) **Composition:** This includes the composition of actual items and choice for objectivity.
- (iii) **Analysis:** It consists of determining difficulties and discrimination of test items. Speediness of test and scope for its improvement.

3. Characteristics of tests:

As Bachman (1992: 119) suggests, a language test can be classified in terms of five characteristics, which are as follows:

- (i) Test can be distinguished according to their intended use, such as selection, entrance, readiness, placement, diagnosis, progress, attainment and mastery.
- (ii) Tests can differ in content; Achievement tests are based on syllabus, while a proficiency test derives a theory of language ability.
- (iii) Different frames of reference can provide the basis for test development and score interpretation norm referenced tests are developed to maximize differences among individual test takers and a test score is interpreted in relation to the score of the test takers.
- (iv) Tests can be classified according to the scoring procedure (the act or process of evaluating responses to test situations or evaluating characteristics of whomever or whatever is being rated. It consists of checking the student's response to each item to see if it is correct. Scoring objective tests is purely mechanical process which requires no special skills); objective tests require no judgment on the part of the scorer but in subjective tests, the scorer must judge the correctness of the test taker's response.

- (v) Tests may employ different testing methods, such as dictation, cloze, multiple choice, completion, composition and interview.

Those above characteristics are neither mutually exclusive nor independent of one another. A participator test may be useful for more than one purpose, such as entrance and placement, and either an achievement or a proficiency test might be used for placement depending on the specific situation.

4. Requirements of a test:

A test has been characterized by certain features, which can be termed as “requirements of a test”. Ingram (1974:313) has discussed these requirements of a test. A good test must meet at least six requirements, which are as follows:

- (i) **Discrimination:** It is one of the most important requirements, which is necessary for a test. It means that a test must be designed in such a way that it can discriminate among the students. If we want to measure the height of the school children, we should use such a measuring device, which is suitable for the students whom we are going to measure.
- (ii) **Reliability:** Reliability refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument that is if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always be the same, regardless of who is giving and marking it. As Paterno (1965:379) suggests that, “A test that lacks reliability is as useless as a thermometer that gave different reading when the temperature of the air was the same. A test is reliable if it will always give the same results under the same conditions”. A test must have consistency in it. As Davies (1977:57) is of the view that, “A reliable test possesses consistency of results. An inconsistent test would give meaning less, random results. Before looking at the meaning of results, it is important to ensure that they are reliable”.
- (iii) **Validity:** It means that the test should measure the same for which it has been devised. If it does, it is a valid test. If a test of pronunciation tests only pronunciation and nothing else, it is a valid test of pronunciation. Paterno (1965:378) suggests that, “Validity can only be obtained when we state clearly the objectives of our teaching, break them down into skills and abilities involved, and define them in separable elements; and then to measure each in situations which comes as close as possible to the real circumstances in which they will be used”. For instance if listening comprehension in English is aimed at, it must be tested in a variety of ways that approach the actual, normal use of language. Ingram (1974:315) is of the view that, “the most obvious way of achieving validity is to arrange for a job sample. If you want to know how good a person is at writing essays, you ask him to write an essay, if you want to know how fluent he is in a foreign language, you ask him to

talk to you. The trouble is that, validity is limited by reliability; no test or examination can be anymore valid than it is reliable. So if it turns out that the reliability of marking essays or of rating command of spoken language is low, then validity of the marks or ratings must be correspondingly low”. If the reliability of a test ensures its consistency, validity ensures its meaningfulness. A test is meaningful, within the terms of what is wanted from the test.

- (iv) **Scorability:** It refers, that the test should be scored with ease so that the user may be able to handle it. Subjective tests are not easy to score as compared to objective tests. Secondly there should not be any differences in scoring. The difference will affect the accuracy of the test.
- (v) **Economy:** This is practical criterion the test should measure what it wants to test and it should also measure in a reasonable time. If it does, the test is practical and economical.
- (vi) **Administerability:** It means that a test should be such that it may be given under the conditions that prevail and the personnel (person who is conducting the test) that are available. For instance, if a test requires electronic equipments and the service of highly trained technician, then it is not administrable since these facilities are not available in most of the school and even most colleges and Universities.

Summary & Conclusion

Thus, testing and evaluation are very useful in the preparation of language teaching materials as well as after the actual teaching has taken place. These tests are used to place the students into categories as well as to judge the problems of teaching. On the basis of these tests, language teacher focuses his or her attention towards the areas of difficulties which the learner faces in any language teaching programme and these areas of difficulties can be predicted by the effective use of language tests. So, without effective testing no language teaching programme can be successful.

We must mention here another important matter: a comprehensive language testing covers all the levels of Linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, grammar and semantics and without the knowledge and application of Linguistics these areas cannot be tested properly. A linguistic approach to language testing, therefore, is an approach, which makes use of the theoretical knowledge of Linguistics. For instance, for testing the listening and speaking skills, the knowledge of the phonological system of the target language is essential. Only then appropriate tests can be constructed and the required skill can be tested properly.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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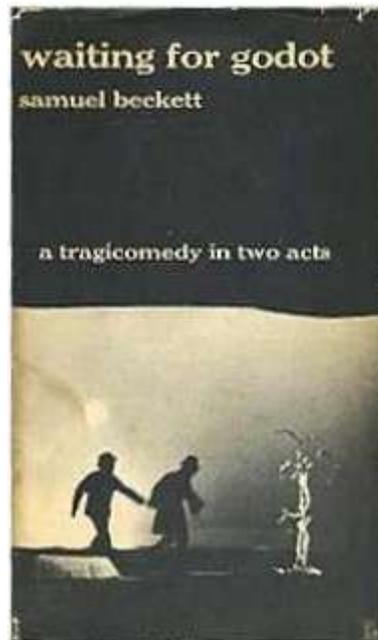
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Agonies of Existence in Samuel Beckett's *Waiting for Godot*

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Understanding Beckett: *Absurdism*

Samuel Beckett as a playwright is not easy to describe and not easy to understand as well. No two opinions on that indeed! Beckett belongs to the category of those writers, who are considered the members of the “Theatre of the Absurd”. His characters are the complete product of the philosophy of *Absurdism*. “The Absurd” refers to the conflict between the human tendency to seek value and meaning in life and the human inability to find any, that is, in this meaningless universe, human existence is meaningless altogether”. In this context, *Absurd* does not mean “logically impossible” but rather, “humanly impossible”. All the efforts by human beings to find the meaning of life have dashed to the ground. This is exactly what Beckett’s characters have been doing and trying to convey throughout their lives. Agony of existence is the core problem of all Beckett’s characters and the ruthless life compels them to bear this agony and to admit this fact that there is no option for them.

Beckett’s Unparalleled Breadth of Influence

Human life and its agonies are merciless and Beckett reveals this fact through his characters without any mawkishness. No other dramatist has the capacity to represent this naked truth with such a perfect rectitude. From the very threshold of his career, he presented the art which was common neither for the readers nor for the audience. In his plays, he does not give an account of the stark and harsh realities of life, instead of it, he tells that life itself is a stark and harsh reality in this universe. Here his art makes him conspicuous among his contemporaries and predecessors.

Beckett has an unparalleled breadth of influence on his entire era. His bleak outlook of human life generates many questions in the minds of his readers, the most important one, why we exist? Though none of his plays answers this question, his characters themselves try to find the answer and this is what his readers/audience do afterwards. This is Beckett’s style which is peculiar to him and this is what we find in his *Waiting for Godot*

The First Play of Beckett: *Waiting for Godot*

Beckett’s *Waiting for Godot* is a magnum opus of his art and is one of the most important dramatic works of the 20th century. However, it is not everybody’s cup of tea. There is much in this play to puzzle, bewilder, intrigue and even irritate the reader. Its entertainment value is almost negligible. Its importance as a work of art lies in the multiplicity of meanings which critics have discovered in it and the many interpretations of it they have offered.

Originally written in French under the title *En attendant Godot*, it was Beckett’s first play to be performed in Paris (in 1952) and it was hailed by critics as the most important dramatic production to be staged in France since World War 2nd. Shortly afterwards, the

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English version achieved parallel successes in New York, London and Dublin.

Beckett and His Vision of Desolation

Waiting for Godot is Beckett's vision of desolation. The play starts bleakly enough. From the very outset, the tone of the play is explicitly clear that there is something unusual in the play, which has the full capacity to startle both the readers and the audience and the play did so. Notwithstanding the fact, this is a play in which according to one critic, "nothing happens twice." The conspicuous success it has achieved on the stage in a large number of countries is really surprising in view of the fact that it is devoid of the conventional elements which make up a play. It has no romantic interest, not even a female character in the cast, and it has very little action. Its "meaning" too is not very clear, the very personality of *Godot* being one of the riddles of the play.

Two Tramps and Their Waiting

There is no adventure, no chaos, no catastrophe, no social or political upheaval in the play. Two tramps, Estragon and Vladimir on a deserted country road are waiting for someone, named *Godot*. Both are the true portrait of every human being on the earth, who bear the agonies of existence. They are constrained to bear the agonies because they have born and they have to pay for it at any cost. They are waiting for *Godot*, who they think will be the source of their salvation, but he never comes. While waiting for him, how they pass their time, the play deals with it, so waiting is a recurring motif of the play.

We All Wait!

Every one of us experiences 'waiting' in his/her life somehow and somewhere, at the airport, at the railway station, in a bank, etc. We are familiar with the pangs of waiting and we do different things to pass our time. These two tramps do the same. They talk, they walk, they play different games, they abuse and rebuke each other, even they try to attempt suicide to free themselves from the agonies of life but this remains just an abortive attempt. Beckett is at his best to show the utter helplessness of human beings that even they can't die according to their wish.

The Concept of Nihilism in Beckett's Plays

The concept of Nihilism is all pervading and all pervasive in his plays. *Waiting for Godot* has no exception. Nihilism refers to the rejection of all religious and moral principles, often in the belief that life is meaningless. We find Beckett's characters moving gradually towards deterioration and decline. Once his people were hopeful, *Waiting for Godot*, later they crouched in garbage cans in *Endgame*. Krapp was moribund in *Krapp's Last Tape*, while listening to his last tape, then in *Happy Days*, the female lead kept sinking deeper and deeper into a mound. Now Beckett's characters have gone all the way to hell in a

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play called *Play*. Only the heads of the three characters could be seen. Their bodies were inside giant clay urns. Spotlights kept picking out the appropriate urns as the dialogue developed. The second half of the play is a verbatim recapitulation of the first half. Such would be the reaction of the large majority of theatre-goers also. Unlike Beckett's dramatic methods and purposes are clearly understood, unlike an audience makes the necessary mental adjustment to see his plays performed on the stage or even to read his plays, the audience is likely to experience bewilderment, incredulity, anger or contempt.

Gradual Dilapidation of Characters – At the Mercy of Circumstances

In *Waiting for Godot*, the gradual dilapidation of every character can be felt through different forms of depravity, for depravity exists in all its form - mental, physical, spiritual. Estragon and Vladimir deprived of any physical grace and dignity, mentally disturbed are unable to recognize Pozzo and Lucky, when they appear again in the play. Now Pozzo is blind, the rope connects the two as before but the rope is much shorter now, enables Pozzo to follow Lucky more easily. Pozzo and Lucky physically disgusted are the symbol of master and slave.

Here Beckett presents slavery in its worst form. Despite being in a worst form, Lucky the servant is still with his cruel master Pozzo. Every character is at the mercy of circumstances and is compelled to be alive. In other words, existence must be endured and in this process Beckett's characters reveal unexpected virtues: charity, compassion, love and a firm resolve to endure.

Beckett's Pessimism and *Waiting for Godot*

Beckett has been attacked generally on two grounds. The first, he is a perverse messenger of gloom and melancholy and the second, he writes only of the extra-ordinary in terms of unnecessary complexity, but his art, according to Beckett, has nothing to do with clarity. The purpose of his art is not to explain but to contemplate. Therefore Beckett confines himself deliberately to those scenarios in terms of writing, where there is no happiness, no joy, no merry-making, only his innermost melancholic approach towards life reflects in his writings but even in this limited canvas, he has a great capacity to portray his characters with different idiosyncrasies combined with his kaleidoscopic view of human life.

Beckett was gifted to expatiate upon a single theme. There is no wonder, if most of the times, he has been at his best while doing so. In spite of the complexity of his themes, Beckett's plays have been successful to keep the audience on the edge of their seats in theatres. His plays have been written in the backdrop of World War II. In *Waiting for Godot* also, he does not describe hydrogen bomb directly but he portrays with unique truthfulness, the cruelty, the sufferings, the helplessness, the destructive forces, which together compel man to bear the sufferings of being.

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Beckett's Realism in *Waiting for Godot*

The one fundamental behind this play is Beckett's ancient knowledge of man's solitude, imprisonment and pain in an intolerable universe. Beckett as a stalwart representative of pessimism including with his utmost realism writes what he considers to be true and not what he knows is diverting.

Themes of habit, the suffering of being and how to get through life are issues, have been presented in *Waiting for Godot* with all the paraphernalia of futile revolt against existence - the abject necessity of being born, the hard necessity of living and the sharp of necessity of dying, which is constant throughout Beckett's other works also. Beckett's genius is like a laser beam, narrow and intense; continually probing deeper and deeper into the same dark area. With the very intensity, he presents sordid realities of life without any complacency.

Beckett's characters suffer from sufferings of being to its fullest, with the pangs of emotional, physical and mental depravity. Estragon and Vladimir, Pozzo and Lucky in *Waiting for Godot* exist with a clear-cut object, that is crystal clear, that doesn't let them hallucinate, that doesn't let them romanticize human life in any way. They have profound knowledge of how much their life is wretched and ugly. Despite this fact, they keep on leading their lives. This is Beckett's realism, dismal and inauspicious, without any effort to glorify human life.

Anything that can make human life glorious and worth-living is carefully avoided in his plays altogether. In *Waiting for Godot*, ignorance and impotence of his characters remain unassailable, only the time has passed imperceptibly. Now all they can do is nothing but to continue: "We are not saints but we have kept our appointment", one of the characters utters towards the end of the play. How many people can boast as much? And how many dramatists have stated such a simple truth so powerfully and so wittily.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Phonological Process Analysis in Telugu Speaking Children with Dyslexia

Nageshwar Patlolla, M.Sc. (ASLP)

Lakshmi Venkatesh, Ph.D.

Swathi Ravindra, Ph.D.

Abstract

Introduction: An underlying phonological deficit has been indicated as the best candidate for the cause of dyslexia or word decoding difficulties (Snowling, 2006). There is some evidence for concomitance of speech sound disorders in children with dyslexia indicating the need to study speech production abilities in children with dyslexia.

Aim: The aim of the study was to study the type and frequency of phonological processes occurring in the speech of Telugu speaking children with dyslexia and age matched typically developing children in the age range of 5-6.5 years.

Method: Thirty Telugu speaking children (15 children with dyslexia and 15 typically developing children) participated in the present study. Speech samples elicited from children with the help of picture cards of Telugu Test of Articulation and Phonology (TTAP; Vasanta, 1990) were subjected to phonological process analyses using the method described by Vasanta (1990).

Results: Children with dyslexia continued to demonstrate phonological processes in their speech even beyond six years of age. In comparison to typically developing children, majority of children with dyslexia showed the presence of processes in the categories of syllable structure, substitution and assimilation processes.

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Discussion: The observation of presence of phonological processes in the speech of telugu speaking children with dyslexia even at the age of six and a half years are consistent with the findings of persisting phonological inaccuracy and processes among children with reading difficulties (Caravolas & Volin, 2001; Svensson & Jacobson, 2005).

Conclusion: Delayed phonological processes present in children with dyslexia when compared to age matched typically developing children supports the notion of an underlying phonological deficit leading to the deficits in different domains in dyslexia.

Key words: Dyslexia, Phonological Processes, Syllable Structure Processes, Assimilation Processes, Telugu

Introduction

The term *dyslexia* is derived from Latin and Greek. “**Dys**” means in Latin “Bad”, “**Lexis**” is means for “speech” in Greek. The term dyslexia has been used to indicate impairment in reading ability. The scientific study of dyslexia first came into prominence in the late 1960’s when one of the main issues of debate was whether “dyslexia” was different from plain poor reading. Dyslexia is a type of Specific Learning Disability. The International Dyslexia Association (IDA; 2002) and National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) emphasize the word level deficits in their definition of dyslexia. The definition of dyslexia on the IDA website is as follows:

Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that is neurological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and / or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge. (IDA, 2002)

The difficulties in dyslexia have been thought to typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. An underlying deficit in the phonological aspects of language has been indicated as the best candidate for the cause of dyslexia (e.g., Snowling, 1995, 2000, 2006; Stanovich & Siegel, 1994). Manis, Custodio and Szeszulski, (1993) reported primary deficits in phonological processing of speech and print and secondary deficits in orthographic processing among children with dyslexia indicating that phonological and orthographical processing were distinct but reciprocally related components of word recognition and spelling.

Recent findings by Boets and colleagues (Boets, Wouters, Wieringen, & Ghesquiere, 2007) suggest that on an average, children showing both increased family risk for dyslexia and literacy-impairment at the end of first grade, presented significant pre-school deficits in phonological awareness, rapid automatized naming, speech-in-noise perception and frequency modulation detection. Children with dyslexia were found to show weak or distorted categorization, in addition to poor speech discrimination in comparison to their typically developing peers (Godfrey, Syrdal-Lasky, Millay, & Knox, 1981). A perceptual deficit of such a kind is thought to impair the ability to process speech and could in turn affect the development and use of phonological representations thus leading to phonological processing deficits. Such an underlying phonological difficulty may be caused by the underlying general impairments in ability to process sequences of rapidly presented brief sounds in children with dyslexia (Snowling, 2006).

Studies investigating speech production deficits in children with dyslexia have been very few. Children with dyslexia have been reported to exhibit difficulties with speech production in general (Snowling, 1981) and specific difficulty with non word repetition (Snowling, Goulandris, Bowlby & Howell, 1986) interpreted as a problem with the segmentation process mediating between speech perception and production. In a task involving rapid repetition of a series of phonologically complex and simple phrases, Catts (1986) found that children with dyslexia repeated the phrases at a significantly slower rate and with increased number of errors in comparison to typically developing children.

A concomitance of speech sound disorders in children with reading difficulties have been increasingly reported in recent investigations. Early deficits in phonological processing skills and the ability to repeat unfamiliar words, indicating early developmental problems in spoken language have been proposed as predictors of subsequent emergence of dyslexia in children (Pennington & Lefty, 2001). These findings have led to the hypothesis that speech sound disorders and dyslexia may share genetic determinants and have driven various genetic investigations to identify the genotype for speech sound disorders and reading disorders.

Need for the Study

Although various studies have investigated the phonological processing abilities in children with dyslexia, there are very few investigations of speech production abilities in children with dyslexia. The current study was planned to study the occurrence of phonological processes if any in the speech of Telugu speaking children with dyslexia.

Indian languages follow alphasyllabic writing systems. The alphasyllabic writing systems largely have characteristics of both alphabetic and syllabic systems. The rules of orthography and grapheme-phoneme correspondences in Indian languages differ from English leading to distinct features of reading disturbances in children. Syllable level Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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phonological deficits have been observed in Kannada speaking children with poor reading abilities (Nag-Arulmani, 2003). There is a need to study underlying phonological deficits and speech production deficits among children exposed to languages other than English.

Phonological development in typically developing children has been studied in various Indian languages. Phonological processes have been studied in typically developing Telugu speaking children from 2-to 3-years of age (Vijaya, 2005) and from 3- to 5-years of age (Srilakshmi, 2005). These studies have documented a decrease in syllable structure processes with age and increased number of substitution processes until the age of five years. A total of 18 phonological processes were identified in children until the age of five years. Examination of the types of processes showed that although there are universal tendencies in children phonological acquisition, language specific features play an important role in determining the phonological development of the children of a given language.

Objectives of the study

- To analyze the speech of children with dyslexia and typically developing children using phonological process analysis.
- To study the type and frequency of phonological processes in the productions of children with dyslexia and typically developing children in the age range of 5-6.5 years.

Method

Participants: A total of 30 Telugu speaking children in the age range of 5- to 6.5- years participated in the current investigation. Participants included two groups of children: children with dyslexia and typically developing children. Children in both groups were recruited from regular schools where the medium of instruction was Telugu. Academic reviews of all children studying in a particular class were sought from respective class teachers to ascertain the scholastic performance of children. All the children were informally screened for normal hearing and vision. The children were categorized into two groups using the following assessment tools:

- The NIMHANS (National Institute of Mental Health & Neurosciences) Neuropsychological Battery for Children (Kar, Shobin, Chandramouli, & Thamarasu, 2004) was administered to all the children by qualified and experienced clinical psychologist. The test comprises of a total 24 subsections including a test of reading abilities in addition to colored progressive matrices, visual memory test, and visual attention test among others. The test provides information on cognitive abilities and intelligence quotient. Children who met the criteria for dyslexia were included in the clinical group. Children whose scores were within normal range were included in the

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control group of typically developing children. Children in this group exhibited increased reading abilities in terms of decoding Telugu letters ('akshara') and words in comparison to the children in the clinical group.

- Extended Receptive and Expressive Emergent Language scale (Extended REELS) was administered to screen the speech and language skills. Typically developing children had age appropriate speech and language skills in extended REELS. Children with difficulties in reading were often found to lag behind typically developing children by around 6 months on extended REELS.

Stimuli: The Telugu Test of Articulation and Phonology (TTAP; Vasanta, 1990) was used for this study. The test consists of a total of 100 picturable words consisting of speech sounds categorized into stops, affricates, fricatives, laterals/trills, semivowels and clusters. The test items include words borrowed from English such as '/spu:nu/, /brafu/ etc which are commonly used in day to day conversation of native Telugu speakers.

Procedures:

Test Environment: Children were seated comfortably and tested individually by the experimenter in a room within the school with minimum distraction. The productions of the children were audio-recorded using a SONY portable tape recorder with an Omni directional microphone.

Recording Procedures: The pictures of the test words were all pinned on 6" x 4" cards and were presented to the children one at a time, with an interval of nearly 15 seconds. The children's productions were recorded while naming the pictures in the order in which they were presented by the experimenter. Different random orders of the picture cards were prepared by shuffling the cards and were presented to children for naming. If the child could not identify the picture correctly, verbal prompts were given in the form of questions; descriptions etc, to elicit a naming response; but such instances were very few indeed. Very occasionally, when the children were unable to name the picture, they repeated the word after the experimenter.

Transcription of the Speech Materials: The recorded speech material was transcribed by the experimenter. The recorded speech material was listened to as many times as required by the experimenter to transcribe the material. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA revised edition, 1993) marker was used for phonetic transcription of the recorded speech material.

Analysis: An informal procedure for maximizing phonological process information from traditional picture-word articulation test analysis as described by Vasanta (1990) was used for

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analysis of phonological processes. In Telugu, the consonants occur in only two positions in the word (initial and medial). Model and replica charts were constructed as two different tables for initial and medial positions. The frequency of occurrence of each phoneme in a given position in the words was listed for the entire test. Following the construction of the model and replica chart, the error responses were also listed on the model and replica chart. The data from the model and replica chart were used to analyze consonants of each stimulus word to identify phonological processes.

The definitions of phonological processes given by Ingram (1981) were followed for examination of the phonological processes present in the sample. In cases where the errors could not be examined using the list of processes given by Ingram (1981), the errors were described using the definition of phonological processes given by Grunwell (1985).

The transcribed samples were analyzed by two additional, post graduate students of speech-language pathology with experience in phonological process analysis. A copy of definitions of phonological processes was made available to the additional judges to use it in identification and categorization of phonological processes. In case of discrepancy between the three judges, the pattern identified by two of the three judges was used for analysis.

The phonological processes were tabulated and the total number of occurrence of each process was noted. The percentage of occurrence of processes were computed by dividing the number of occurrence of each process by the total number of opportunity for the process to occur as derived from the model and replica chart for initial, medial and final positions. The percentage of occurrence was computed only for those processes where it was possible to discern the number of opportunity for the process to occur. After the identification of the processes, the processes were organized into categories including syllable structure, substitution processes and assimilation processes.

Results

The processes were categorized into three categories namely the syllable structure processes, substitution processes and assimilation processes. All the processes were noted in terms of whether they occurred in the initial or medial positions in the word. The number of children showing the different processes under the categories of syllable simplification processes, substitution processes and assimilation processes in the groups of typically developing children and children with dyslexia are shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3 respectively. The number in parenthesis represents the range of the percentage of occurrence of the process or the range of the number of times the process occurred among the children who demonstrated the process. Examples of productions demonstrating the processes are also provided in the table.

Syllable Simplification Processes

Table 1. Number of children showing the different processes under the category of syllable simplification processes in two groups of children. Number in parenthesis represents the range of the percentage of occurrence of the process or the range of the number of times the process occurred among the children who demonstrated the process.

Processes	Children with Dyslexia n = 15		Typically developing children n = 15	
	Initial	Medial	Initial	Medial
Cluster Reduction. /drak□a/-/dak□a/, /cakram/-cakam/	15 (33-100%)	15 (33-67%)	5 (17%)	3 (17%)
Initial consonant deletion /ma:midi/-/amidi/.	13	-	2	-
Final consonant deletion /godugu/-/godu/.	-	13	-	3
Degemination /uyya:la/-/uya:la/	-	9 (4-26%)	-	1 (4%)
Epenthesis /kurci/-/kurici/,	-	14	-	1
Metathesis /vima:namu/-/winamamu/.	-	15	-	2
Syllable Reduction /ma□camu/-/ma□cam/	-	14	-	9

As seen from Table 1, cluster reduction occurred in most children with dyslexia in both initial and medial positions. The percentage of occurrence of cluster reduction among children with dyslexia ranged from 33-100%. The processes of metathesis, epenthesis, syllable reduction and degemination were seen in the medial position of words in most of the children with dyslexia in comparison to typically developing children. Greater number of children with dyslexia showed initial consonant deletion in comparison to typically developing children.

Substitution Processes

Table 2. Number of children showing the different processes within the category of substitution processes in the two groups of children

Processes	Children with Dyslexia		Typically developing children	
	Initial	Medial	Initial	Medial
Stopping of fricative /sanci/-/tanci/ /po:lis/-/po:lit/	15 (10-40%)	15 (9-63%)	2 (9%)	-
Stopping of Affricate /ci:puru/-/ti:puru/, /ma□camu/-/ma□damu/	8 (10-40%)	11 (33-88%)	1 (10%)	1 (10%)
Stopping of Liquids /lori/-/tori/, /bo□garamu/-/bongadamu/	11 (30-60%)	15 (6-39%)	6 (10%)	5 (10%)
Velar Fronting /ku:ja/-/tu:ja/, /e:nugu/-/e:nudu/	13 (6-30%)	14 (6-30%)	1 (6%)	1 (6%)
Palatal fronting /□a:pu/-/sa:pu/,	15 (6-33%)	15 (6-18%)	1 (6%)	1 (6%)
Backing /la: ntharu/-/lankaru/	15	7	-	-

As shown in Table 2 above, the substitution processes of stopping of fricatives, stopping of liquids, palatal fronting and backing were present in the productions of all children with dyslexia in either initial, medial positions or both. Velar fronting and stopping of affricates were also observed in greater number of children in comparison to typically developing children. The processes of palatal fronting, velar fronting and stopping of affricates were demonstrated by only one typically developing child out of the total 15 children in the age matched control group. However, stopping of liquids was observed in more number of typically developing children.

Assimilation Processes

Table 3. Number of children showing the different processes in the category of assimilation processes in the two groups of children.

Processes	Children with Dyslexia		Typically developing children	
	Initial	Medial	Initial	Medial
Nasal assimilation	-	15 (9-12%)	-	1 (3%)
/nimma/-/mimma/, /ba:namu/-ba:mamu/				
Cluster Generation	-	13	-	1
/u□garamu/ -/ungaram/				

Nasal assimilation processes was demonstrated by all 15 participants with dyslexia and cluster generation occurred in 13 children with dyslexia. Both these processes were demonstrated by only one typically developing child.

Discussion

Overall the results of the current study showed that phonological processes were persisting in children with dyslexia in comparison to age matched typically developing children. Since the processes seen in children with dyslexia in the current study have been reported in typically developing children of younger ages (Srilakshmi, 2005; Vijaya, 2005), these processes may be identified as reflecting a delay in phonological development. These findings are in consonance with the study of Caravolas and Volin (2001) which also found persisting phonological errors in children with dyslexia and no deviant patterns were reported. Svensson and Jacobson (2005) have also reported persistence of phonological deficits in the speech of children with dyslexia.

Very few typically developing children demonstrated the processes observed in the speech of children with dyslexia. In addition, the percentage of occurrence of the phonological processes was much less among typically developing children in comparison to children with dyslexia. The current study extended the data on phonological development in typically developing Telugu speaking children provided by Srilakshmi (2005) and Vijaya (2005) to older children (5;0 – 6;6 years; months). It was clear that most processes observed in younger children of five years of age in the investigation by Vijaya (2005) were eliminated in children by the age of six years. The older children above the age of six years among the 15 children in the current study did not demonstrate any of the phonological processes.

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The phonological deficits observed in children with dyslexia in terms of persistence of phonological processes may be attributed to possible deficits in phonological processing. Weak or distorted categorization, in addition to poor speech discrimination has been noted in children with dyslexia (Godfrey et al., 1981). It has been proposed that perceptual deficits such as above could impair the ability to process speech and in turn affect the development and use of phonological representations leading to phonological processing deficits. Boets, et al (2007) studied auditory processing, speech perception and phonological processing ability in pre-school children at high risk for dyslexia and found dysfunctional auditory processing and speech perception and phonological processing deficits as well. The current study provides support for the notion of a phonological deficit underlying deficits in reading and speech production.

In general, the identification of phonological processes in the speech of young children has been found to be efficient in clinical programs as they provide a means of classifying error patterns noted in disordered speech and suggest an economical and simple way to handle intervention. Although generalization from this data has limitations, the present investigation is an attempt to contribute to the small body of information available about the development of phonological production abilities in children with dyslexia within the Indian context. Further studies are needed which study the phonological skills in both perception and production in children with dyslexia to clearly discern the relationship of perception and production. Children's productions in continuous speech including conversation, narration must be studied in addition to sample from word level articulation tests. Future research should include larger sample of children in both cross sectional and longitudinal designs in order to assess more completely the developmental change in the phonological development in children with reading difficulties.

Conclusion

Persistent phonological processes observed in the speech of children with dyslexia when compared to age matched typically developing children indicates that underlying phonological processing deficit may manifest in different domains (speech production & reading) among children with dyslexia.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank all the children who participated in the study. The authors express their gratitude to Ms Rajini, Clinical Psychologist, Sweekaar for her help with diagnosis of children with dyslexia. The authors would like to thank Dr. P Hanumantha Rao, Founder-Chairman, Sweekaar Rehabilitation Institute for Handicapped for granting

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permission to conduct the study. The authors extend their thanks to Dr. M. N. Nagaraja and Mrs. Aparna Ravichandran for their encouragement through this study.

The corresponding author: It gives me immense pleasure to acknowledge my parents and fellow classmates who have always been a source of inspiration for me in all my endeavours.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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The Development of Scientific Skills in Secondary School Biology Teaching

Shafqat Ali Khan, Ph.D. and Muzaffar Khan, Ph.D.

Abstract

A research study entitled as, “The development of scientific skills in secondary school biology teaching”, was conducted. For the treatment the pretest, posttest experimental control group design was used.

The main objectives of the study were firstly to find out the effects of inquiry method of teaching in Biology on the scientific skills of the students. Secondly to compare the scientific skills of students of 9th class of Biology taught through inquiry method and traditional method. Secondary school students studying science subjects constituted the population of the study.

Purposive technique was used to select the sample of the study. 120 students studying biology subject was selected as a sample for this study. These students were given pre treatment of selected biology topics. Sample students were assigned to two groups, i.e. experimental group and control group on the basis of scores using the observation rating scale for this purpose. The selection of sample pre testing was based on matching, homogeneity and randomization. Each group comprised of 60 students.

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The control group was taught by traditional method and experimental group was taught by inquiry method.

To observe the scientific skills of the students during teaching two observers were appointed. To determine the effect of two teaching methods in developing scientific skills among the students of two groups were compared by using t-test. Statistical analysis of the data showed that inquiry method is more effective for teaching biology for the development of scientific skills as compared to traditional teaching method.

Key words: Development, Skills, Scientific Skills, Inquiry method,

Introduction

Teaching is the main part of educational process. Teaching is set of activities which is designed and performed to achieve certain objectives in terms of changes in behaviour. It is the process of helping others to achieve knowledge, attitudes and skills. Process emphasizes the method used to acquire scientific knowledge. Scientists use these processes (which might be described as empirical procedures or key operations) and analyze information to explain the mysteries of the universe. It is an ideal if the outcomes of the sciences are taught alongside the giving of an understanding of how these outcomes were reached.

Learning in the sciences involves beginning to understand the key ideas and concepts which have allowed people to make sense of the world around. Every school discipline has its own approaches in developing ideas. In the sciences, the central feature is the place of experimentation as a way of asking questions of the world around. There are skills in devising appropriate experiments, there are skills in conducting these experiments, there are skills associated with interpretation and sharing the outcomes. Part of science education means giving the learners some insight into the way the sciences work in the same way as a study of history must involve the learner in gaining some insight into the way history gathers its evidence and draws its conclusions. Science is no different from any other subject in this respect: it has its own approaches and these needs to be part of education in any science discipline.

Scientific Skills

Scientific skills are defined as ‘a set of broadly transferable abilities appropriate to many science disciplines and reflective of the behavior of scientists’ (SAPA). Harlen (1987) defined science process skills as “those skills, which children will apply in the practice for exploration and investigation of their ideas”. Gagne (1965) defined science process skills as “intellectual skills together with the associated learned capabilities which scientists use as a self-management procedure in carrying out their activities”.

A skill is described as a coordinated series of actions that serves to accomplish a particular task. The discoveries that scientists make come from their ability to use a group of very different but very important skills. These skills are formally known as "science process skills" (Corsini, 1994).

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Brotherton and Preece (1995) reported a two-level hierarchy (basic and integrated) of process skills. Basic skills include observing, measuring, using numbers, classifying, seriating, predicting, and inferring. Integrated science process skills relied upon more sophisticated cognitive abilities which include stating hypotheses, identifying and controlling variables, defining operationally, interpreting data, and experimenting.

Process Skills

In general, science process skill refers to the cognitive processes or thinking process in which the learner is engaged while learning science. These are important skills that we can use to develop a classroom learning environment that has discovery learning as its central focus. The skills used in the processes of science or science process skills are the basis for learning science. These skills are not separated from the content but rather, are instruments to assist in further development of scientific content. It can be said that science process skills are required in the process to find out solution of problem or making decisions in a systematic manner.

Science Syllabi in Pakistan

In Pakistan the syllabi of science are not updated. The students were taught the history of science and that in a manner, which emphasized factual knowledge with unnecessary details. Students did not grasp concepts and process of science and little effort was made to generate spirit of inquiry of independent thinking among students.

Biological science is very productive in achieving the scientific skills. But conventional teaching methods in Pakistan are not appropriate in this direction.

A Brief Review of Literature

The traditions of conventional ways of science/biology teaching have become out dated and are seldom helpful for the development to scientific skills in the students. Teaching of science subjects especially Biology teaching at secondary level is technical task and inquiry method may prove helpful for the development to scientific skills in the students.

Hurd (2000) asserts that the inquiry method is important because it builds ability to reason from concepts and theories and use them in unfamiliar situations, with students becoming able to use techniques of scientific method and interpret experimental data.

Similarly, Franklin (2003) asserts that inquiry teaching improves learning because students enjoy doing inquiry activities; students build their own knowledge and retain information best. It creates better critical thinking and problem solving. It also develops better attitude towards science especially biology and also promotes academic achievements.

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Farenga, Joyce and Dowling (2002, p.34) describe inquiry-based learning in terms of identifying a question, designing investigation, developing hypothesis, collecting data, answering and modifying the original question and communicating the results. There is very careless thought here. These are the processes of science as research moves forward. It is important that learners in the science disciplines are introduced to these, illustrating the ways by which science makes its findings. However, this is very different to the suggestion that this is a way to teach.

Types of Scientific Skills

Before there is any attempt to seek to develop the skills, there needs to be some clear set of operational descriptions of what is meant by scientific skills. There is an added complication. The scientific skills associated with research in a physical science (like chemistry or physics) may be somewhat different from those involved in a life science (like biology). However, there are a number of skills which seem to be in common. Bruz and Marshal (1997) classified scientific skills under two categories:

- *The basic process*: These include observing, describing, ordering, inferring, organizing space/time relationships, coping, measuring, communicating, classifying, predicting, and formulating questions.
- *The integrated processes*: These include formulating hypotheses, controlling variables, collecting and interpreting data, defining operationally, experimenting, concluding, and recommending (p.12).

The Rationale

To some, this analysis seems somewhat artificial. For example, it is not clear why predicting is basic while concluding is integrated but within the context of process, we can say that prediction is part of basic skill based on interpolation and extrapolation as at its observations. Whereas concluding is based on experimental outcome of the activities and experimenting itself combines several basic skills and is a major party of integrated process.

Ward, Roden, Hewlett and Foreman (2005) suggest the simple skills include observing, comparing, classifying and questioning but these are fundamental to the development of more advanced skills such as planning, predicting, and data interpretation. It is important for teachers to identify individual process skills and to provide the opportunity for pupils to practice each skill that make up procedural understanding. It is important for curriculum planners to identify the skills for each stage so that they can link up to make a coherent whole over many years of instruction.

Mohan (2007) suggests some of the skills:

- “Experimental skills: handling apparatus and instruments, arranging apparatus for an experiment and preserving chemicals, apparatus etc.

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- Constructional skills of making improvised aids, making minor repairs when things go wrong in the laboratory.
- Drawing skills, involving drawing diagrams of experiments conducted and specimen observed.
- Problem solving skills
- Observational skills like taking readings and noting colour change” (p.36).

Basic and Advanced Skills

This list is very basic and reflects the kinds of skills that might be associated with science at fairly young ages. There are many more advanced skills, mainly in the cognitive area which may come later as integrated skills.

The real question is how these skills are to be developed. Active participation with hands on activities would perhaps be the initial steps in the world of scientific investigation. It is important that the way the science is ‘done’ illustrates something of the way science operates as it seeks to make sense of the world around. This will need very careful specification of the skills and a very imaginative design of practical activities as well as discussions and teacher-led presentations so that insights can be unfolded step by step.

Martin, Sexton, Wagner and Gerlowich (1997) argue that basic science skills help children to expand their learning through experience. They begin with simple ideas and then those ideas compound and form new more complex ideas. Emphasis on science process skills helps them discover meaningful information and accumulate knowledge by constructing understanding within and beyond the science classroom (pp.21-22).

Nonetheless, it makes sense to focus on the more basic skills before building the more complex skills which are a part of scientific thinking. Thus, younger learners might focus more on observing, classifying, measuring, estimating, communicating, inferring and predicting while, at later stages, the focus might move to formulating hypotheses, choosing and controlling variables, making operational definitions, experimenting and analyzing data.

Details of Some Scientific Skills

Some of the scientific skills are now discussed in more detail:-

1. Observing skill

All of the science begins with observation. From observation, inferences and predications are made. Observing is the most basic process of science. In observing process, we use the five senses to obtain information about objects and events in essential part of science.

Quantification necessitates measurement and the assignment of a numerical value to that which is observed (De Vito, Alfred 1989 p-42)”. The observing skill can be developed by involving students in activities. As stated by Tolman and Hardy (1995), one good activity for encouraging

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observation is to challenge students to see how many observation students see, how many observations they can record, as they closely observe a plant or other specific object. You might even set up this challenge in the form of contest. Encourage both qualitative (such as colour, shape) and quantitative (such as number, size) observations” (p.41). According to Lewis (1988), these skills have the following abilities:

- The ability to match a specimen to the correct one from a range of examples
- The ability to observe gross features
- The ability to observe fine details
- The ability to observe differences in gross features
- The ability to observe changes (p.23)

We make observation qualitatively through using our senses. While quantitative observations that include a reference to some standard unit of size, weight, and temperature etc, quantitative observations communicate more precise information than qualitative observations.

2. Manipulating skill

According to Newsham (1988), manipulative skills are those concerned with manual dexterity. The level of competency obtained by candidate in this skill area is going to depend, to a large extent, on familiarity with such skills prior to formal assessment (p.10).

Specification of these skills is given by Joshi (2005) as:

- “The pupil arranges and sets up the apparatus in systematic and desired way
- The pupil handles the apparatus and instruments properly.
- The student observes and records relevant readings accurately and systematically.
- The pupil takes necessary precautions in conducting the experiments or recording the observation.
- The pupil performs experiments with reasonable speed, accuracy and neatness.
- The pupil improvises apparatus and aid materials” (p.72-73).

3. Classifying

Classifying is the process scientists use to impose order on collections of objects or events. Biologists classify organisms as plants and animals. Classification schemes are used in science as well as in other areas to identify objects or events to show similarities, differences and interrelationships. On the basis of similarities and interrelationships, new groups are formed. According to Tek (1999), classifying is the arrangement of object into different categories. The skill of classification is dependent upon the skill of observation and comparison. A classification system can be of simple level to more complex one (p.34).

4. Drawing

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Drawing helps to record data from specimen and highlight the important features of a specimen. Different diagrams on different concepts are available. Using these diagrams; the students identify the different parts of animals and plants.

According to Mohanty (2001), the drawing skills have the following specifications:

- i. Draws neat accurate diagrams, sketches, charts etc. at reasonable speed.
- ii. Labels the different parts of diagrams, charts, sketches, etc correctly.
- iii. Use appropriate scales in making graphs neatly.
- iv. Prepares charts and graphs nearly from the given data, and
- v. Reads charts and graphs with correctness and quickness (p.17).

5. Measuring

In science, we teach students to make accurate measurements. Measurements are needed not only in science but also in our daily life activities.

According to Tek (1999), Skill in measuring is essential to the development of skills in all the basic and integrated process skills. The fundamental units for measuring length, mass, and time are called a system of measurement. From the fundamental units, we derive all our other units. Under metric system, the basic units used are meter for length, the kilogram for mass, and the second for time. Scientists call this MKS system. Although other systems could be used, it is the system used most universally throughout the world for communicating the results of scientific research.

Skill in measuring requires not only the ability to use many measuring instruments properly but also the ability to carry out calculations with those measurements.

6. Communicating

Clear, precise, unambiguous communication is desirable in any activity and fundamental to all scientific work. Communication involves the transfer of meaning. If no information or ideas have been conveyed, communication has not taken place. In order for communication to be successful, the meaning must be imported and also understood (Stephen and Robbins, 1996). In science, many kinds of communications are used, for example, the written and spoken words, graphing, diagrams and a variety of visual aids. The communicating skills can be illustrated with the following items:

- a) Sharing solution processes and listening to others share their thinking.
- b) Defending solution processes efficiency and usefulness.
- c) Communicating science ideas: demonstration, models, drawings and arguments.
- d) Helping to clarify each other learning through discussion/ modelling.

Skills and Practice

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Effective communication requires many skills and much practice. Even articles of prominent scientists' community require drastic editing before they can be published. Science teachers need not think themselves as teachers of communication skills. They can make their greatest contribution when they set up a situation in which pupils actively desire to write and speak about their science experiences. This is likely to increase the power of self-expression (Dyasi, 2006).

To facilitate the learning process, teaching may have a very important role to play although it has to be recognised that learning can take place despite the formal teaching experiences. At a simple level, teaching can be seen as a set of activities which is designed and performed to achieve certain objectives in terms of changes in pupil behaviour. However, at a deeper level, teaching allows the interaction of the knowledge, skills and experience of an older person with the lives of those who are younger. The skilled teacher can release the potential in the learners by so arranging the learning experiences that allow the young learners to grasp new concepts relate new ideas to what is already known and develop skills of thinking.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study were to:

1. Measure the effect of inquiry lab teaching method on the development of scientific skills among students studying biology in 9th grade.
2. Measure the effect of traditional lab teaching method on the development of scientific skills among students studying biology in 9th grade.
3. Find out comparative effectiveness of both traditional lab teaching and inquiry teaching method regarding the development of scientific skills among secondary schools students.

Hypotheses

Ho1: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of the students of control group on pre and post observation rating scales.

Ho2: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of students of experimental group on pre and post observation rating scales.

Ho3: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of students of experimental and control groups on post observation rating scale.

Delimitations of the study

The study was delimited to:

1. The methods i.e. inquiry teaching method and traditional teaching method for lab activities.
2. Twelve topics of the biology course for class 9th from the scheme of study.
3. Only boy students of 9th class were included in the study.

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Procedure

As the study was experimental and it was aimed at exploring the effect of teaching biology through inquiry method (independent variable) and developing scientific skills (dependent variables) through this method. Pre-test and post test equivalent groups design was used in this study. In this design, subjects were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups.

Population

This study focused upon the development of scientific skills in secondary school biology teaching through inquiry method. Therefore science students studying biology subject at secondary level in Rawalpindi constituted the population of the study.

Sample

Purposive sampling technique was used for the selection of the sample. One hundred and twenty students of the 9th class of Govt. Comprehensive High school, Dhoke Kashmirian, Rawalpindi were selected as sample of the study. The participants were selected from that school which represents population of typical government schools in Pakistan, i.e., large classes, spacious rooms, learners from families with low to medium socio-economic and educational backgrounds.

The experimental group included 60 participants who studied according to the dynamics of inquiry method. Meanwhile, 60 participants in the control group the same material with traditional method. All students from all three sections of science group of 9th class of the school. These students were separated into two groups of experimental and control group on the basis of result of pre-test (observation rating scale) score. The score of the pre-test was used to equate the groups i.e. each student of experimental group was equated with the corresponding student in the control group. Students were allotted randomly to control and experimental groups.

Equal environment for the both groups was maintained. All facilities i.e. the time of day, treatment length in time, physical facilities etc. was equally provided to both the groups. The study was continued for the period of fifty six days. The material of both the groups was same only difference that experimental group was taught by using inquiry method and control group was taught by using traditional cook book method. Same science teacher was selected to teach both the groups to avoid the potential factor. The teacher who agreed to participate in the study was trained to apply the elements of inquiry method.

For the observations two teachers were also trained to observe the students on observation rating sheet with the help of class teachers to execute the program smoothly. The duty of these observers was to observe the students according to the criteria as given in the observation sheet. Half the students were allocated to each observer from each group. This was done facilitate the

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observation procedures. The observers were given having of how to use observation-rating scale. They had to assess the students' performance on scientific skills on observation sheets. Each observer had an observation record sheet, he assessed the work and performance related to scientific skills of the particular students when he was involved in different assigned activities. They were also advised to note date and time of observation, when the experiment was completed, the researcher collected all observation record sheets from the observers and then compiled the behavioural based cumulative / assessment record of each student.

Instrument

An observation rating scale was used for measuring scientific skills in this study. During developing the Instrument for this study, the work of Kubiszyn, Borich, 2000 and (Iqbal, 1990) was followed. This scientific skills scale was used as pretest and posttest in this study. The researcher with the help of experts constructed this package. In this observation scale different skills were categorized under six components. They were six scientific skills i.e. observing, manipulating, classifying, drawing, measuring and communicating were selected for this study.

The final format of the test comprised of 36 items, with six items under each of component. An initial pool of 42 statements on scientific skills was prepared. These statements and items were given to 10 experienced and qualified educationists after getting its language approved by experts. The experts were requested to rate each statement/ item on three categories by answering the under mentioned questions:

- Essential
- Useful but not essential
- Not necessary

After collecting the experts, opinions on every statement/ item, content validity ratio (CVR) were calculated. Statements whose CVRs were more than or equal to 0.62 was significant at 0.05 level of significance. Calculating reliability coefficients was estimated by calculating reliability coefficients. For this purpose SPSS program was used for calculating the reliability Cronbach's alpha statistic was used. The total reliability of scientific skills was 0.90, while factor wise reliability of scientific skills i.e. observing, manipulating, classifying, drawing, measuring and communicating were 0.67, 0.68, 0.68, 0.70, 0.72, respectively.

In the experiment groups, the teacher involved the students in different phases.

1. Introduction phase: in this stage teacher briefly introduced the topic.

2. Motivational phase: it was the pre activity discussion phase, where students were prepared to improve and explain their ideas related to their previous knowledge.

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3. Exploration phase: it was the student centered phase, where teacher played to role of the facilitator, observing, questioning and assisting students as needed. During that phase the students interacted with materials and they were actively involved in inquiry, with the teacher who played the role of the facilitator. The students were given opportunities to explore particular phenomena and generate their own exploration.

4. Concept invention: In this phase the teacher function was to gather information and teacher worked with students to develop new concept.

5. Concept application phase: This phase is student centered and allowed students to apply freshly learned information into new situations.

The traditional method was centered on the teacher. This method largely depends on lecture and demonstration techniques. The students were instructed with cookbook practical in notebook. The teacher stressed on note delivering. The students only have to verify the results. Traditional method stressed the direct lectures given by teachers, uses of text books and other materials and explanation of concepts of students' occasional demonstration and review of the text book were also used. It was teacher oriented teaching. Practical work was practiced with given cookbook instructions.

Data that was obtained as scores of both groups on the pretest and posttest were compared and tabulated. To find the difference in the development / performance of the experimental group and control groups SPSS program was used.

Results

Table 1: Significance of difference between mean scores of scientific skills of experimental group and control group on pre observation scale

Group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Table value
Control	60	25.20	5.35	0.24	1.96
Experimental	60	25.04	5.74		

Table 1 indicates that the mean score of control group was 25.20 and that of the experimental group was 25.04 on post observation rating scale. The difference between the two means was statistically insignificant at 0.05 level. Hence, both the groups were found to be almost equal.

Ho1: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of students of control group on pre and post observation rating scales.

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Table 2: Significance of difference between mean scores of control group on pretest and posttest

Control group	N	Mean	SD	t-Value	Table value
Pre-test	60	25.87	5.60	15.48	1.96
Post-test	60	30.20	5.89		

Table 2 shows that the calculated value of t (15.48) was greater than table value (1.96) at 0.05 significance of level. Hence, null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of control group on pre observation and post observation rating scales was rejected.

Ho2: There is no significant difference between the mean scores scientific skills of students of experimental group on pre and post observation rating scales.

Table 3: Significance of difference between mean scores of Experimental group on pretest and posttest

Experimental group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Table value
Pre-test	60	25.73	5.68	20.03	1.96
Post-test	60	35.23	5.34		

Table 3 shows that the calculated value of t (20.03) was greater than table value (1.96) at 0.05 significance of level. Hence, null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of students of experimental group on pre observation and post observation rating scales was rejected.

Ho3: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific Skills of students of experimental and control groups on post observation rating scale

Table 4: Significance of difference between mean scores of scientific skills of experimental group and control group on post observation scale

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Group	N	Mean	SD	t-test	p
Control	60	30.70	6.04	4.43	1.96
Experimental	60	35.14	5.24		

Table 4 indicates that the mean score of control group was 30.70 and that of the experimental group was 35.14 on post observation. The difference between the two means was statistically significant at 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis “there is no significant difference between the mean scores of scientific skills of students of experimental and control groups on post observation rating scale” Was rejected because, treatment of inquiry teaching method had better effect on scientific skills of students of experimental group.

Discussion

As can be seen from table 2 and 3, both the groups show a significant difference in their means from pre-test and post-test, the difference being in favour of post-test. This indicates that there is development of scientific skills in both the groups in fifty six days. However, the higher mean obtained by the experimental group on the post test than control group. Similarly Mao and Chang (1998) concluded that inquiry instructional method significantly improved the student learning of earth science concepts compared to the traditional method.

It may be observed from Table 1 that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups on pre-test. On the contrary, significant difference existed between the two groups with respect to post test scores (observation scale) in biology. This was due to the treatment of inquiry teaching method given to experimental group.

Similarly Ornstein (2006) found that open ended experimentation and inquiry produced more positive students’ attitude. Similarly Qamar, Waheed, Cheema and Abdullah, (1984) observed the effectiveness of inquiry method as compared to traditional method. Findings of the study were; inquiry method was significantly better than traditional method, inquiry method is better for average and above average students, students rated inquiry method as the better method, as it facilitated development of thinking skills paced according to students’ ability.

Sola and Ojo (2007) found that inquiry models of teaching were very effective in enhancing student performance, attitudes and skill development. They reported that student achievement scores, attitudes, and process and analytic skills were either raised or greatly enhanced by participating in inquiry programs”.

The application of inquiry method in teaching biology was found to be more effective because in this method involving students both hands on minds on in different activities. In this way this method increased the interest and enhanced the motivation level of the students. During the treatment, the students taught through inquiry method were found more attentive and enthusiastic because the concepts were explained with the help of concrete examples and relevant activities,

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played significant role in teaching learning process. The misconception was cleared and remedies were suggested.

This practice was very effective in developing various scientific skills among students. Inquiry method is more effective in developing scientific skills. They were involved in-group activities. This process provided the students in developing skills of observing, manipulating, classifying, drawing, measuring and communicating.

Conclusions

The present study has resulted in drawing the following conclusions:

Students in the experimental group (inquiry method) showed better performance than that of control group (traditional method). Statistical analysis of the data also showed that inquiry method is more effective for teaching biology for the development of scientific skills as compared to traditional teaching methods. This study provided a base and picture about the emphasis that our science teachers should give on the development of process skills which is one of important aspects of today's science teaching throughout the globe.

Present practice of experimentation at the end of year is affecting science teaching adversely. Continuous experimentation and laboratory work is urgently needed. Dichotomy of theory and experimentation should be stopped forthwith. Students' manual at this level of education may prove a good remedy to the alarming situation. Scientific skills can be developed in science/biology students by a purposeful preparation of teaching unit and by putting the students in activities, involving them in discussion and designing the interesting experiments in a novel manner. This should be made part of classroom teaching.

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Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Phonological Variation of Lexical Items in Bodo and Dimasa A Brief Note

Pratima Brahma, M.A., Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

Ethnically, Bodo and Dimasa are of Mongoloid origin and their languages belong to the Bodo sub-section of the Bodo-Naga section under the Assam-Burmese group of the Tibeto-Burman branch of Sino-Tibetan or Tibeto-Chinese language family (Grierson 1903). The Tibeto-Burman group of languages have close affinities with languages like Bodo, Garo, Kok-Borok, Lalung, Sonowal, Rabha, Mech, Deori, etc. Among them, Bodo, Dimasa and Kok-Borok are closer to each other than other languages of the group as far as their lexical items are concerned. However, in this paper, phonological variation of the Bodo and Dimasa will be discussed and other Tibeto-Burman languages are not covered at all.

The phonemic features of Bodo and Dimasa are analyzed in this paper by taking similar lexical items into consideration. The specimens present a number of features in respect of vowels, semi-vowels, consonant and stress-accents. These are described under the headings of vowel shifting,

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vowel deletion, consonant deletion, voicing, devoicing, vowel deletion, consonant deletion, monophthongisation, etc.

Introduction

North-East region of India is bounded by the political boundary of China in the North, Bhutan in the West, Bangladesh in the East and Burma (Myanmar) in the South. It comprises of Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura. Of these, Assam is the biggest state (as per land area) in this region consisting of Brahmaputra Valley and Barak Valley. In Assam, languages belonging to different language families are found, namely Indo-Aryan and Tibeto-Burman.

Bodo and Dimasa are one of the major tribal communities of Assam and they constitute an important ethnic group in North-East India. For the common people, there is no difference between Bodo and Dimasa. It may be, either Bodo was Dimasa's dialect or Dimasa was Bodo's dialect. According to G. A. Grierson 'the European called the Dimasas Hill Kacharis to distinguish them from the plains Kacharis speaking Bodo'. In 1971 the Government of India recognized them as separate ethnic groups as Bodo and Dimasa.

The Language and the People

Bodo

Bodo is the name of the language as well as of a community. The word *Bodo* was first used by Hodgson in 1846. It is the major tribe of Eastern and North-Eastern India. It is a branch of Tibeto-Burman language family. The Bodo is known as Bodo, Bodd, Boddo, Boro, Kachari, Kirata, or other variations in different places at different point of time. According to Suniti Kumar Chatterjee (1951) and Kalaguru Bishnu Prasad Rabha, the word Bodo or Boddo is derived from the word 'BOD' which means "land or country". But according to Bakul Chandra Basumatary (Bodo Civilization in India, 2009) the word Boddo or Bodo is derived from the Prakrit word "Bodh" or Badh" which means "sense or knowledge". In course of time, they came to be known as simply Bodo-Bodo-Boro. The speakers of Bodo are found mainly in the Kokrajhar, Darrang, Goalpara and Kamrup district of Assam and some adjacent areas of West

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Bengal, Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan. According to 2001 census of India the total population of Bodo speakers in Assam are 13, 15,771.

Dimasa

Dimasa is the name of language as well as of a community. It is the one of the major Kachari tribes of Assam and they constitute an important ethnic group in Northeast India. Ethnically, the Dimasas are mongoloid origin, and their language belongs to Tibeto-Burman language family. The term 'Dimasa' itself is a compound word (di 'water' + ma 'great' + sa 'children') which literally meant 'children of big river', which may be the Dhansiri. There have been different theories put forward by different scholars for the origin of the terms 'Dimasa'. According to Edward Gait (1967), the Dimasa are called Timisa by the Ahoms, which is a corruption of the term 'Dimasa'. But according to Sonaram Thaosen (1994), before coming to Dimapur 'Dimasa' called themselves 'Bodosa'. They come to be known as 'Dimasa' only after arriving at Dimapur. In the view of Thaosen, 'Dimasa' refers to the people residing at the bank of the river 'Dima'. Thaosen further opines that although the Dimasas did use to live by the bank of the river Bramhaputra, actually they are 'the children of Dima', that is, the 'Dhansiri' river.

According to Nirupoma Hagzer, (1972), it is a common practice among the Dimasas to introduce themselves by adding 'sa' with the name of their origin place. The speakers of Dimasa are mainly found in the District of the North-Cachar Hills, (at present Dimahasao) in Assam. They are also found in small scattered groups in the district of Cachar, Hailakandi, Nagaon and Karbi Anglong in Assam and in the Dimapur sub-Division of the state of Nagaland. According to 2001 census report of India the total number of Dimasa speakers are approximately 3, 00,000.

Phonological Variations of Bodo and Dimasa

The common vowel phonemes of Bodo and Dimasa are /i, e, a, o, u/, but Bodo has /u/ whereas Dimasa has /ə/. Both the languages have identical number of consonants and they are /p^h, b, t^h, d, k^h, g, m, n, ŋ, s, z, h, r, l, y, w/. As we have said above, the difference is that, Bodo have high back unrounded /u/ and Dimasa has mid central unrounded vowel /ə/. The high back unrounded vowel /u/ of the Bodo becomes mid central unrounded vowel /ə/ in Dimasa. The process of phonological variation of Bodo and Dimasa are given bellow:

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1.1. Vowel Shifting

- a. The high front unrounded vowel /i/ of the Bodo becomes mid back rounded vowel /u/ in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/bip ^h a/	/bup ^h a/	‘father’
/bima/	/buma/	‘mother’
/bigur/	/bugur/	‘skin’
/bibu/	/bubu/	‘intestine’

- b. The mid front unrounded vowel /e/ of the Bodo becomes high front unrounded vowel /i/ in monosyllabic words and low central unrounded vowel /a/ in disyllabic words in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/se/	/si/	‘one’
/zek ^h ai/	/zak ^h ai/	‘a kind of bamboo net’
/deglai/	/daglai/	‘this year’

- c. The low central unrounded vowel /a/ of the Bodo becomes mid front unrounded vowel /e/ in Dimasa.

/nagar/	/negar/	‘discharge’
/nark ^h u/	/nerk ^h u/	‘press upward’
/nar/	/ner/	‘incline on one side’

- d. The low central unrounded vowel /a/ of the Bodo becomes high front unrounded vowel /i/ in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/za/	/zi/	‘to eat’

- e. The mid back rounded vowel /o/ of the Bodo becomes high front unrounded vowel /i/ in Dimasa e.g.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/abo/	/abi/	‘sister’
/bini/	/boni/	‘his/her’
/bisi-ni/	/bonsi-ni/	‘their’

- f. The high back rounded vowel /u/ of the Bodo becomes high front unrounded vowel /i/ in final syllable in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/k ^h ulum/	/k ^h ulim/	‘pay respect’
/k ^h udum/	/k ^h udim/	‘kiss’

- g. The high front unrounded vowel /i/ of the Bodo becomes mid back unrounded vowel /u/ before non-nasal sounds and /o/ before nasals in Dimasa.

/bibu/	/bubu/	‘intestine’
/bini/	/boni/	‘his/her’

- h. The high back unrounded vowel /ɯ/ of the Bodo becomes high front unrounded vowel /i/ in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/lɯŋ/	/liŋ/	‘to drink’
/sɯŋ/	/siŋ/	‘ask’
/raidɯŋ/	/raidɯŋ/	‘a kind of big cane’
/nɯŋ/	/niŋ/	‘you’
/gusum/	/gisim/	‘black’
/gulundi	/gilindi	‘pus’

- i. Sometimes, the high back unrounded vowel /ɯ/ of the Bodo becomes high back unrounded vowel /u/ in Dimasa.

/labɯ/	/labu/	‘bring’
/mɯk ^h ɑŋ/	/muk ^h ɑŋ/	‘face’
/lɯgɯ/	/lugu/	‘friend’
/gak ^h ɯ/	/gak ^h u/	‘rise up’
/lɯ/	/lu/	‘a kind of garland’

- j. The high back unrounded vowel /ɯ/ of the Bodo becomes low central unrounded vowel /a/ in Dimasa.

/gɯt ^h ar/	/gat ^h ar/	‘holly’
/gɯt ^h ɑŋ/	/gat ^h ɑŋ/	‘alive’
/gɯba/	/gaba/	‘vomit’
/gɯsa/	/gasa/	‘hot’

- k. The mid back rounded vowel /o/ of the Bodo becomes mid central unrounded vowel /e/ in Dimasa.

/bodop/	/bedep/	‘bend’
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- l. The front back unrounded vowel /ɯ/ of the Bodo becomes mid central unrounded vowel /ə/ when it occurs before voiced consonants in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/gɯbra/	/gəbra/	‘rough’
/gɯbaŋ/	/gəbaŋ/	‘many’
/k ^h ɯma/	/k ^h əma/	‘ear’
/k ^h ɯna/	/k ^h əna/	‘hear’
/k ^h anai/	/k ^h ənai/	‘hear’

/guza/	/gəza/	‘red’
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- h. The mid central rounded /o/ of Bodo becomes mid back unrounded /u/ in Dimasa and final phoneme is changed to a voiceless one.

/gorod/	/guruk/	‘a sip of water’
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1.2. Voicing

- a. The voiceless bilabial stop /p^h/ of the Bodo becomes the bilabial voiced stop /b/ in Dimasa. The high front unrounded /i/ of Bodo in first syllable becomes mid central unrounded /ə/ when it occurs before /s/ in the Dimasa e.g.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/p ^h isai/	/bəσαι/	‘husband’
/p ^h isazla/	/bəસazla/	‘son’

- b. The voiceless alveolar stop /t^h/ of the Bodo becomes voiced alveolar stop /d/ in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/zat ^h i/	/zadi/	‘clan’
/zat ^h ao/	/zadao/	‘more correct’
/zat ^h ao-t ^h ao/	/zadao-dao/	‘most correct’
/zat ^h i-zat ^h i/	/zadi-zadi/	‘varieties’

- c. The voiceless velar stop /k^h/ of the Bodo becomes voiced velar stop /g/ in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/k ^h ana/	/gana/	‘blind’
/k ^h aila/	/gala/	‘a kind of bitter guard’
/k ^h ani/	/gani/	‘opium’

/k ^h ania/	/gania/	‘opium smoker’
/k ^h alambbla/	/galambbla/	‘useful position of time’
/k ^h ant ^h i/	/gant ^h i/	‘blame’

1.3. Devoicing

- a. The alveolar voiced fricative /z/ of the Bodo becomes voiceless glottal fricative /h/ in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/bizi/	/bihi/	‘wife’

- b. The alveolar voiced trill /r/ in Bodo is deleted and /k/ occurs in final position in Dimasa.

/t ^h alir/	/t ^h ailik/	‘banan’
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1.4. Monophthongization

- a. The Diphthong /ɽi/ of the Bodo which occur syllable final position becomes monophthong /i/ in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/dɽi/	/di/	‘water’
/adɽi/	/adi/	‘uncle’
/brɽi/	/bri/	‘four’
/t ^h ɽi/	/t ^h i/	‘blood’
/dɽik ^h or/	/dik ^k or/	‘well’
/dɽiɽima/	/dima/	‘river’
/k ^h udɽi/	/k ^h udi/	‘spit’
/mɽiɽip ^h rai/	//mip ^h rai/	‘a kind of vegetable’

/dwiit ^h un/	/dit ^h un/	‘wave’
/madui/	/madi/	‘aunty’
/suima/	/sima/	‘dog’

- b. The diphthong /ɯi/ of the Bodo becomes monophthong /u/ when it occurs before /k^h/ in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/mɯik ^h i/	/muk ^h i/	‘eye gum’
/mɯik ^h un/	/muk ^h un/	‘mushroom’
/mɯidru/	/mudru/	‘vegetable prepared by many kinds’

- c. The diphthong /ɯu/ of the Bodo which occurs in final syllable becomes monophthong /u/ in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/gɯt ^h ɯu/	/gut ^h u/	‘deep’
/mɯsɯu/	/musu/	‘cow’
/gɯzɯu/	/guzu/	‘high’
/zibɯu/	/zubu/	‘snake’
/zɯu/	/zu/	‘rice bear’
/t ^h aizɯu/	/t ^h aizu/	‘mango’

- d. The diphthong /ai/ of Bodo become monophthong /i/ in Dimasa.

/p ^h orai/	/p ^h ori/	‘read’
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1.5. Vowel deletion

- a. The high front unrounded vowel /i/ of the Bodo becomes zero in the Dimasa e.g.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
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/bida/	/bda/	‘brother’
/bilai/	/blai/	‘leaf’

- b. The low central unrounded vowel /a/ and high back unrounded vowel of the Bodo deleted and becomes initial consonant cluster in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	gloss
/salai/	/slai/	‘tongue’
/malai/	/mlai/	‘others’
/k ^h alai/	/k ^h lai/	‘do’

- c. The front unrounded back vowel /u/ in the Bodo is deleted and becomes initial two consonant cluster in Dimasa e.g

/gulaɔ/	/glao/	‘long’
/sulaɪ/	/slai/	‘change’

1.6. Vowel insertion

- d. The mid back rounded vowel /o/ is inserted and become diphthong in the Dimasa e.g.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/sase/	/saose/	‘one’
/P ^h ap ^h li/	/p ^h aop ^h li/	‘hunch’

- e. The mid back rounded /u/ is inserted in the Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/hadri/	/haduri/	‘dust’

- f. The high front unrounded vowel /i/ is inserted and become diphthong /ai/ in Dimasa.

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/ransro/	/rain.sro/	‘dry’
/san/	/sain/	‘sun’
/sanza/	/sainza/	‘east’
/ban/	/bain/	‘carry’ (by shoulder)
/gan/	/gain/	‘wear’
/p ^h an/	/p ^h ain/	‘sell’

1.7. Consonant insertion

- a. The voiced alveolar trill /r/ is inserted after voiced consonant and it forms a medial two consonant cluster in Dimasa.

Bodo	Dimasa	Gloss
/begenɲ/	/begrenɲ/	‘bone’
/daoganɲ/	/daogrenɲ/	‘feather’
/embu/	/embru/	‘frog’
/bai/	/brai/	‘buy’
/ganɲ/	/granɲ/	‘classifier flat long things’
/gonɲ/	/gronɲ/	‘classifier denoting small long thing’

- b. The alveolar voiceless fricative /s/ is inserted before a voiced consonant in Dimasa.

/gu/	/sgu/	‘nine’
/muɲ/	/smuɲ/	‘surname’

- c. The alveolar voiced lateral /l/ is inserted and becomes a partner in medial consonant cluster in Dimasa.

/nap ^h am/	/nap ^h lam/	‘fermented fish’
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1.8. Consonant deletion

- a. The alveolar voiced trill consonant phoneme /r/ of Bodo when it is preceded by a vowel is deleted in final position in Dimasa.

/st ^h ur-bat ^h ur/	sit ^h ur-bat ^h u	‘disregard’
/nat ^h ur/	nat ^h u	‘lobster’
/gup ^h ur/	/gup ^h u/	‘white’
/dor/	/do/	‘classifier denotes piece of meat, fish etc.’
/gasler/	/gasle/	‘slip’
/geder/	/gede/	‘big’
/musler/	/musle/	‘unclear/

- b. The consonant phoneme which occurs in second syllable in Bodo is deleted in Dimasa.

/nabidui/	/nadi/	‘egg of fish’
/na.p ^h isa/	/nasa/	‘small fish’

Conclusion

Bodo and Dimasa are used as the names of the language as well as of the community and belong to the Tibeto-Burman language family. From the above discussion of the phonological variation in Bodo and Dimasa, it is clear that as they belong to same language family, they have same phonemes except the high front back unrounded vowel /u/ of Bodo and mid central unrounded vowel /ə/ in Dimasa. The phonemes of the Bodo and Dimasa are varied by vowel shifting, voicing, devoicing, monophthongnaisation, vowel deletion, vowel insertion, consonant insertion, and consonant deletion. Since both the languages belong to the same family, many similarities exist as far as lexical items are concerned. A few differences are noticed and these differences can be explained by applying certain phonological rules as we have demonstrated above. It is hoped that the knowledge that we got from this paper can be applied to language learning/teaching so that a Bodo speaker who wants to learn Dimasa or vice versa can use this

knowledge for that purpose. Textbooks in both the languages may also benefit by this understanding

Colophon

I am grateful to Prof. Ajit Kumar Baishya, Professor, Department of Linguistics, Assam University, Silchar, who had gone through this paper and offered his valuable comments and suggestions.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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How to Utilize Films in Language Learning Classes?

Taher Bahrani
Rahmatollah Soltani

Abstract

Although the initial purpose of making various audiovisual mass media programs is to entertain various audiences, the pedagogical value embedded in different programs such as films for language learning is worth considering. The use of films to motivate and encourage language learners has been emphasized by many researchers. In the same line, various films can be utilized as a source of authentic language input for language learning. Accordingly, the present paper aims at introducing some simple steps towards the better use of films in developing language proficiency in conversation courses. In this regard, the advantages of using films as a source of authentic language input are considered first. Then, the role of the teacher is explored and some teaching suggestions are offered. Moreover, an extensive list of some criteria for selecting various parts of different films which can best help language learners enhance the language proficiency will also be introduced. The paper will conclude by introducing some teaching tips in order to enhance the application of films in language learning classrooms.

Key Words: Films, Authentic language input, Language learning

Introduction

In recent years, a great tendency towards the use of various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input for language learning has gained a great attention among the

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researchers in second/foreign language learning/acquisition. It is a well-known fact that various audiovisual materials as sources of authentic language input are a great help in stimulating and facilitating the learning of a foreign/second language. Besides, various audiovisual programs have the potential to provide the necessary language input for language learning.

Nunan (1999) defines authentic language materials as spoken or written language materials that have been produced in real communication. In fact, these spoken or written language materials are not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching. Nunan (1999) further highlights the assumption that authentic language input can be extracted from many different sources including TV and radio broadcasts such as news, movies, songs, soap operas, and comedies, recorded conversations, meetings, and newspapers. Gilmore (2007) also defines authentic language input as the language conveying a real message which is produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience.

In the same line, films as a source of authentic language input has the potential to provide enjoyable language learning opportunities for students if the teacher chooses appropriate length films, either complete ones or segments, which are purposeful and tailored to students' learning needs and proficiency level.

In this regard, Chapple and Crutis (2000) conducted a study on the employment of various films as a source of authentic and suitable teaching materials in content-based instruction approaches in Southeast Asia. The study underscored how motivating materials such as films along with content-based instruction can facilitate language learning. Films have many cross-cultural values, provide outstanding basis for the improvement of critical thinking skill, provide a rich source of content for language learners, and offer linguistic diversities (Chapple and Crutis, 2000). These features of films along with the motivating feature facilitate language learners' oral communication. Related studies were also conducted by Ryan (1998), Heffernan (2005), and Gebhardt (2004) focusing on enhancing motivation and language learning through the utilization of films in language classrooms.

Films in video format should not be regarded as merely a peripheral 'extra' in a listening class; on the contrary, they can function as the core content and become an integral part of the curriculum (Sommer, 2001). Appropriate and creative exploitation of movie videos can reveal their potentials in fostering the acquisition of listening skills (Eken, 2003). In the same line, films have the potential to provide exposures to the real language uttered in authentic settings and the culture in which the foreign language is spoken (Stempleski, 1992). Besides, they assist the learners' comprehension by enabling the learners to listen to exchanges and see such visual supports as facial expressions and gestures simultaneously (Allan, 1985; Sheerin, 1982), which may improve their insights into the topic of the conversations.

The point should be highlighted that an instructor's initial attempts to implement the teaching of films in the classroom may be overwhelming. However, with each successive attempt, by using modified guidelines and increasing teaching experience, films turn into rewarding materials for

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both teachers and students. When language learners are provided with well-structured tasks and activities designed to promote active viewing and stimulate involvement for making the most of learning opportunities of movies, there is no doubt that feature films are the most stimulating and enjoyable learning materials for the E-generation.

In view of the above, the present paper initially was set to provide a guideline for those teachers and practitioners who are interested in utilizing various authentic materials particularly films in their language classes such as conversation courses.

The advantages of using films in a language class

There are some advantages of using films in a language class. Films can be an effective platform for the language learners to be immersed in the culture or way of life of the target community. It can broaden the geographical knowledge about the target country, give exposure to the sociolinguistic issues, and also educational issues in the target country.

Besides, films may also provide strong motivation for students to learn the target language and culture because students can learn in more interesting ways compared to traditional class activities. Films can furnish background knowledge of the target community as well, as noted by some students. Some concepts of films are easily understood by watching films rather than by using other media of teaching such as reading materials or books. In addition, it is a more interesting way to learn since it is a kind of entertainment as well.

Films as a source of authentic language input

The design

Today, many language teachers use various audiovisual programs in their classes to spice things up. Among the various audiovisual mass media programs films are favored more. Language teachers utilize various films in the conversation classes with different techniques. Some use subtitled films while others believe that films should be used without subtitle. However, some of the reasons that teachers may use films as a source of authentic language input in their classroom can be:

1. Films introduce students to material that uses authentic language. This allows the students to have an opportunity for rich and varied exposure to authentic English without going to a native language country.
2. Using films allows the teachers to bring the voices of other English speakers into the classroom. This helps students build confidence through the practice of listening to native speakers.
3. Films motivate students to learn English, especially to listen to the dialogs in movies.

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4. Films reinforce students' understanding of English context-bound expressions.
5. Films help language learners to learn new vocabulary and idioms.
6. The dialogues in the films are excellent examples of authentic language in context and become a model for student production.
7. Films introduce the students to new vocabulary and expressions set in a natural context.
8. Films can be used to generate ideas or topics to discuss in class.
9. Films extend the classroom and provide a window into the target culture. Because language and culture are interconnected, understanding the social context of language is extremely important. This can be used as a tool for teaching students how to communicate more effectively in the real world.
10. Films give visual support for students that help learners interpret the language easier.

After using and experimenting with films in the classroom, the results clearly show the numerous benefits they hold. In addition to assisting teachers as they introduce new language, films motivate and engage the language learners and support their language learning process.

What films to select

One of the essential factors to be considered in utilizing various films as a source of authentic language input is the choice of films that should be based on some criteria that can serve the purposes of the teacher. Accordingly, some important criteria for selecting the appropriate films or segments of various films can be:

1. The students' language proficiency; for intermediate to low level students, films with English subtitles are preferable.
2. The usage of language: films using colloquial language are more suitable for higher level modules.
3. Choose stories that are relevant to students' lives.
4. Ask the students about their preferences regarding different films.
5. Choose stories that motivate the students.
6. Use various broadcasts that provide exposure to various accents and cultures.

7. Choose stories that are proficiency-level appropriate; political and science related stories are often too difficult for many students to understand.
8. Use stories that lend themselves to many learning activities and the integration of the four skills.
9. Cue the video ahead of time.

Helpful Teaching Tips

After investigating the pedagogical value of films and outlining some of the criteria for selecting and preparing films, the following several teaching tips that will help make teaching with films easier and more enjoyable for both the teachers and the language learners should be taken into consideration:

1. Offer students a choice in the film content you show in class. Take an inventory of their interests and then bring films that reflect those interests.
2. Let students initiate in private-practice before asking them to respond to your questions regarding the film story.
3. Prepare extension activities to fill the space between the first and last students' finishing an activity.
4. Get feedback from the students: It is important for teachers to get feedback from students regarding their comfort level on the various four skills assignments, processes, and procedures used in conjunction with the film stories.
5. Ask your students regularly about their feelings about activities in class. You could give them a formal feedback form to fill out or ask them informally to give you a thumb up or a thumb down.
6. All four skills activities should include opportunities for students to play an active role in their own learning. When preparing for a task, help students become aware of any relevant strategy, from their own language, that might help them to perform the task successfully. For example, you may want to ask the students to think about positive interpersonal skills in their culture before they interact with or participate in small groups when talking about the film story.
7. Recycle, recycle, and recycle! Language learners need to see and use the language numerous times before it is acquired. Thus, it is essential that teachers reuse and include language taught in previous lessons in their current lesson. Thematic units are a useful method of recycling language in any lesson.

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How to Utilize Films in Language Learning Classes?

Conclusion

Access to a wide range of audiovisual mass media programs such as films is getting very easy for all the people around the world with everlasting technological developments. Many researchers have underscored the pedagogical values of various audiovisual mass media programs to be incorporated into language learning. Among various programs, films turn out to be an effective teaching device to develop the language learners' language skills and stimulate their imagination simultaneously. Their capacity to arouse the learners' motivation and their potential to engage the learners in a variety of fruitful activities related to aural perception in the target language can scarcely be denied.

The purpose of the present study was to shed more light on the studies which emphasize the pedagogical value of utilizing films as a source of authentic language input in developing language proficiency. The activities and suggestions laid out here have a lot of room for improvement, but we hope this short paper is a useful tool for any language teacher who wishes to bring in another perspective and possibly more depth into his/her classroom. Using various films in the classroom allows teachers to open the classroom door and invite the sources of authentic language input through the use of audiovisual mass media in, thus, benefiting the language learners on many levels.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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B. S. Jadhav, Ph.D.

B. B. Rajurkar, Ph.D. Candidate



Mahesh Elkunchwar

Elkunchwar, A Prominent Marathi Playwright

A new dramatist to shoot into fame in recent years is Mahesh Elkunchwar. Elkunchwar came into prominence by his one-act-plays, which display a rare blend of strength, intensity and concentration. His success in exploiting the potentialities of the medium has been hailed as historic. He has written more than 15 plays in Marathi most of which have been translated into Indian and Western languages like English, French and German. *Old Stone Mansion*, *Sultan*, *Holi* and *Party* are his famous plays. He has won national and international awards like the 'Sahitya Akademi Award', 'Sarswati Samman' and the 'Birmingham Fellowship'.

Old-Stone Mansion, A Realistic Play

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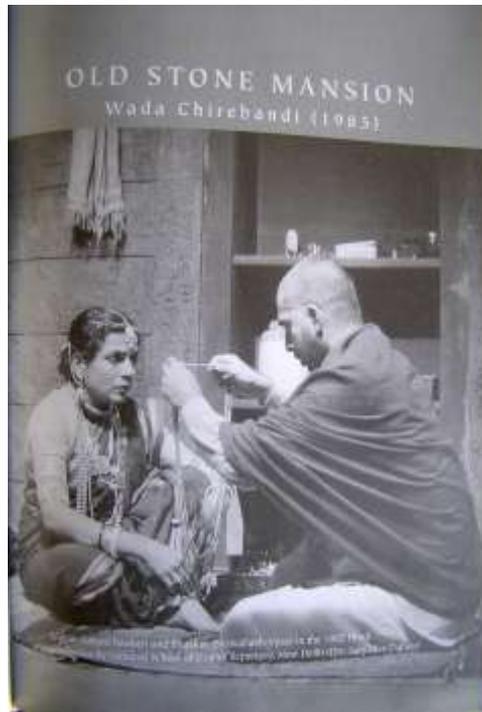
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Old-Stone Mansion (1989) (*Wada Chirebandi*) is a family centered realistic play. The prominent women characters are Aai, Vahini, Prabha, Dadi and Ranju. These women characters show family attachment and community bonds prevailing in the Maharashtrian society. They display feminine sensibilities in their behavior. The objective of this research paper is to analyze the female characters in terms of their actions and behaviour.

Mansion – An Idiom



The noun *Wada* literally means ‘mansion’. In addition to wealth, it signifies propriety, self-sufficiency, and authority. *Chirebandi* is an adjective meaning ‘solid, hewn from stone’.

Relating the play *Old-Stone Mansion* (*Wada Chirebandi*) to his own family origins in his 1985 theatre academy address, Mahesh Elkunchwar describes the deteriorating Brahman *wada* as a post-colonial site where an unusable past meets an intolerable present and from which the only escape is departure:

“The collapse of the wada (as an institution) did not affect us, because all of us left home early. But all around me I watched the other wadas crumbling and people being crushed under them. In the period after independence, I could see very clearly the slow, agonizing death of Brahman families, especially in villages. This process is not yet over” (Jadhav 89).

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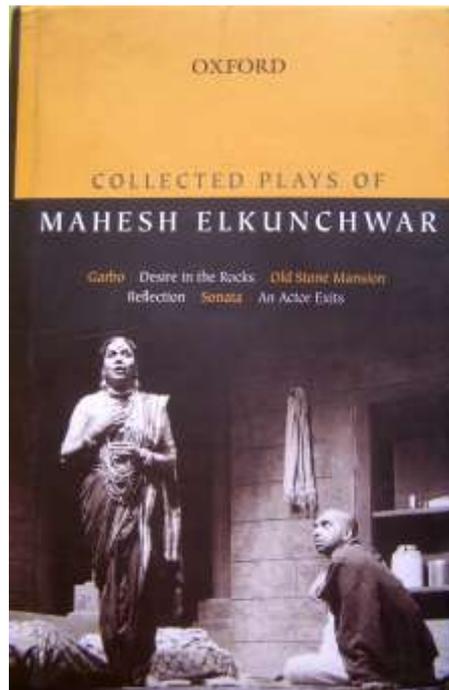
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Identical Setting and Subject



Home is both setting and subject in *Old-Stone Mansion*. Dilapidated mansion is the obsessive center of family discourse and a constant source of anxiety. The transformation of home into anti-home – a place of oppression, resentment and anxiety rather than nurture and support – is mainly the result of inflexible attitudes to caste within the Wada (Dharwadkar 295).

Female Characters

The female characters in the plays of Mahesh Elkunchwar, Vijay Tendulkar and Jaywant Dalvi play a vital role in the history of Marathi Theatre (Deshmukh 14).

In *Old-Stone Mansion* female characters are more influential than the male characters. All characters in the play are representatives of some human tendencies, nature, and mentality. They are part of life-experiences and symbols of human tendency. After the death of her husband, Aai puts away all responsibility and confines herself to the interior room and gives the keys to Vahini. This symbolizes transformation of power from the old generation to the young generation. All female characters in this play are victims of patriarchy and the Indian social set up. Through these female characters the playwright highlights the role of a woman in keeping the joint family alive (Koranne 76).

Elkunchwar presents various kinds of women in the *Old-Stone Mansion* and portrays the feminine role in a joint family. *Old-Stone Mansion* brings out various dimensions of woman in the Indian family set up. The playwright projects success as well as failures of woman in this play. We come across a variety of woman characters in this play: Dadi, the ninety year old blind grandmother who remains blissfully unaware of the death of her son Venkatesh and goes on asking for the time; Aai having a religious bent of mind, a devotional wife, modern

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yet a modest woman who believes in joint family; Vahini, a caring mother; Anjali, a victimized woman and Prabha and Ranju, rebellious female characters. Elkunchwar's mastery over character presentation is unique in the field of Marathi Theatre (Deshmukh 162).

Aai, a Symbol of Tolerance and Accommodation

Aai is a woman who likes to live life according to the present as it is. She never thinks of past and future. She is a woman who accepts contemporary reality. She accepts all such changes thoughtfully. The motivation of love is the real basis of Aai's action in the play. Aai is motivated to sacrifice her life for her family only because of her love and affection to her kith and kin. Behind every act of Aai lies the female sensibility of an Indian woman. Modesty is her tragic flaw. She is too innocent to the ways of the world.

PRABHA Willingly you gave away your land for mortgage?
AAI Prabha...
PRABHA In your own house, you will live like an unwelcome outsider.
AAI What could I have done? You tell me.
PRABHA You are too innocent (42-43)

Aai is a symbol of tolerance. She tolerates all evils of the joint family and yet, has a particular vision to look towards the sorrows and sufferings of life. She doesn't want to show her sorrow. She prefers to suffer lonely in the corner of a room. She has also a particular outlook towards happiness. She has courage to accept all odds coming in her way. She has strength to endure sorrow and the blows of situation. She wishes others' happiness but she never craves for it for herself. She doesn't expect anything from others. She is a devoted, loving, caring woman who cares for others' wellbeing. Aai – the word 'Aai' (mother) is in itself an embodiment of love, compassion and sympathy. Her name in itself is the reflection of her personality.

Elkunchwar justified her character in the play by giving her a leading role in action (Koranne 220). Aai has a moral sense and being an embodiment of love tries to give warmth of love and affection to each and every member of the family. She becomes unhappy by the dispute among the family members over the issue of expenses for rites and so offers to sell her ornaments to perform rituals. She is an all-pervasive character who never blames or goes against anybody in the play. She never utters even a single bad word to anybody. (Deshmukh 158)

CHANDU Aai. It's your money, keep it for yourself.
AAI Arrey. What do I need it for? He had given it to me before he died. I had kept it away so that it would come in useful at times of need. His money. Let it be used for his Shradh (15).

A Suppressed Woman under Religious Status

Aai is a suppressed woman under the garb of religious status. As a holy, devoted and homesick wife, she is suppressed in the joint family. She accepts and performs all traditional Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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rituals with great devotion and without any resentment. She is a modest woman yet she suffers a lot in the play. Modesty is her tragic flaw. Her predicament makes her a victim of family. The playwright highlights home and family as a psychological support for a woman and so she responds to the reaction of family members in a positive manner.

SUDHIR Arrey, where will I get the money? Instead, let`s not spend all that much on useless rituals.

BHASKAR And have people laugh at me? Nothing doing.

AAI Bhaskar... (All are startled.) Sell off that portion at the Back.

CHANDU/PRABHA Aai...

AAI Arey. What do I need it for?

BHASKAR People will say we ruined our mother (36).

PRABHA Aai. What is a thousand or two these days?

AAI Love always runs ahead, my dear. I have no expectations from anyone. I have only one wish. Let the Lord take me away soon. (Pause) My heart breaks for Chandu. He toils like a beast of burden. Poor boy. He has no education or a family. He has no one to call his own. Because you did not marry, he too has remained single. He may face bad times in future, he may fall ill, he may be in pain – I worry a lot about him (43-44).

Degeneration of the Big Mansion

Aai is an eyewitness of the degeneration of the big mansion. She lives in nostalgia. Tolerance and endurance is a natural trait of an Indian woman. She never loses temper on common matters. She is a devotional woman. Her sacrifice for the joint family is praiseworthy (Koranne 74). Patience, love, forgiveness and a spirit of sacrifice are the most important virtues of motherhood and they are found in Aai. Her love is an everlasting source of happiness for her children (Jadhav 20).

In *Old-Stone Mansion*, Aai is the most powerful and strong female character. Her strength lies in her stoicism and confrontation with the odds and sorrows in life (Kamlesh 234). She lives in the present rather than in the past. She knows the inevitability of sorrows in life and accepts life with courage. She never shows her suffering and agony to other family members. She accepts the bitter life experiences in a calm manner. Being a free and fearless woman she is the most impressive character in the play.

Many-sided Symbol

Aai is a symbol of motherhood who protects the children from the evils of the society. She is an admixture of pity, simplicity and agony and suffering for others is in her nature. Aai`s journey from a woman to the basic nature of ‘motherhood’ which Elkunchwar portrayed is rare in the history of Marathi Theatre (Kamlesh 235). She performs all duties of an Indian woman in her family. Aai transcends her ego and becomes a true embodiment and symbol of motherhood. She protects her family in all odds. She is a large hearted woman who suffers a lot but never loses her courage to fight against evils around her. Her sacrifice for family is extraordinary and her fall in the play is the most tragic one.

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Vahini - Many Roles

Vahini is an elder sister-in-law and she is eager to take responsibility of the mansion but at the same time is bewildered about her capability. Elkunchwar has portrayed the character of Vahini realistically. She has all shades of colour in her personality. She plays the role of a mother, wife, and sister-in-law in a very skillful manner. She is an admixture of love and selfishness. Vahini is a dangling woman between tradition and modernity. She is caught in between convention and reality. She loves antique things only to showcase them.

She is well aware of her responsibility at home (*Wada*/ mansion). She is concerned about the well-being of her family and doesn't hesitate to ask her brother-in-law Sudhir to extend helping hands to support the family. She is a caring woman, who is anxious about her children's progress. She feels the anxiety for her son's addiction of liquor and the marriage of her daughter. Throughout the play she behaves in a sensible manner. She plays a pivotal role in understanding familial problems and tries to solve them with mutual understanding. She has the maturity and open heartedness by which she keeps relations intact among the family members. She frankly acknowledges the mistakes committed by her children and yet is unable to control the damage.

- VAHINI It's her tenth class. The girl has failed twice. She must get through this time – the nuisance.
- PRABHA Get rid of this teacher first. He comes to teach –whistling.
- VAHINI So what?
- PRABHA He teaches free. Ranju is getting on to seventeen. Think about it.
- VAHINI Don't talk nonsense.
- PRABHA You will regret it. I tell you all this because as it is Ranju is interested in other things. You will find her in front of the mirror all the time. Or she is gadding about town. We were not allowed to step out of the door (18-19).

Anjali, a Self-sufficient Woman: Avoiding Responsibilities

Anjali, who is a self-sufficient woman, is Sudhir's Bombay-born Konkani wife. She is a liminal figure who was ostracized by the family for years because of her different cultural background. In the course of the play, the politics within the family becomes polarized around the geopolitical terms "*Varhad*" (the vernacular Marathi name for Vidarbha region) and "*Konkan*" (the coastal strip between the Deccan plateau and the Arabian sea).

- ANJALI I am not going to tell you. Once again you'd say that the Konkanis are always instigating quarrels.
- SUDHIR You have a complex about being a Konkani (16-17).

The family resents Anjali's indifference to its many troubles, but the ambivalence of belonging/not belonging and the insidious power of place emerge at the end when she unknowingly lapses into local forms of speech.

PRABHA Now don't you start wailing about the poverty you live in.

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No one will go to your house –will that satisfy you? You really are a diehard Konkani...

ANJALI She always taunts me about my upbringing as a Konkani. I am used to cooking the way we do it in Bombay. Here. There are so many people, I can't manage. If there is a shortage of something that's enough of an excuse for her to start on my forefather from Konkan (17).

Anjali is totally different from Vahini, she avoids family responsibility. She behaves objectively in the family. All family members think that Anjali is an outsider. She is *Konkanastha* and behaves in the *Konkanastha* way. She is introvert and avoids contacts with Prabha and Parag. Her faith in human kindness is aroused when she accepts the traditional way of life. Her transformation from a modern woman to a loving, affectionate, caring woman is a symbol of the typical Indian woman who believes in the joint family tradition (Deshmukh 160). To keep the Indian family system alive, women play a vital role. Elkunchwar underlines the role of females in this play.

Prabha – a Thought Provoking Personality

Prabha's character in this play is a thought provoking one. Patriarchal family and social tradition ruin her life. She is a victim of social taboos and social norms. The Indian tradition to belittle the talent of girls is underlined by the dramatist through the character of Prabha. Taty's decision not to send her to school is one example. Though she is a brilliant girl, she is kept away from education (Koranne 75). She is a suffering soul in the joint family. Nobody cares for her future. Everyone is engrossed in their own welfare. She never forgets that she is ruined because of her father's vain glory and the hollow pride of the family. She desires to take a B. A. Degree from Amravati but gets no opportunity.

PRABHA (wounded) Aai, I want to study. Let me at least do my B.A.

AAI It's not in my hands, Prabha.

PRABHA Somehow help me to live in the city for four years.

AAI Prabha, sorrow is not something one puts on display. It belongs to oneself. When it is unbearable – there are many dark rooms in this mansion where one can go and shed tears quietly. All Deshpande women have done that.

PRABHA I won't. I shall fight for my happiness. I shall fight for your happiness, too.

AAI Prabha, when I could not get happiness, I myself waved goodbye to it. If you do not get something you want, it's best to reject it, my dear.

PRABHA Aai, let me study. Let me stand on my own feet. Then we can live together, We do not have to pass our days expecting charity from others, Let me go to Amravati. (43)

AAI Prabha, it's true, really. We have spoilt your life. You were the cleverest of all the children. But then what can one do in the face of a man's nature? He never allowed any opinion but his own to prevail. Education is of no use to a girl, that was his refrain. How many times I pleaded with him. God is my witness. I said, times have changed. How many girls who were with you have studied

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further, have gone ahead. They are holding jobs. They are earning. I really admire them. But then, we villagers never had that vision at that time. (44)

Slow and Gradual Strangulation

The image of slow strangulation within the *Wada* is that of Prabha and Chandu, Bhaskar's unmarried middle-aged siblings, who were tragically denied higher education and modern occupations because such independence would have compromised the family prestige. Aai's concern for Chandu makes her restless.

AAI How much more are you going to suffer? You toil in the house. You toil in the fields. You have held the whole household in the palm of your hand. You run it. What is going to happen to you my dear? Does it hurt – your foot? (52)

Ranju's Elopement

Ranju is the youngest female character in the play. She is seventeen and is struggling in the tenth class. Being a romantic girl she elopes with her tutor with all the family gold and so her doors of development get closed forever. Her life becomes directionless. On her return she locks herself in a dark room. One aspiring soul becomes a victim of social status and social norms. Ranju is a self-centered fantasist.

RANJU You know, in that film *Coolie* Amitabh carries in things just like this. Why don't you go into the movies, Chandu Kaka?

CHANDU Then who will do the work here?

RANJU Hey Anju Kaku, have you seen Amitabh?

ANJALI(busy)Hm...

RANJU Really?

ANJALI(alert)What? Me? Why should I go to see him?

RANJU When he was ill – I fasted on five Saturdays. If something had happened to him – I would have taken my life. Sudhir Kaka, have you seen Amitabh?

SUDHIR Hm. Of course, he comes every day to the milk centre for milk.

RANJU That's a bluff.

SUDHIR It's true, really. Jaya too comes to borrow something or the other every other day.

RANJU But these stars are so rich...aren't they? Kaka, where is the Rajkamal Studios?

SUDHIR Rajkamal? Right behind our house. Now go, get me some tea.

The Medley

Dadi -- the old grandmother who has gone blind, is completely unaware of the death of her son Venkatesh. While her daughter in law (Aai) and the rest are busy with the post-funeral ceremonies, she is blissfully unaware of the things going around. She often calls Venkatesh and goes on asking for the time. Dadi is at the backdrop of the action in the play and is concerned about the rats and their holes which no one fills. The mud from the roof falls on her and is suggestive of the decadence. Dadi is time, and also the silent spectator who sees Time flit by in front of her eyes (Elkunchwar, Interview). For Samik Bandyopadhyay, Dadi's Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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asking for time is an evocation of Time stuck still. She utters, “ I have been driven beyond my depth. The daughters-in-law have come. The granddaughters-in-law have come. Great grandsons have arrived! Now give me leave”(50). Prabha has her own individuality. She is a long-suffering stoic woman in the play (Koranne75). Her tolerant nature is her tragic flaw. Prabha is a case of chronic suicide (Kamlesh p.237). Emotions of anger, hatred and frustration, and a loss of the sense of belonging make her a tragic figure in the play. A young sinking lady and the sinking/rusting tractor are symbols of ruin in the play. They are caught in the vortex of the *Old-Stone Mansion* tradition. Ranju is a modern girl. She elopes with her tutor but fails to establish her happy home and comes back to the mansion with a broken heart. She feels lonely and secluded in the stone mansion. Her attempt to escape from the age old traditions and her rebellious nature and modern aspirations of life do not succeed. Ranju`s love for romantic life is nothing but her youthful fancy and immature nature.

Protectors of Traditions and Conventions

Old-Stone Mansion is there only because of these women. Women are the true protectors of traditions and conventions of the family system in India (Taware 235). Elkunchwar has projected very minutely the emotional fluctuations of the female characters in *Old-Stone Mansion*.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Stating the Research Problem: A Genre-based Study of English Language M.Phil. Theses in a Ghanaian Public University

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Abstract

Despite the numerous studies on such academic genres as the research abstract, introduction and literature review, the rhetorical section of the statement of the research problem has received little attention. To fill this gap, we examined the schematic structure and communicative purpose of the statement of the research problem section of Master of Philosophy in English Language theses at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. Data which were made up of twenty theses were collected randomly from the Department of English library. Based on Swales's (1990) CARS model, the analysis of the data showed that the statement of the research problem section exhibited two core moves, and that students showed an appreciable knowledge of both the pedagogical and communicative importance of the rhetorical unit. These findings, thus, have implications for further research in genre studies and serves as useful material for instructors in teaching and in bringing to the notice of their students the generic importance of stating the research problem.

Key words: Genre analysis, statement of the problem, rhetorical moves, M.Phil. theses

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Stating the Research Problem: A Genre-based Study of English Language M.Phil. Theses in a

Ghanaian Public University

Introduction

Originally popularised by Swales (1981, 1990), genre analysis in its traditional sense has over decades focused on the analysis of moves in such genres as the abstract, introduction and conclusion of research articles (Swales, 1990; Bunton, 2002; Afful, 2005). The goal of scholars in this sub-discipline of discourse analysis, despite their individual schools of thought, is to among other things, help apprentice students to know the generic features that typify specific genres. However, despite the exponential increase in the literature, little is known of the genre of the statement of the research problem (henceforth the SRP). Although Jalilifar, Firuzmand & Roshani (2011) have been recently forthcoming in this direction, their study is, nevertheless, outside of the context of Africa in general, and Ghana, in particular. Thus, in this study, we explore the overall communicative purpose and rhetorical moves found in the SRP as an academic discourse in twenty Master of Philosophy of English Language theses at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

Theoretical Framework

Swales's (1990) Create a Research Space (CARS) model is the underpinning framework for this study. The choice of this theory is informed by the fact that this framework has successfully been tried and tested by many researchers the world over (e.g. Samraj, 2002; Afful, 2005; Connor & Mauranen 2005; Jalilifar et al., 2011). The main concern of Swales's genre-based rhetorical approach to the description of text is to identify the rhetorical structure of a genre and relate it to its communicative purpose while recognizing the social context in which it occurs (Afful, 2005). This is why he considers a genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share a set of communicative purposes" (Swales, 1990: 58). Swales's CARS model explains that a genre is

basically organised by obligatory moves and lexico-grammatical features which represent distinctive patterns of discourse that occur usually either within a paragraph or spans a number of paragraphs.

Methodology

The data which comprised twenty (20) Statement of the Research Problem section of Master of Philosophy in English theses were collected in September, 2011 at the Department of English Library, University of Cape Coast, Ghana. Two sampling methods were used, namely, purposive and random sampling. The first sampling method was used in order to select English Language related theses rather than theses with a focus on Literature. The choice of language theses is simply because we are students of language and linguistics. Using the random sampling technique, we then selected 20 out of the available 26 M.Phil in English Language theses for this study.

Data were analysed based on qualitative content analysis. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), a person's or group's conscious or unconscious beliefs, attitudes, values and ideas often are revealed in their communications through a rigorous content analysis. In this way, the analysis of the content of the SRP section can help bring to light the moves that M.Phil in English Language students (henceforth MELS) endeavour to observe when identifying gaps in the previous literature to form their own theses. We then applied open and axial coding to summarise the data by pulling together identifiable patterns in order to find conceptual categories in the data. The identifiable patterns were validated by two other persons in order to achieve a degree of inter-coder reliability since qualitative content analysis is "a very personal process because two researchers analysing a transcript will probably come up with different results" (Dawson, 2002: p. 128). (*See Appendix for the various codes used in the in the analysis of the data.*)

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Data Analysis and Discussion

This section presents the communicative purpose, the rhetorical moves and the lexicogrammatical features found in the SRP section of MELS theses. In identifying the moves, we analyzed the sequence, the frequency and the textual space of the moves.

Communicative Purpose of SRPs in Master of Philosophy English Language Theses

The analysis of the data revealed that the basic communicative function of SRPs is that it dictates the purpose of the research and the questions or the hypotheses that guide the research. The data showed that SRPs help readers to comprehend and appreciate the findings of the research. This observation confirms Riaizi's (2000) claim that the statement of the problem is a major component of a proposal or a thesis, whilst the other sections are the complementary parts with the aim of contextualizing the problem (cited in Jalilifar *et al.*, 2011). Upon a close observation, we found that MELS tried hard to announce quite clearly and concisely the rationale of their study in the SRP section. Hernon and Metoyer-Duran (1993) similarly maintain that the SRP has such qualities as clarity and precision, and must, thus, identify an overarching question and key factors in the research.

Rhetorical Moves in SRPs of Master of Philosophy in English Language Theses

This sub-section presents the moves found in the SRP section of Master of Philosophy in English Language theses. The analysis is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Rhetorical Moves in SRPs of English Language M.Phil Theses

RHETORICAL UNIT	SWALES (1990a)	STEPS IN SRP MOVES	(20)	(100%)
MOVE 1	Establishing a territory	Claiming centrality	12	60

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MOVE 2	Establishing a niche	Restating the purpose	8	40
		Indicating a gap	14	70
		Stating the research problem	6	30
MOVE 3	Occupying a niche	Announcing present research	12	60
		Positive justification	2	10
		Without move three	3	30

In Move 1, establishing a territory, of the SRP, 60% of the data set presented a claim of centrality by giving a brief background to the research whilst 40% restated the purpose for conducting the research. In the second move, establishing a niche, 30% stated the problem of the study categorically, as the remaining 70% indicated a territorial gap in the centrality they have created. In the final move (Occupying a niche), 60% of the data set announced the present research to occupy the territorial gap that has been created, and that 30% of the data set did not observe move three at all. However, a rather unusual move was observed in the data with one MELS painstakingly justifying the rationale for undertaking the research as a third move.

1. ...the research is undertaken because it is generally observed that people's behaviour (here verbal) is interpreted from other people's own background – practices, perspectives and values – and this tends to lead to conflict and misunderstanding... (SRP 2)

Textual Space

According to Afful (2005), the frequency of occurrence together with the textual space allocated to a move could determine the relative importance that students attach to a particular move. In determining the textual space, we, therefore, counted the words in each move across the data set. In counting the words, names of authors cited in a move were not included while compound words

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were counted as just a word. Words in parentheses and research-site related words were also not considered. Table 2 presents the textual space accorded to each move in the SRPs.

Table 2 Textual Space Allocated to Moves in SRPs in M.Phil in English Language Theses

TOTAL	1,074	100%
Number of words in MOVE 1	425	40%
Number of words in MOVE 2	349	32%
Number of words in MOVE 3	234	22%

Table 2 shows that MELs allocated 40% of the total number of words to establishing a territory and 32% to establishing a niche. The 70% of the MELs who observed move three, allocated 22% of the total number of words in the SRP section to occupying the niche. In considering the textual space given to a move by MELS, obviously, move 1 occupies the greatest space, before move 2 and finally move 3 which according to the data, appears to be an optional move.

Sequencing of Moves

In respect of the order of the moves, the data revealed that the SRPs of M.Phil in English Language theses follow the sequence of first establishing a territory, then establishing a niche and finally occupying the niche. In establishing the territory, the Master students either gave a brief background to the study or restated their purpose for the study. To establish a niche, while some created a territorial gap in the background that has been established, others stated categorically the problem of

the study. To achieve move three, some also announced the present research but others did not observe move three at all.

Table 3 Sequencing of Moves in SRPs of Master of Philosophy in English Language Theses

PATTERN	MOVES IN SRPs	PERCENTAGE
3-Move Sequence		
1>2>3	14	70
2-Move Sequence		
1>2>∅	6	30

Table 3 above demonstrates that 70% observed a three-move pattern (1>2>3) while 40% observed a two-move pattern (1>2). However, where only two moves were realized, MELS still followed the sequence of establishing a territory and establishing a niche, where they observed the second step, that is stating the research problem of move 2 being establishing a niche. We can, therefore, conclude that a three-move pattern is preferred in presenting the SRPs of Master of Philosophy in English Language theses, with moves one and two being the obligatory moves. Some examples are shown below:

2.

...

the focus of this paper is the discourse strategies that advertisers use and how elements in the target culture are exploited by advertisers to persuade their audience (**MOVE 1**). Though these discourse strategies are mostly universal, each advertiser makes use of them in such a way as to mirror the worldview of the target audience. (**MOVE 2**) Using a sample of advertisement from print (Graphic and

Times) and electronic media (Peace FM, Joy FM, Adom FM, Gold FM, Happy FM) in Ghana, this study explores how these discourse strategies found in advertisements reflect the Ghanaian worldview. (**MOVE 3**, SRP 4)

As can be seen above, the first move of this SRP observed the second step, which is, restating the research problem of Move 1—establishing a territory. For its second move that focused on establishing a niche, this student indicated a gap in the territory he or she had established, the second step of Move 2: “*Though these discourse strategies are mostly universal, each advertiser makes use of them in such a way as to mirror the worldview of the target audience*”. It should, however, be noted that this attempt was barely explicit because the SRP was not categorically stated compared to other SRPs. In the student’s final attempt to occupy a niche, which is the third move, the student used the first step, that is, announcing present research: “... *this study explores how these discourse strategies found in advertisements reflect the Ghanaian worldview*”. Let us look at another example.

3.

Individuals living and working together in close proximity enforced by an institution like the university have to get on with each other. To do this, they need to use language frequently to make what Thorton (1974) calls social talk. The linguistic situation in the University community of Cape Coast is multilingual. Students and workers are drawn from the heterogeneous ethnic regions of Ghana. Due to the multilingual nature of the University community, the subjects are faced with the problem of code choice. (**MOVE 1**) The research problem is how the inter-personal relationship between individuals of the university affects their choice of code in discourse situations. (**MOVE 2**)

In this extract, the candidate observed the most essential components of the research problem: establishing a territory and establishing a niche. Thus, in the first move, the student developed the research problem by using the sub-move *claiming centrality*, while the second move is further explained through yet another step but this time an explicit attempt was made by the student to state the research problem: *The research problem is how the inter-personal relationship between individuals of the university affects their choice of code in discourse situations*.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, the analysis of the SRP sections of Master of Philosophy in English Language theses showed two basic findings. The first is that the SRP section of these theses encapsulates two core moves, namely, establishing a territory and establishing a niche. Secondly, the study reveals that the students had quite an appreciable knowledge of the communicative purpose of the research problem in their discipline.

The study bears a number of implications. In the first place, it lends credence to Swales's (1990) CARS model as it brings forth fresh evidence from an African context on the subject. Secondly, the work is a humble contribution to genre studies in academia because it seeks to help inexperienced postgraduate students in stating their research problems, using the stipulated conventions. As well, this study could also assist instructors in teaching and in bringing to the notice of their students the generic importance of stating the research problem. Future studies could also focus on the pragmatic value of lexicogrammatical features such as the use of the verb in stating the research problems.

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Appendix

Nature of Coding

APR:	Announcing Present Research
CC:	Claiming Centrality
IG:	Indicating a Gap
PJ:	Positive Justification
RP:	Restating the Research Problem
SRP:	Stating the Research Problem

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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The Teaching of Linguistics in India - An Evaluation of the Course Content of Papers in Seven Indian Universities

Ravindra B. Tasildar, M.A.

Introduction

An elective course offered only to the students of B.A. in Indian universities is variously called - *English (Honours)*, *English (Major)*, *Principal English*, *English (Optional)*, *English (Special)* and *Special English*. The term *Special English* has been preferred in this paper as used by the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) for English (1989). The papers offered in the B.A. (Special English) course can be broadly classified into two categories - papers related to literary studies and papers on the study of English language. Linguistics is the main component of papers on the study of English language. Almost all the universities in India offer core papers on the study of English language in the B.A. (Special English) course with exceptions like Universities in Madhya Pradesh, Goa University and Jamia Millia Islamia.

This globalized era offers many new avenues to the students of B.A. (Special English). This paper is an attempt to evaluate the teaching of linguistics in Indian universities *vis-à-vis* the current needs of the students.

Inclusion of linguistics

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The discipline of English Studies in India is now more than two hundred year old. The teaching of English in colonial India was dominated by literary texts. The study groups and committees appointed to review English studies in India have persistently recommended the incorporation of linguistics in the B.A. (Special English) course for over fifty years. The following table summarizes the recommendations of the study groups and committees.

Table A. Recommendations of the study groups and committees

Name of the Committee	Year	Recommendations
The Kunzru Committee	1957	Recommended to teach linguistics at the university level
The Study Group	1967	Emphasized the inclusion of a paper 'Linguistic description of English (including phonetics, stylistics)' among the three optional papers suggested for subsidiary English courses
The Study Group	1971	Suggested a paper 'Linguistics and Phonetics with special reference to English and methods of second language teaching'
The UGC National Workshop on Syllabus Reform in English	1977	Recommended a core paper on 'The Use of English', despite the deliberations on the inclusion of 'linguistics' in the zonal workshops
The Curriculum Development Centre for English	1989	Suggested a vocational course in 'Linguistics and Language Teaching'
The Curriculum Development Committee for English (CDC)	2001	Minimized the emphasis on language, recommended 60% credit to the units on 'History of the English language, and the History of Old and Middle English literature' and 'Elements of Linguistics and the Structure of Modern English' in a paper comprising the study of language and literary criticism

In addition to these committees and study groups, some subject experts also stressed the need to incorporate linguistics in the B.A. (Special English) course. Gokak (1964-65:124) noted "We know that our graduates are not able to write even a few sentences correctly in English. This is unfortunately true even of many students who have taken up the Special English Course for study". Hence, he insisted on introducing a course unit in 'Modern English Usage' in the B.A. (Special English) Course. Since majority of students of English in India join teaching profession, Lott (1964-65)

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suggested a compulsory paper on ‘English Linguistic Studies’ while Nadkarni (1964-65) insisted on including half a course unit in the phonetics of English.

The Need to Review Teaching Linguistics in English Classes

There are mainly two reasons for the inclusion of linguistics in the B.A. (Special English) course - first, the failure of literary studies to develop linguistic competence of the students and second, the inclination of majority of the students of B.A. (Special English) towards teaching profession. Thus, the purpose of introducing linguistics at the undergraduate (UG) level in Indian universities is mainly to develop linguistic competence of the prospective teachers of English.

However, in the present era of globalization, in addition to a career in teaching, the students of B.A. (Special English) can get jobs at call centres, shopping malls, hotels, tourism industry, in print and visual media, etc. Therefore, it has become imperative to review the teaching of linguistics in Indian universities *vis-à-vis* the current needs of Indian students.

Papers on the Study of English Language

According to Mohan and Banerji (2003) the syllabus is perhaps the most important referential document of a course. Based on the syllabi documents, this paper is a modest attempt to evaluate the course content of papers on the study of English language offered in the B.A. (Special English) course in seven universities in Maharashtra, viz., University of Mumbai (UoM), University of Pune (UoP), Shivaji University, Kolhapur (SUK), North Maharashtra University (NMU), Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University (BAMU), Swami Ramanand Teerth Marathwada University (SRTMU) and Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University (SNDTWU). Hereafter these universities are referred to with their abbreviated forms.

Table B. Nomenclature of papers on the study of English language

University	Paper No.	Title of the Paper	Class	Implementation
BAMU	P- I	Introduction to Language	FYBA	w.e.f. 2009-10
SRTMU	P- I	Modern English Structure	FYBA	w.e.f. 2009-10
SNDTWU	D.C. II	Phonetics, Grammar and Communication	FYBA	during 2010-11
UoM	P- V	English Language and Literary Criticism	TYBA	w.e.f. 2008-09
UoP	Special P- III	Introduction to the Study of English Language	TYBA	w.e.f. 2010-11
SUK	P- VIII	The Structure and Function of Modern English	TYBA	w.e.f. 2009-10
NMU	General	The Study of English	TYBA	w.e.f. 2009-10

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	P-III	Language		
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BAMU, SRTMU and SNDTWU have introduced papers on the study of English language to students of first year (FY) BA Optional English while the UoM, UoP, SUK and NMU offer these papers in the final (third) year (TY) BA.

Components of Papers on the Study of English Language

Since linguistics forms a core component in papers on the study of English language, it would be worth knowing the proportion of language components in FYBA Optional English in BAMU, SRTMU and SNDTWU.

Table C. Papers on the study of English Language offered in FYBA Optional English in BAMU, SRTMU and SNDTWU

Aspects of language study	BAMU	SRTMU	SNDTWU
	P- I: Introduction to Language	P-I: Modern English Structure	D.C. II: Phonetics, Grammar and Communication
Phonetics	50 %	50 %	31%
Grammar	50 %	50 %	38 %
Communication Skills	--	--	31%
Total	100 % (100 marks)	100 % (100 marks)	100 % (100 marks)

‘Phonetics’ and ‘Grammar’ are the common components in papers on the study of English language offered by BAMU, SRTMU, and SNDTWU in FYBA Optional English. BAMU and SRTMU give 50% weightage each to ‘Phonetics’ and ‘Grammar’ whereas SNDTWU gives 31% weightage each to ‘Phonetics’ and ‘Communication Skills’ and 38% to ‘Grammar’. These universities have restricted themselves to the introduction of phonetics and grammar.

The UoM, SUK, NMU and UoP have also included other aspects of language in TYBA. The proportion of language components in papers on the study of English language offered in the third year of BA (Special English) has been considered here.

Table D. Components in papers on the study of English Language

Aspects of language study	UoM	SUK	NMU	UoP
	P- V English Language and Literary	P-VIII The Structure and Function of Modern	G-III The Study of English Language	S – III Introduction to the Study of English

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	Criticism	English		Language
Language Orientation	--	10 %	25 %	--
History of English Lang.	50 %	--	--	--
Phonology	12.5 %	10 %	18.75 %	18 %
Morphology	12.5 %	10 %	12.50 %	10 %
Syntax	--	60 %	18.75 %	18 %
Semantics	--	10 %	--	--
Sociolinguistics	25 %	--	12.50 %	54%
Conversational English	--	--	12.50 %	--
Total	100 % (40 marks)	100 % (100 marks)	100 % (80 marks)	100 % (100 marks)

Discussion

Entry level competence of the students

Though entry-level competence of students is more or less the same in all the regions of Maharashtra, the universities in the state have introduced papers on the study of English language at different stages in the B.A. (Special English) course. BAMU, SRTMU and SNTDWU have introduced papers in FYBA while the UoM, UoP, SUK and NMU in TYBA.

Apparent mismatch

There is an apparent mismatch between the time required to teach the units on 'phonology' and the weightage given to 'phonology' in papers on the study of English language. The weightage given to 'phonology' does not justify its significance in the study of English language. For instance, in the UoM there are only seven marks for phonetic transcription and stress and intonation.

Priorities of universities and needs of students

In accordance with the recommendation of the CDC (2001), the UoM has reduced weightage of language component from 60% to 40%. The UoM gives 50% weightage to the history of English language, SUK gives 60% weightage to syntax, the UoP gives 54% weightage to sociolinguistics (including pragmatics) and NMU gives 25% weightage to language orientation. The UoP and SUK are among very few Indian universities to include separate units on 'pragmatics' and 'semantics' at the UG level. However, no university has introduced 'stylistics' as recommended by the Study Group (1967). Perhaps, time is not yet ripe for it.

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Apart from a career in teaching, this globalized era offers many new avenues to students of B.A. (Special English). Therefore, it is essential to acquaint UG students to the major national varieties of English – British, American and Indian. In units on sociolinguistics, the UoP focuses on these major varieties whereas the UoM, SUK and NMU give negligible weightage to these national varieties. SNDTWU and NMU have included Communication Skills (FYBA) and Conversational English (TYBA) respectively to cater to the needs of students.

The priorities of these universities vary widely. It is rather difficult to relate variation in the weightage given to different aspects of language with the global (global + local) needs of Indian students. The teaching of linguistics in the B.A. (Special English) course in many Indian universities is just more of the same.

Status Quo

The prime objective of teaching linguistics in Indian universities is ‘to acquaint’ students with basic concepts of linguistics. According to Shinde (2009:5), for more than sixty years after Independence, English language studies have been purely academic. Knowledge about language rather than skill mastery has been dominant. As a result, the linguistic competence of students of B.A. (Special English) in Indian universities today is not very different from what Gokak (1964-65) had noted four decades ago.

In the syllabus document of MA English Part II (w.e.f. 2004-05) in the section on ‘Teaching Methodology’ the UoP mentions, “Though a minimum linguistic ability is a prerequisite for doing any course at the PG level, it would be unrealistic to teach with the ideal students in mind. The fact remains that we have to teach students who are far away from the expected level of linguistic attainment”.

To sum up

The reports of the study groups and committees simply include titles of papers and no study group or committee has provided a sample syllabus for papers on the study of English language (in contrast, sample syllabi have been provided for the papers related to literary studies). Even when, the report of the UGC National Workshop on Syllabus Reform in English (1977) mentions that details of the paper on ‘The Use of English’, will follow, (vide appendix) (UGC, 1977:155), the details have not been included in the appendix. This has probably resulted in disparity in the weightage of different aspects of language in Indian universities as seen in papers on the study of English language offered in the final year of the B.A. (Special English) course in four universities of Maharashtra, viz., the UoM, SUK, NMU and UoP. Taking into account competence of students, it is imperative to design a need-based sample syllabus for papers on the study of English language in Indian universities.

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The Teaching of Linguistics in India: An Evaluation of the Course Content of Papers in Seven Indian Universities

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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A Review on Learning Style Preferences for EFL Language Learners in Online Context

Zahra Moharrer, Ph.D. Student

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Abstract

The developments in technology with prompt growth of the Internet use in education have resulted in a proliferation in distance education. Distance learning can be a real alternative to on-campus learning provided that programme designers do not neglect the core issues of education, i.e., the accommodation of learners' needs and requirements. Addressing learning styles of individuals help the instructor respond appropriately to learners' expectations and recognize the patterns in which learners tend to concentrate more. Lack of close monitoring of learners in distance education and observing their step by step progress can create problems for those students who are not properly equipped to take charge of their own learning process. Undoubtedly, this adjustment for EFL learners involving in conventional face-to-face English classrooms is not easy and may lead to more challenges and struggles on the part of learners. The current research on different learning style models aims at investigating which of the

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frequently cited models might be more appropriate to an EFL context. Therefore, it may be of particular interest to e-instructors and instructional designers of online education, especially in the context of the study, Iran, to find out which learning style model might be more suitable.

Keywords: EFL context, learning styles, learning style models, online learning

Introduction

During the last few decades, the infusion of technology into teaching and learning environments has made educators reconsider their focus of attention to educational pedagogy and methodologies for the new channels of online learning. However, a review of literature on distance education and, in particular, on online learning in Iran has unveiled that enough attention has not been paid to learners' characteristics, their expectations and requirements, and their adaptation to online learning contexts. In Iran, English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) and to great extent in conventional face-to-face (FTF) classrooms. These might refer to different reasons such as lack of long history behind online learning in Iran as it is at the infancy stages of development (Yaghoubi, Malek Mohammadi, Iravani, Attaran, & Gheidi, 2008, p. 90); critical problems in system and the Internet emphasised by Dilmaghani (2003) and Noori (2003) in the same research; and the importance of system evaluation and e-learning like teaching methodology of distance learning, framework in educational system, educational policies, distance learning management, and curriculum in the context of the study (e.g., Montazer & Bahreininejad, 2004; Gharehbakloo, 2005; Sarlak & Jafari, 2006; Sarlak & Aliahmadi, 2008; Tabatabaie, 2010).

In other words, there are only a few studies on Iranian e-learners and their learning process. Indeed, as Banathy (1991) mentions learners are key entities locating at the core of online education systems (in Khan & Smith, 2007, p. 320). So their role cannot be ignored in learning environments.

Technology can be utilized for more purposeful reasons as it can be viewed as a driving force which provides learners with more resources than conventional contexts (Sparkers & Williams, 2000, p. 71). Needless to mention that the nature and characteristics of learners and the

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influence of online system on e-learners' potential success are undoubtedly essential. Learners should adjust the appropriateness of online instruction with their individual learning behaviours (Kaminiski, 2002, p. 1). Effective learning, therefore, requires both knowledge of learners' learning styles and preparation of the instructor to meet learners' needs. In other words, understanding the learners' expectations and identifying their patterns of learning are crucial to design courses according to learners' preferred learning styles and to bridge the gap resulting from unfamiliarity of a triangular community members i.e. learners, instructors, and contents of online settings (Du & Simpson, 2002, in Cooze & Barbour, 2005, p. 3).

It is believed that technology can help learners improve different kinds of skills from the basics to higher-order of thinking. As such, technology can also assist learners to develop these skills to overcome the difficulties that they might encounter in online mode of instruction only when they are appropriately equipped. This challenge is more critical in the case of Iranian learners who extensively engage in FTF contexts. The controversial issue in e-learning is that learners who have experienced teaching and learning methods in conventional FTF classrooms and just collected the ready-made information from the instructor may not feel comfortable to replace traditional methods with those of online teaching and learning methods. That is, the shift in the style of delivery may not receive the approval of all learners since the pedagogical characteristics of an online learning context might not be in line with learners' traditional experience (Shawa & Marlow, 1999, p. 224).

Moreover, the shift of pedagogy from teacher-centrism to student-centrism and locating learners' characteristics at the locus of attention stress more exploration on different learners' variables. Identifying learners' learning style preferences has been considered as vital element which, in turn, should be fitted with online instruction and delivery, and therefore, led to enhancement in learning process and performance (Shih & Garmon, 2002).

Language learners are good cases for further research on learning styles in online learning. Due to occasional/absent interaction on the real time and lack of proper support from the instructor in distance contexts (e.g. in Web-based Training), distance language learners experience more difficulties than learners of other subject matters (Sussex, 1991, in Zhang &

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Cui, 2010, p. 30). Dravis (2002) believes that “the heart and soul of the online courses are the interaction between learners” (in Fisher, Coleman, Sparks, & Plett, 2007, p. 39). Nevertheless, Hurd (2006, p. 303) maintains that the acquisition practice and assessment of foreign language e.g. speaking skill (either with peer classmates or the instructor) are the most pervasive problems which are attributed to the physical absence of the instructor, the isolated context, and reduced opportunities for interacting in the target language. Thus, distance language learners require improving skills and a greater degree of self-regulation or autonomy than learners of other subjects (White, 1995, p. 208).

On Learning Style Preferences

Years of research have revealed that due to some factors such as heredity, educational background, age, requirements and needs; people comprehend and process information differently (Decapua and Wintergerst, 2005, p. 2). Learning styles are defined differently with more or less having consensus on absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills (e.g., Reid, 1987; 1995; Celcc-Murcia, 2001; Riazi & Riasati, 2008, p. 157). In this regard, Keefe (1979, p. 4; 1987), for instance, indicates that “learning styles are characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment”. Furthermore, Willing (1988) asserts that learning styles refer to “any individual learner’s natural, habitual, and preferred ways of learning” (p. 1). More on learning styles are presented by Dunn, Beaudry, and Klavas (1989, p. 50) who consider learning style as “a biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching method effective for some and ineffective for others”. However, to keep pace with the main objectives of the present study which are to find out the frequently cited learning style models and to discover a more appropriate model for a larger scale study conducted in a Web-based Training (WBT) programme, a brief literature review on this issue and number of learning style models will be discussed.

A Brief Literature Review on Learning Styles

Learning styles are different approaches to learning taken by learners. Marton (1986) puts an emphasis on having knowledge about learners’ learning styles since it is considered as an

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effective approach to guide learners, to enable them to be more oriented towards their own learning styles, and to assist them to manage their own learning based on educational goals and objectives (in Pouryahya, 2009, p. 5); and in the case of online learning environments, to provide a supportive means for designers to organize an optimized system (Dağ & Geçer's, 2009, p. 862). According to Bostrom, Olfman, and Dein (1993), learning style could be a good predictor of an individual's preferred learning behaviour (in Manochehri and Young, 2006, p. 314) and a good indicator of a successful distance learning (Simonson, Albright, and Zvacek, 2000). In this line, Hosenfeld (1979) and Reiss (1983) indicate that inappropriate learning styles may lead to encountering frequent failures in language learning. According to Sternberg (1995), there are at least twenty dimensions of learning styles. Usually better language learners utilize suitable styles to learn language more effectively (p. 267). Likewise, Messick and Associates (1976) also account for more than twenty dimensions of cognitive styles including those of Witkin, Kagan, and perceptual preferences.

Decapua and Wintergerst's (2005, p. 2) study enumerates various learning styles models and instruments for native speakers and second/foreign language learners. For native speakers: the Learning Style Inventory (Dunn *et al.*, 1975, 1989), the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Styles Scales (Riechmann and Grasha, 1974), the Gregorc Learning Style Delineator (Gregorc, 1982), the Kolb's (1976, 1985) Learning Styles Inventory; and for second/foreign language learners: Reid's (1984) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ), O'Brien's (1990) Learning Channel Preference Checklist, and Oxford's (1993) Style Analysis Survey are the prevailing learning styles instruments in the ESL/EFL field. These models either focus on perceptions or cognitive styles. For instance, Decapua and Wintergerst (2005, p. 1) believe that Reid's (1984) PLSPQ has been widely applied in ESL/EFL research to investigate learning styles with reliability and validity established on high intermediate or advanced ESL classrooms; or Brown (1987) claims that Witkin's (1971) field-independent/dependent theory, engaging in cognitive style, is one of the most extensively researched style which is highly relevant to the field of second language learning.

Cognitive style is a person's perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem-solving pattern. However, cognitive styles are mostly measurable through observable behaviours such as Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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learning performance and learning achievements (Karahoca and Karahoca, 2009, p. 368). Nevertheless, although the concept of learning styles defined variously by various scholars, it is important to bear in mind that only a few number of learning style instruments are reliable and valid (Curry, 1987). As such, Dunn *et al.* (1989) underline the existence of just three comprehensive models of learning style i.e. the models of Hill *et al.* (1971), Keefe *et al.* (1986), and Dunn *et al.* (1975, 1979, 1981, 1985). To them, other models addressed only one to four elements which are presented in a bipolar continuum. For instance, the bipolarity and neutral character of the field dependent/independent (FD/DI) cognitive styles make them to be value neutral (Witkin, Moore, Oltman, Goodemogh, Friedman, Owen, & Raskin, 1977, p. 198) that is, there is no positive or negative value for being FD/DI. The scale just moves on a continuum (from FD to DI) and neither of them is considered as an advantage i.e. they are not value laden.

Though, in spite of wide range of usage, even the Dunn *et al.*'s (1981, 1989) framework, has received its critics. For instance, the validity of the learning style instrument, the high emphasis on 'environment' factors, and considering learning styles as a 'panacea' to realise and hint at students' learning preferences (Curry, 1990; Davidman, 1981, in Ramburuth & McCormick, 2001, p. 336). In another view, it is stated that Dunn's learning style inventory is a popular commercially accessible questionnaire design for primary school children and not ESL/EFL (Willing, 1988, p. 64). In addition to Dunn's model, Willing ascertains that Kolb's LSI, although, has extensively been administered in research and management training seminars which might be an indicative of its justifiable appeal; the test, unfortunately, containing a list of single-word personality descriptions (e.g., accepting, reserved, evaluative, pragmatic, receptive, and etc) (Willing, 1988, p. 69). Consequently, it seems that there is not a consensus on the suitability of a learning style instrument inasmuch as other learner variables might not be taken into account. That is, just focusing on a very limited number of variables such as cognitive, perceptual, or environmental variables may not be promising.

Learning Style Models

The most frequently used learning style models in native and second/foreign language learning are Kolb (1984) and Reid (1884) (in Decapua & Wintergerst, 2005, p. 2). However, in

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available database, cognitive learning style models have received more attention in online education within the last decade. Dağ and Geçer (2009, p. 867) investigated the most frequently applied learning style models in last decade and found out they were those of Kolb (1984), Felder and Silverman (1988), and Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, & Karp (1971). Therefore, in the current study, there is a brief description on the models of Reid (1987), Kolb (1984), Felder and Silverman (1988), Witkin *et al.* (1971) as well as Willing (1988) as it is considered an effective alternative to other presented learning style models.

Perceptual Learning styles

One of the most popular categorisation of learning style preferences is sensory or perceptual learning styles which are classified under cognitive styles. Individuals rely on these different sensory modalities to experience the world (Messick, 1976). To interact with the world and to organise information, three sorts of these sensory styles are pinpointed: the visual leads to figural thinking; the auditory leads to verbal thinking; and kinaesthetic leads to physical or motoric thinking (Willing, 1988). One of the popular researchers emphasising sensory modes is Reid (1987). She focuses on ‘perceptual’ and ‘sociological’ learning style preferences. The perceptual learning style dimension measures the learner’s preferences for one or using a combination of sensor modes of experiencing learning such as auditory or verbal, visual or spatial, tactile or hands-on, and kinesthetic or psychomotor. Moreover, the sociological learning style dimension refers to learners’ preferences to work in different patterns of being alone, or with one or two friends, with a small group, or as part of a team (Dunn and Dunn, 1978, in Ramburuth & McCormick, 2001, p. 337). Reid identifies these two different preferences as individual preferring and group preferring sociological learning styles. Further, Reid (1987) developed her model and presented it in a questionnaire called Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ). She divides her learning style instrument into six categories to address visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, as well as group and individual learning (Reid, 1987, p. 88) as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1 Definitions of Reid’s Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire

<i>Learning Styles</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Auditory	Listening to lectures, oral explanation, audio tapes, and discussions in class
Visual	Reading or studying from texts and notes, requiring less oral explanation
Tactile	‘Hands-on’ experiences in classroom learning, for example, taking notes
Kinesthetic	experiential learning, active participation, or physical movement in learning activities such as role-play, drama, or moving around
Individual Preferring	studying alone such as self-directed study or independent reading and study
Group preferring	studying with others and group interaction

Kolb’s Learning Styles Inventory

It seems quite essential to identify different dimensions of learning styles introduced by Kolb (1976, 1985). Kolb believes “learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (p. 38). Kolb (1984) proposes a four-stage cyclical model including concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation. They were explained as follows: *concrete experience* (CE) refers to a stage in which a learner actively experiences an activity; *reflective observation* (RO) refers to a stage in which a learner consciously reflects back on that experience; *abstract conceptualisation* (AC) refers to a stage in which a learner attempts to use logic and ideas rather than feeling to understand problems and solve them; and *active experimentation* (AE) refers to a stage in which a learner tries to plan for testing a model or theory or plan for future works and experiences (Kolb & Kolb, 2005, p. 184).

Kolb’s model leads to presenting Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) which is a holistic perspective and combines experience, perception, cognition, and behaviour. The term experiential is addressed to make distinction between ELT and cognitive learning theories which

do not consider any room for subjective experiences in learning processes. Kolb identifies four learning styles which correspond to these dimensions. These prevalent learning styles have identified as converging, diverging, assimilating, and accommodating (Kolb, 1984, 1999a, 1999b, in Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 2001, p. 934). Kolb's different learning styles are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Kolb & Fry's Learning Styles (Adapted from Tennant, 2006, p. 89)

<i>Learning style</i>	<i>Learning characteristic</i>	<i>Description</i>
Converger	Abstract conceptualization + active experimentation (AC+AE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · strong in practical application of ideas · can focus on hypo-deductive reasoning on specific problems · unemotional · has narrow interests
Diverger	Concrete experience + reflective observation (CE+RO)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · strong in imaginative ability · good at generating ideas and seeing things from different perspectives · interested in people · broad cultural interests
Assimilator	Abstract conceptualization + reflective observation (AC+RO)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · strong ability to create theoretical models · excels in inductive reasoning · concerned with abstract concepts rather than people
Accommodator	Concrete experience + active experimentation (CE+AE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · greatest strength is doing things · more of a risk taker · performs well when required to react to immediate circumstances · solves problems intuitively

Felder & Silverman's Learning Style Model

Felder and Silverman (1988) propose their model including 32 learning styles. They also consider dimensions of learning styles in their model. There are five dimensions and each dimension includes two variables: *perception* (sensitive & intuitive); *input* (visual & verbal); *processing* (active & reflective); *understanding* (sequential & global); and *organisation* (inductive & deductive).

Felder and Silverman address particular specifications for each variable of each dimension. For instance, (a) sensitive students like facts, data, and experimentation. They are patient with details but do not like complexities. On the contrary, intuitive students prefer principles and theories and get bored by details but like complications. (b) Visual learners better remember things when they are in the form of pictures, diagrams, time lines, films, and demonstrations while verbal learners remember much of what they hear, read, and talk about. (c) Active students cannot learn in passive situations and like to work in groups whereas reflective students are not able to learn in the situations that opportunities for thinking about the presented information are not provided. Moreover, reflective learners prefer to work with themselves or at most with one other person. (d) Sequential students follow linear reasoning process in problem solving situations and they can manage their work even when they understand the material partially or superficially. On the other hand, global students make intuitive leaps and perhaps are not able to explain how they reach the solutions. (e) Regarding Organisation dimension, induction is on the opposite pole of the continuum with deduction. In the former, reasoning progression moves from particulars to generalities where in the latter, the direction of progression is reversed (Felder & Silverman, 1988, in García, Schiaffino, & Amandi, 2008, p. 307). This learning style model is designed mostly for engineering students who deal with science courses such as Maths and Computer Sciences.

Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, and Karp's Group Embedded Figures Test

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There is a variety of dimensions of cognitive styles; however, DeTure (2004) mention that the most widely investigated cognitive style is Witkin's 'field-dependent/independent'. Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) is an instrument through which students can be categorized into field-dependent/independent (FD/FI). The difference between field-dependent/independent individuals are of three types 'global vs. analytical', 'external vs. internal', and 'passive vs. active' (Witkin, Moore, Oltman, Goodenough, Friedman, Owen, & Raskin, 1977, pp. 197-8). It is believed that field-dependent students have global perception and they perceive objects wholly and holistically while field-independent ones are good at analytical thought, pay attention to separate parts of the object, and their attitude towards learning is more serialistic (Witkin *et al.*, 1977; Chen & Macredie, 2005, p. 3). Regarding 'external vs. internal', Witkin *et al.* (1977) maintain that field-dependent individuals rely on external environment and referents as guides in information processing while field-independent individuals tend to be more autonomous and focus on internal referents.

Likewise, to be external/internal in field-dependent/independent influence learners' performance on cognitive restructuring tasks (Chen & Macredie, 2005, p. 73) In other words, field-independent students like solitary impersonal domains requiring cognitive skills (e.g., Sciences) conversely field-dependent learners prefer interpersonal domains which do not stress such skills (e.g., Elementary Education). In addition, field-dependent individuals are attentive to social cues where field-independent people are relatively insensitive to social cues (Witkin *et al.*, 1977). Moreover, format-structure easily affects FD learners on contrary with FI who are less influenced by format-structure (Wang, 2007, p. 3). With respect to "passive vs. active", Witkin *et al.* (1977) explain that field-dependent students have propensity towards passive cognitive strategies whereas field-independent individuals like to use active cognitive strategies. In summary, "the bipolarity and neutral character of the field-dependent/ independent cognitive styles make them distinctively different from abilities and intelligence which are both unipolar and value laden" (p. 198).

Willing's Learning Style Model: 'How Do You Learn Best'

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Homayouni, Kadivar, and Taghypour (2009, p. 446) assert that in psychological domain of learning and, in effect cognitive learning and language theories, Kolb's learning styles on the basis of experiential learning theory and Witkin's cognitive styles are very important in learning English. Willing (1988) also highlights perceptual and cognitive styles as well as physiological styles in the constructs of his model. In other words, his learning style construct has roots in the work of Witkin and Goodenough (1981) and Kolb's (1976) learning style models. Willing's construct is described Witkin and Goodenough's (1981) conceptualization as "autonomy of external referents in perceptual and social behaviour", and Kolb's learning style model as "an interaction between two dimensions ... could be interpreted as: a) cognitive styles, and b) all other personality factors grouped into a single scale" (Willing, 1988, p. 68). Further, he resembles the Kolb's abstract-concrete dimensions of learning styles to that of the Witkin's field-independent/dependent continuum. In other words, Kolb's abstract conceptualization equals to an analytical style of cognition and concrete experience to the holistic, direct, and relatively undifferentiating styles of cognition (ibid). Moreover, Willing (1988) recommends that the other dimension of Kolb's like active versus reflective can be corresponded to a personality factor of active versus passive (p. 69). It is noteworthy to mention that the Keefe's (1979) definition of learning styles can be adjustable to constructs of this model. The description of Willing's learning style model is categorised into four different style learner groups: analytical learners, authority-oriented, communicative learners, and concrete learners. The learning groups are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 The Characteristics and Description of Willing's Learning Style Groups

<i>Characteristics of Learning Style Group</i>	<i>Willing's Description of Groups</i>
Analytical learners (active with FI tendency)	These people's cognitive strengths lead them not only to analyse carefully and show great interest in structure, but also put a great deal of value on showing their independence by doing these things themselves, autonomously (Willing, p. 155).
Authority-oriented learners (Passive with FI/FD tendency)	These people are probably not predisposed to actively organise information, they probably

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	perceive that they need the teacher's direction in the provision of explanations, patterns to follow (Willing, pp. 159-161).
Communicative learners (active with FI/FD tendency)	This group has "a desire for a communicative and social learning approach, probably because they feel that this would be most useful for their needs in relation to language learning" (Willing, p. 159).
Concrete learners (passive with FD tendency)	These people use very direct means of taking in and processing information ('Absorption'). They also people-oriented, though in a spontaneous and unpremeditated way (e.g. 'games', 'excursions'), or in close interaction (e.g. 'pairs'), not in terms of organized pointed class 'conversation' (Willing, p. 155).

Discussion

Asian students have been stereotyped as rote learners, depending on memorisation rather than understanding, and text-book dependent (Ballard & Clanchy, 1991; Kaputin, 1988; Phillips, 1990; Samuelowicz, 1987a, b, in Ramburuth & McCormick, 2001, p. 336). However, focusing on different sorts of learning approaches might not be the mere solution to discover how students deal with their own learning. In the area of subjective needs, probably the most essential concept known to date is the notion of 'learning style' (Willing, 1988, p. 5). In the same line, the researcher of this study also intends to pinpoint the importance of learning styles. More notable attempt is to find which of above mentioned model(s) is/ are more appropriate to apply to online contexts, though, overgeneralization might not put us at the safe side. It is noteworthy to mention that the suitability of a model refers to this capability to cover a wider range of learners with diverse learning styles. To put it in another way, to investigate how effectively learners are doing their own learning tasks, more aspects of learning styles should be taken into consideration.

Since the 1940s, learning style has not just stressed 'mental phenomena' or on memory and visual or oral teaching methods (Keefe, 1987, p. 5). Learning style has addressed broader

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scopes including “the mental, the physical, and the affective realms” to explain differences in learning (Willing, 1988, p. 52). This notion is in line with the definition of learning styles by Keefe (1979) as they refer to

characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicator of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment... Learning style is a consistent way of functioning that reflects the underlying causes of learning behaviour (p. 4).

Likewise, in the case of language, learning styles are not merely involved in perceptual senses or it cannot be restricted to just cognitive styles (Thang, 2003, p. 6). Accordingly, learning style is considered as a blend of cognitive, affective, and behavioural elements (Oxford and Ehrman, 1988, p. 23). In the same line, Bloom (1976) proposes a salient model of school learning. He emphasises the role of three important elements i.e. students’ characteristics, instruction, and learning outcome. In fact, Bloom identifies three independent variables that explicate the greatest variance in student learning including cognitive entry behaviours, affective entry characteristics, and quality of instruction (Keefe, 1979, pp. 2-3). As a result, what has already been mentioned is to great extent in congruence with Keefe’s definition of learning styles. Hence, one can recognise that a model of learning style which just estimates perception or cognitive styles does not suffice rather all styles including cognitive, affective, and physiological styles should be stressed in language learning (Thang, 2003). Among the concurrent models, it appears that the Keefe’s definition of learning styles is in more harmony with Willing’s (1988) psychological model of learning styles which is the focus of this study.

This definition makes the ‘tripartite’ division between cognitive, emotional, and physiological or sensory aspects of individual differences (Willing, 1988, p. 40). Regarding cognitive styles, Willing contends that cognitive and mental psychological functioning lead to individual differences. In teaching, various constructs (all usually conceived as polarities) have appeared as single bi-polar model of cognitive style. He exemplifies the scales running from simultaneous/syntactic to sequential/successive processing (Das, 1975, 1979); from holistic to serialist (Pask, 1976); from impulsive-global to analytic-reflective (Zelincker & Jeffrey, 1977);

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and from holistic to analytical (Hartnett, 1981) (in Willing, 1988, p. 41). In fact, these scales have inclination to be in accordance with the field-dependence/independence which already put into plain words.

Additionally, the role of physiological differences among individuals is quite essential. These diversities elucidate the way information is searched and the way information is processed (Barbe & Swassing, 1979). The physiology of environment may bring about complex patterns of preferences such as being receptive or cerebrally sensitive which, in turn, represent interactions between genetic predisposition and learning habits (Willing, 1988, pp. 52-53). Besides, being aware of learners' learning style assists organisations to prepare learning settings more fitting with the cases of temperature, light, etc. The learner's preferences of physiological conditions help educators recognising the most effective patterns in which individuals can concentrate more, as an example, being alone or in group. Also, knowing the senses assists researchers to discover how individuals remember various types of information, for example, by hearing, seeing, manipulating, etc. or a combination of them (Dunn *et al.*, 1989, p. 50). Of course, it should be mentioned that these preferences cannot act in isolation. That is, they interact with some factors of personality to form a whole which can be identified as distinct learning styles.

Integrating technology and computer into curriculum, content, and teaching can be considered as a profitable tool in educational contexts. It helps learners keep pace with the materials and be in contact with the tutor without the constraint of space and time. Technology is a medium through which abstract materials can be transformed into visual or auditory content; an authentic, real, and native like world can be experienced, the potential for more exposure to different forms and structures or illustrations can be provided; different levels of understanding can be motivated leading learners to deep learning; more chances can be obtained to listen to what have already mentioned, if there is the recoding facility; learners can be kept up-dated with the development of technology and motivated; and the capability of learners for autonomous learning and self-evaluation have been fostered.

To sum up, although not all types of learners feel at ease to pick up the materials taught and learn them beneficially and equally in online contexts, online learning can definitely be more

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fruitful for a well-equipped learner. In other words, learners should be trained how to develop their learning process independently; otherwise, learning online will be frustrating and suffering moments of life. As a matter of fact, learners cannot be evaluated based on specific variables and then generalise the findings to an individual whole whereas it requires estimating the most influential sources of impetus.

Conclusion

Research has revealed that there has been an emphasis on learners' "different cognitive styles and habitual information-processing strategies that determine a learner's typical mode of perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem solving" (Messick, 1976, in Zapalska & Brozik, 2006, p. 326). In addition, it is proposed by some researchers that cognitive styles should be taken into consideration in evaluation of web-based utilisations (Chen & Mareidie, 2004; Spicer, 2004; Mullany, 2006; Wang, 2007; Cewley, 2010). Other attempts have been made to explain the underlying process of learning; however, research shows that not only cognitive styles but also affective and physiological styles are of utmost importance to describe the unique process of learning (Messick, 1976, in Zapalska & Brozik, 2006, p. 326; Keefe, 1987; Oxford & Ehrman, 1988; Thang, 2003).

Since the online education can offer different channels for instruction with different facilities, Willing's model is promising to explore different learning styles through various types of deliveries. As was noted above, research proposes that both Kolb's learning styles on the basis of experiential learning theory and Witkin's cognitive styles are essential in language learning (Homayouni *et al.*, 2009). So, Willing's (1988) model is not a model specific because it is based on a solid foundation (Witkin and Goodenough, 1981; & Kolb's, 1976 works), takes its guidelines from a fully detailed learning style definition (Keefe, 1979), and therefore, takes into account the different types of styles i.e. cognitive, affective, and physiological.

For language learners who are involved in language learning via different types of distance education rather than those of conventional face-to-face classrooms, paying attention to their mere perception or cognition dose not suffice. In other words, as different channels are designed to accommodate various learning styles, different sources which can have an effect on Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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the learner's degree of receiving input, processing and evaluating data, and also making connection with prior knowledge through construction of knowledge should be outlined. The sensitivity in online learning is much greater due to lack immediate feedback from the instructor. Therefore, an e-learner should grasp how to be a good learner, what to do to be more engaged in the process of learning independently, how to solve problems, how to read and write critically and creatively, and how to utilise the utmost potential of a self that is cognitive, affective, and physiological respects affecting the levels of comprehension, understanding, analysing, evaluating, and etc.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

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Life After War

A Study of Amulya Malladi's *The Sound of Language*

Sajeetha S. M.A., M. Phil.



Amulya Malladi

Amulya and Her Characters

Amulya Malladi, born in 1974 in Sagar, Madhya Pradesh, India is the author of five novels, who has also shown her talent in poetry as well. She earned her bachelor's degree in electronics

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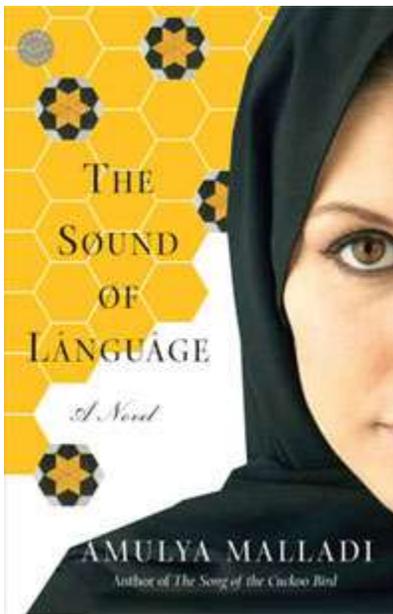
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engineering and her master's degree in journalism. She now lives in Denmark with her family. Amulya has lived all over India ranging from Himalayan foothills to the southern city of Chennai, because her father served in the Indian Army. Her residence in various parts of India and her vast travel experience has helped Amulya to describe the beautiful places and cultures of Indian society in interesting ways. Her characters are victims of suffering because of various traditions and traits in the society in which they live. Amulya shows how they are able to come out of their suffering circumstances victoriously. In most of her novels Amulya gives prominence to female characters.

Amulya's Novels



Amulya's novels include – *A Breath of Fresh Air* (2002), *The Mango Season* (2003), *Serving Crazy with Curry* (2004), *Song of the Cuckoo Bird* (2005), *The Sound of Language* (2007)

The Sound of Language

The Sound of Language portrays the successful story of Raihana, a refugee, and Gunnar. They, as victims of societal rules, suffer, but they come out victoriously, breaking the rules of life that unnecessarily bind them.

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Life After War - A Study of Amulya Malladi's *The Sound of Language*

It is a story of bravery, tradition, and the power of language. Raihana, an Afghan woman, and Danish widower Gunnar form an unexpected alliance. Raihana, escaping the turmoil and heartbreak of war-torn Kabul, settles with her distant relatives, Kabir and Layla, in Denmark. Raihana bravely attempts to start a new life, though her husband Aamir was taken prisoner by the Taliban and murdered brutally. Though she is homesick and suffers all turmoil in her life, she weaves her life beautifully.

Language and Sound

Every language is mélangé of sound. When one hears a language that one does not understand, he or she hears only the sound. Some sound like music, others like stones rattling in a steel container and some others like the buzzing of bees. Here in this novel the character Raihana feels that the Danish language sounded like the buzzing of bees. Soon after her arrival, Raihana finds herself in a language school, struggling to learn Danish. She also thinks Danish sounds like the buzzing of bees. Bzzzz, that was how she thought it sounded. Bzzzz, like the buzzing of thousand bees.

Apprenticeship

Raihana apprentices herself to Gunnar, a recent widower who was steadily withdrawing from the world around him, even neglecting his bee colonies that he worked so hard to cultivate with his late wife. Over the course of beekeeping Raihana and Gunnar forge an unlikely relationship, of care and respect for each other giving a new meaning for their friendship. Despite the disapproval of their friends and relatives, they continued their friendship.

Story of Unique Friendship

The *Sound of Language* is a story of unique friendship. Every language has sound and beyond that sound is acceptance. Here Raihana and Gunnar are united even when both are not able to speak or understand each other's language.

Getting Used to Strange Culture and Loving It

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Amulya Malladi made up her mind that she has to write a novel based on the place she has come to stay especially because of the language and the refugees, for which she took a few Danish language classes and met many refugees there. The refugees wanted to go back home, but they were used to **the** life in the west. The author explores this idea in this novel not just for Raihana but also for most of the refugees undergoing the hardships.

Raihana had escaped a second brutally cold winter at the Jalozai refugee camp in North Western Pakistan when the Danish government offered her asylum. It was difficult for a single woman with out a family, a husband, and education to survive. Her choices were limited. She could either die in a refugee camp where the cold wind from the mountains fingers through the almost peeled the skin off the bones, or she could go to this country where her distant cousin (Kabir) and wife (Layla) had agreed to give her a home.... She was not foolish to go back to Kabul. Everyone knew that Osama Bin Laden was responsible for the plane attacks in America and everyone knew that the Taliban were the same species as Alquida. America retaliates and the Taliban would fight back, and though the Afghani in Denmark, like many others did not like the idea of American troops on Afghan soil, it was better than the Taliban. Some thought the Taliban had been unjustly ousted out of power, and that they were good guys. (4-5)

War and Bloodshed, and Varying Responses

But in all cases there was only bloodshed, loss of lives and materials in war. War caused only destruction where many were killed, wounded or taken as refugees. Here in the novel *The Sound of Language*, Raihana, a refugee, comes out of her life in a most successful way.

Raihana joined the small number of refugees living in Denmark, all of whom watched the news with desperation, wondering when they could go back.... They hoped, Afghanistan would no longer be synonymous with tortured men and women living in penury. May be things would change and Afghanistan would become a safe haven, a progressive country, a normal country. (5)

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Kabir would say almost every day

“Have to go home someday, can’t live here all our life can we?” (5)

“Don’t unpack everything, Raihana, we’ll go back soon.”(5)

On the other hand we have Layla who tells Raihana,

“If you keep one foot in Afghanistan, you will be neither here nor there.”(11)

A Positive Approach

Raihana takes a positive approach in life along with Gunnar, a widower and an unhappy man. Gunnar is resistant to have Raihana work for him at first, but slowly she warms her way into his life and helps him to come back to his normal life where he starts loving his bees and life. Gunnar in return makes Raihana leave her past behind and embrace her future. She negotiates the line between her old and her new environment and life by accepting the challenges, and not shying away from what is uncomfortable and new. Raihana flees the atrocities of the Taliban where she is told that her husband is dead. She begins a new life with Gunnar.

Not a Usual Love Story: Two Hearts in Need of Healing

This is not a love story. This is a story of unique friendship between two people Gunnar and Raihana who cannot communicate clearly with each other because they don’t speak the same language. This is a story about immigrant life in Denmark, and most importantly, this is a story of courage and of stepping beyond the confines laid down by society and culture and finding something precious and important – happiness.

This is a tale of two hearts in need of healing, a story of reaching across that invisible line of fear to take the hand of a stranger and being drawn into a new light of understanding.

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Life After War - A Study of Amulya Malladi's *The Sound of Language*

LANGUAGE IN INDIA
Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow
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**The Effect of Parenting Style of Parents on the Attachment Styles
of Undergraduate Students**

Zarina Akhtar, Ph.D.

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Abstract

Present study was aimed to investigate the effect of parenting styles of parents on the attachment styles of undergraduate students. 200 students with age ranging from 15 to 18 years were selected as sample by cluster sampling technique. All the students filled and returned the questionnaire. After data clearing the final sample consisted of 179 respondents. Parental Authority Questionnaire was used to measure the parenting style of father and mother. Adult Attachment Scale was used to diagnose attachment style of student. Pearson's correlation was applied to analyze the collected data. Results showed there was significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style of parents and anxious attachment style of students. There was significant relationship between permissive parenting style of father and mother with avoidant and anxious attachment style respectively. Authoritative parenting style has no significant relationship with any attachment style.

1. Introduction

Parenting is a process through which a person exhibits a specific, warm and affectionate behavior towards their infants. Parenting by Weiten and Lloyd (2004) is associated with two dimensions, parental acceptance and parenting control. Parental acceptance is accepting their child and parenting control is strictness of parental standards. In parental acceptance the parents take care of their baby's food, sleep and other basic needs. Later on when child grows the parental control is employed. In the result of parental acceptance the child since infancy feel strong bonding with them. It is reflected by smiling, crying and cooing. This response

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of child is termed as infant attachment. Although the attachment is a universal phenomenon, it is not developed automatically. It is the result of parent-infant relationship.

The variations in parenting dimensions are defined as parenting styles. Baumrind (1967), (1971), (1978) has studied the specific parenting style as the interaction of parental acceptance and parenting control. She classifies this interaction in to main three parenting styles as authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. These different behaviors of parents affect the child's attachment pattern, which was defined as attachment styles. The attachment styles are typical ways of interacting in close relationships. Ainsworth, et al. (1978) identify three attachment styles; secure, anxious and avoidant. Hazan and Shaver (1990) described the relationship of adult attachment style is similar to the attachment pattern in infancy. The youngest infant develops secure attachment style with their parents/caregivers. Some infants showed anxious and some avoidant attachment. The question is how the infant develop any of the attachment style? Hazan and Shaver (1987) said warm response seems to promote secure attachment. A cold rejecting style is associated with avoidant attachment and inconsistent response reflected in the result of anxious attachment style. Albert, Trommsdorff and Mishra (2004) determine the style developed at infancy stage continues to adolescence.

The adolescence is the age of doing new experiences. This is the age when child is more anxious in developing new relations with peers, teachers, relatives and spouses. The adolescent's behave in the way what they has experience and learnt during childhood. At this age parents' strong relationship is suggested as the parents' are the persons' who introduce them with home environment similarly parents' should stand with children while introducing the out of home environment, so they should progress in safe hands. Gadeyne, Ghesquiere, & Onghena (2004) concluded parenting is considered to be an important determinant which affects the whole life of a child. In fact, it is one of the hardest tasks to describe the parents' efforts as every parent would hope to succeed in parenting. Parenting style is one of the variables which have been studied extensively for human development. It can be said that the way the parents take care of their child impact the child's personality development and the ways of interacting with social and close relationships.

1.1. Parenting styles

The three parenting styles defined by Baumrind (1971) are mostly used in literature. Authoritative Parenting Style is distinguished by setting high goals for their children. These parents are very sensitive and involved in their child's activities; responsive to their needs; they encourage verbal conversation and allow their children to question parental requests. Authoritative parents are willing to negotiate with their children. They set less restriction when their children are grown up and become mature.

Authoritarian parenting style has low acceptance and high control on their children. They are highly demanding and controlling. They use physical punishment or threats for the wrong doings. They think that the child should obey all the orders or commands without asking any question. These parents always showed rigid behavior and high control even when the child grown up to mature. They are emotionally at distant with their children and may be rejecting. The permissive parents make few demands exhibiting non-controlling behavior and use minimal punishment. They give high level of freedom to their children and do not restrict their behavior unless it physically harms them.

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1.2. Attachment Styles

The way people interact with others or make relations is called attachment style. Ainsworth, et al., (1978) described three attachment styles: secure, anxious and avoidant. The people possessing secure attachment style trust others. They feel comfort with mutual dependence. They are comfortable in making close relations. They warmly welcome if others make close relationship with them. Their relation stay long. They describe their parents as behaving warmly towards them and towards each others.

The people exhibiting anxious attachment style think that others are reluctant to make close relations with them. They have fear of rejection. They think others don't want to stay with them. Their close intimate relationship and complete dependence scares other peoples. Their relationship based on fear and abandonment. Their relationships have short duration. The anxious adults describe relationship with their parents as less warmth then secure adults and feel that their parents had unhappy marriages.

The people having avoidant attachment style are uncomfortable being close to others. They found difficult to trust others. They can not allow themselves to depend on others. They get nervous when others make close relations with them. Avoidant adults describe their parents as less warm. They see their mothers as cold and rejecting.

Different research studies were conducted to investigate the impact of parenting on child's personalities. Parenting styles were studied with different variables all over the world. Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch (1991) investigated parenting styles has been shown to be related to children and adolescents' academic achievement. Baldwin, McIntyre, & Hardaway (2007) seen the optimism in child's personality is the reflection of the parenting style. Similarly Strage & Brandt (1999) found confidence, Gonzalez & Wolters (2006) concluded motivation and Gadeyne, Ghesquiere, & Onghena (2004) explores the externalizing problem behavior and attention problems is affected by parenting style.

Kerka (2000) has conducted research to study the effect of parenting and career development. The finding of the study was: parenting style effects the career development. It was further emphasized that the focus from the individual's may be shifted to the family. The reason may be the individual is the reflection of their family.

A research study was conducted by Neal and Horbury (2001) on 53 undergraduates who were grew up in a two parent home to study the effect of parenting style on person's perception of their own relationship qualities and their perception of how other people relate to them interpersonally. The findings showed that the persons with authoritarian or permissive parents have higher self-intimacy abilities than those respondents with authoritative parent. The other finding depicted that a person with authoritative parents has positive perception of other's intimacy ability than those with either an authoritarian or permissive parenting style.

Adam, Gunnar and Tanka (2004) said parent's emotional characteristics have independent effect on parent behavior and it predicts the parenting style. Albert, Trommsdorff and Mishra (2004) conducted a research parallel in Germany and India. The findings of their study showed Indian mothers are more authoritarian then German mothers. German mother

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possesses permissive parenting style while the Indian mothers exhibit authoritative style. Indian mothers and their children showed more avoidance style than their German counterparts. They gave reason for this finding that they assessed attachment as a general construct. The attachment towards family may have different results. The second reason was the cultural differences in eastern and western culture where parenting styles are defined and perceived differently.

Yahaya and Nordin (2006) studied the relationship between self concepts, motivation and parenting styles effected students' achievement. They found that authoritative parenting style seems very suitable to be practiced because it is proven to have very good impact on the achievement.

Turner, Chandler and Heffer (2009) analyzed that authoritative parenting continues to influence the academic performance of college students. One different finding was found by Hall [19]. He analyzed that the stability and functioning of girl's marital life positively related with father's parenting in childhood and his relationship with the mother of child. So the parenting style affects the child's life in many ways.

Rai, Pandey and Kumar (2009) studied perceived parental rearing style and personality among Khasi adolescents. The findings of their study reveal that father's parenting style is different for male and female child. He has significantly more rejecting behavior for male child and emotionally warmth for female child. No difference in parenting of father was found on the factors of over protection and favoring subjects. No significant difference in parenting style of mothers was found for their boys and girls children.

Önder, Kırdök and Isık (2010) conducted a research study. They relate the high school student's career decision making pattern across parenting styles and parental attachment levels. The findings showed the child of authoritative and authoritarian parents is more decisive than the child's of neglectful and permissive parents. It was further concluded that the parent's authoritative style is positively associated with exploration of self and environment in adolescence. They further said that neglectful and permissive parents do not support their child in their career decisions.

Another study was conducted on Malaysian students by Lin and Lian (2011). They study relationship of parenting style and coping capabilities of secondary school students. Malaysian fathers and mothers were perceived at similar level of authoritarian parenting where as mothers are perceived more authoritative than fathers. It was concluded that authoritarian style of both father and mother and authoritative parenting style of mothers correlates with adolescent coping capabilities.

Keller (2008) investigated if parents are very protective and authoritarian then children are less creative. The reason he described was the children of authoritarian parents become vigilant and always striving to fulfill their duties to follow the instructions of parents and to minimize shortfalls. These children will follow the rules and satisfying the obligations not pursue aspirations or engage them in risky behavior. Their style will be prevention focus and they were less creative.

After reviewing the literature it was found that parenting style was studied with different variables in different context; but the relationship of parenting style and attachment style of adolescent was not discussed. So there was a need to study this demission of parenting styles and attachment styles. Present study was designed to find out the effect of parenting style of parents on the attachment styles of under graduate students.

1.3. Hypothesis for the study

Three hypotheses were designed to conduct the study:

- I.** Authoritative parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment style.
- II.** Authoritarian parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment style.
- III.** Permissive parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment style.

2. Methodology

The population of the study was undergraduate students of two districts (Attock and Chakwal). The age of respondents lies between 15 to 18 years. The sample of 200 (100 male and 100 female) students was selected by using cluster sampling technique. 200 questionnaires were distributed to the sample students. 179 questionnaires were returned. The response rate was 90%.

2.1. Instruments

Two instruments: Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) and Adult Attachment Scale (AAS) were used to collect data. The PAQ was developed by Buri [24] to measure the parenting style by child's perspective. Two versions of PAQ were separately used to measure the parenting style of father and mother. Gender was changed in the questionnaire like father was changed to mother and he was changed to she to make it separate version of PAQ. AAS was constructed by Collins & Reed [25]. Both the instruments PAQ and AAS were translated from English in to Urdu Language through forward and back translation.

2.1.1. Parental Authority Questionnaire

The PAQ was consisted upon 30 statements. It was designed to measure the parenting style of parents in terms of authority and disciplinary practices exhibited from child's perspective. The statements were rated on 5-point likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= undecided, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree. The 30 statements were divided in to three subscales i.e. authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. 10 statements for each subscale were summed up and the highest score indicate the type of parenting adopted. The statements of PAQ have good internal consistency. The value of alpha for original questionnaire was ranging from .74 to .87. The reliability coefficient for the present sample ranged from .72 to .80.

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2.1.2. Adult Attachment Scale

Adult attachment scale consists of 18 statements. It was designed to measure three dimensions of attachment scale i.e. secure, anxious and avoidant. The statements were rated on 5 point likert scale with the variation of 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= undecided, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree. The original AAS has good internal consistency. The Cronbach alpha ranged from .78 to .87. The reliability coefficient for present sample ranged from .68 to .72. The high score on the sub-scale indicate the particular attachment style of an individual.

Both the instruments were finalized with the expert opinion of specialists of the field of education and psychology.

2.2. Data Collection

Five schools from each district (Attock and Chakwal) were selected randomly: One for pilot test and four for data collection. Permission was obtained from the heads of respective schools to conduct the study. The questionnaires were distributed to students in their free time to avoid disturbance in their studies during class. Average time required to fill the questionnaire was approximately 20 minutes.

3. Results

The data was analyzed in the light of hypothesis designed for the study. Pearson's Correlation was used to investigate the relationship between parenting style of parents and attachment styles of their children.

Table: 1 Correlation between Authoritative parenting style of father and attachment style of children

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.086	.251
Anxious		-0.071 .345
Avoidant	0.061	.415

Total number of respondents= 179

Table: 4 Correlation between Authoritative parenting style of mother and attachment style of children **Please check the Table number.**

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.015	.845
Anxious		-0.020 .795
Avoidant	0.109	.148

Total number of respondents= 179

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Table 1 and 2 highlights no relationship exists between authoritative parenting style of father and mother and attachment styles of their children. The hypothesis I is rejected and it is said that no relationship found between authoritative parenting styles and secure, anxious and avoidant attachment styles for this sample.

Table: 3 Correlation between Authoritarian parenting style of father and attachment style of children

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.053	.478
Anxious		0.373** .000
Avoidant	0.204**	.006

** Significant at $p > .01$ Total number of respondents= 179

Table: 4 Correlation between Authoritarian parenting style of mother and attachment style of children

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.008	.912
Anxious	0.254**	.001
Avoidant	0.158*	.035

* Significant at $p > .05$ ** Significant at $p > .01$ Total number of respondents= 179

Table 3 and 4 indicates significant relationship between authoritative parenting style of father and mother with anxious and avoidant attachment style. Where as no relationship is found with secure attachment style. The value of $r = 0.373$ in table 3 and 0.254 from table 4 showed the significant moderate relationship between authoritarian parenting style and anxious attachment style. The hypothesis II is accepted and it is stated that the relationship exists between authoritarian parenting style and anxious attachment style.

Table: 5 Correlation between Permissive parenting style of father and attachment style of children

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.160*	.032
Anxious		0.169* .024
Avoidant	0.288**	.000

* Significant at $p > .05$ ** Significant at $p > .01$ Total number of respondents= 179

Table: 6 Correlation between Permissive parenting style of mother and attachment style of children

Attachment Styles	r	p
Secure	0.196**	.009

Anxious		0.371**	.000
Avoidant	0.192**	.000	

*Significant at p>.05 **Significant at p>.01 Total number of respondents= 179

Table 5 and 6 reflects that permissive Parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment styles. The value of r(0.288) in table 5 shows the permissive parenting style of father has relatively strong relationship with avoidant attachment style then other significant relations. The value of r(0.371) in table 6 indicates relatively strong relationship between permissive parenting style of mother and anxious attachment style of child when compared with other attachment styles.

4. Discussions

Present study was designed to investigate the effect of parenting style of parents on the attachment styles of students. The first hypothesis was: authoritative parenting style has relation with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment styles. The values of “r” in table 1 and 2 showed no significant relationship was found. A negligible relation of authoritative parenting style of father is found with secure attachment style. And similar result was found for authoritative parenting style of mothers with avoidant attachment style. Further authoritative parenting style has slight negative relation with anxious style. It can be said that authoritative parenting style of father leads to secure attachment style. Along with it the child with authoritative parenting style do not possesses anxious attachment style.

In the light of finding hypothesis I is rejected and it can be stated that authoritative parenting style has no relationship with secure, anxious and avoidant attachment style for this sample. This finding does not support the finding of Karavasilis, Doyle, and Markiewicz (2003). They found positive association between authoritative parenting style and secure attachment style. Further it also not supports the findings of Rohner (1975) research. He said warm and accepting behavior of parents does not elevate aggression in children and adults.

The second hypothesis was authoritarian parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with attachment styles. This hypothesis was supported by the findings. The result of table 3 and 4 indicates significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style of father and mother with both anxious and avoidant attachment styles respectively. The value of r (0.373) from table 3 and the value of r (0.254) from table 4 highlighted that authoritarian parenting style of father and mother has relatively moderate significant relationship with anxious attachment style when compared with other styles. This finding some what supports the findings of Gilani and Altaf (2005) and Rohner (1975). They concluded in their article that authoritarian parenting style develop extreme attitude in the children.

The authoritarian parents has low acceptance and high control on their children and the person with anxious style thinks that others are reluctant to make close relations with them. They have fear of rejection. This finding is very logical. The parent’s low acceptance is reflected in fear of rejection from students’ personality. The children with avoidant attachment style describe their parents as less warm to each other and they had unhappy marriages. This perception of students gives seed for thought to parents. If they have less warm relationship with each other, they may have many reasons but for the child’s healthy

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personality they may sit together and resolve their conflicts. This finding supports the findings of Coh, Cowan, Cowan and Pearson (2008) they said parents' attachment styles affects the child attachment style. Insecure parents provide less structure in instruction with children as compared to secure parents.

The third hypothesis of the study was permissive parenting style of father and mother has relationship with attachment style of their children. This hypothesis was also supported by the findings of table 5 and 6. The table values reflected that permissive parenting style of father and mother has significant relationship with all three attachment styles. The value of r (0.288) indicates that permissive parenting style of father has relatively moderate relationship with avoidant attachment style as compared to others. This finding supports the findings of Karavasilis, Doyle and Markiewicz (2003) as their study reflect that permissive parenting style predict avoidant attachment style. The value in table 6 indicates permissive parenting style of mothers has relatively moderate significant relation with anxious attachment style when compared with others. This finding also support the findings of Albert, Trommsdorff and Mishra (2004) as they concluded Indian mothers' having permissive parenting style their children prefer avoidant attachment style.

The permissive parents are not much involved in their child's activities. They give high freedom to their children which confuse them. When they possess avoidant style it shows their cold and rejecting behavior towards father. The reason may be the father remains out of home for their job and earning. The children during their infancy to childhood do not see their father directly concerned with their activities. They feel them alone with their decisions. In the result they don't have habit to share their feelings and problems with their father so they showed avoidant style.

Although the majority of mothers' remains at home even then their permissive style showed relationship with anxious style. The previous finding of table 4 i.e. authoritarian parenting style of mother also leads to anxious style. It means no matter the mothers' style is authoritarian or permissive the children showed anxious style. It can be said that either mothers' showed strict behavior or have less or no concern with children activities. The child possesses the same style. In other words the child want to see their mothers' fully attentive and involved in their activities. They need her full attention.

The other reason of these findings may be the age of the students. The sample was of age between 15 to 18 years. The focus of the adolescents at this is mostly out of home. They are more anxious. So they possess avoidant or anxious attachment style.

5. Conclusion

This study was aimed to explore the relationship between parenting styles of parents and attachment styles of students. Authoritative parent style has no significant relationship with any of secure, anxious and avoidant attachment style. Authoritarian parenting style has significant relationship with anxious attachment style. Permissive parenting style of father has significant relationship with avoidant attachment style. Permissive parenting style of mother has significant relationship with anxious attachment style. The findings of the present study provide some insights to parents, psychologists and researchers in promoting adolescent's psycho-social development and well-being.

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Keeping in view all the findings it was recommended to parents; that they may resolve their own conflicts. They have to sit together and give proper time to their children activities. They may learn to cooperate with each others and combine various elements of their unique parenting styles. It is also recommended for future research studies that parents' age, educational level, socio-economic status, family size, parental background may also be focused to study the relationship of parenting styles and attachment styles of adolescents.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Emerging Global Scenario and English Language Teaching in India

Sanjiv Kumar, Ph.D.

Introduction

At the time when entire world is debating globalization as a crucial phenomenon transforming the lives of the people in one way or the other, English language has entered into a new set of contestations like— challenging the claim of British English as the standard English with the emergence of World Englishes, emphasis on neutral accent instead of received pronunciation, innovative methods and approaches of English Language Teaching, different new set of purposes for learning English, English shedding off its colonial connotations, and English as a vehicle of growth, prosperity and upward mobility. Keeping in view the importance of English in emerging global context, almost entire world seems to have reached to a consensus regarding considering it as the global lingua franca. The number of English users across the world is increasing day by day.

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The English language has become a part of the IT revolution. English, a language that came from nowhere, is set to conquer the world... today, it is used, spoken or written in some form or the other, by perhaps 1.5 billion people around the world; of the English users, three hundred and fifty million use it as the mother tongue, and the rest as a foreign or second language... it is estimated that there are even more users of English than of the Chinese language, a language spoken in eight different varieties but written in the same way by 1.1 billion people. (Krishnaswamy, 150)

Background

Debating the future of global English in the age of vibrant media, press, advertising, broadcasting, cinema, international tourism, communications and cyber space, David Crystal considers English as the language most widely taught as a foreign language—in over 100 countries, such as China, Russia, Germany, Spain, Egypt and Brazil (Crystal, 5). English now is the preferred language for global communication and has become the dominant language of internet communication, international trade, commerce, outsourcing, hotel and tourism and what not. “From a symbol of colonialism and imperialism, the English language has become a neutral tool of communication in the new millennium—a global goldmine” (Krishnaswamy, v). David Graddol, in his *TheFuture of English* rightly described English as ‘a leading edge phenomenon’ in the age of shifting social values, transforming international economy, diverse demography, excessive role of technology, blurring of boundaries and global culture. He observed that the English language would play an ever more important role in world communications, international business, and social and cultural affairs. But at the same time he apprehended that the native-speaking countries might not be the beneficiaries of change (Graddol 2000, 55). In his another book *English Next India*, he sees the propositions in favour of India while discussing the transition we are experiencing in different spheres, including demographic, economic, social, and educational systems. As for the English transition, he asserts: “The official position of English in India remains that of a transitional necessity. But this agenda has been overtaken by events. Economic growth means that more jobs require English; the expansion of education means that

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English is needed by more people for study; and for a growing, globalised, urban middle class English is playing a greater role in both their work and personal lives.” (Graddol 2010, 64)

In the present context, Indians are speaking English more than any other language, with the sole exception of Hindi. At the same time, English speakers in India outnumber those in all of Western Europe, not counting the United Kingdom. Indian English-speakers are more than twice the UK's population. In Indian context, entire history of English Language has acquired an altogether new dimension. Besides the constitutional provision of English as an Associate Official Language (for an indefinite period of time), it has been accepted as the passport to worldly success in the present age. Those aspiring to soar high in their chosen careers can hardly afford to ignore the importance of this language.

The entire post-independence anti-English campaign under the slogan “Angrezi Hatao” has become a thing of past as even the most nationalist parties have redefined their approach in defense of English. This language, according to Braj B. Kachru, is the best suited to multi-lingual and multi-ethnic India:

... has acquired neutrality in a linguistic context ... whereas native codes are functionally marked in terms of caste, religion, region, and so forth, English has no such ‘markers’ at least in the non-native context. It was originally the foreign (alien) ruler’s language, but that drawback is often overshadowed by what it can do for its users... English is being used to neutralize identities one is reluctant to express by the use of native languages or dialects (in India). (Kachru, 8)

Those who were earlier arguing that English was the root cause of all the woes of India have now embraced the language as a vehicle of growth.

English for communication is the mantra everywhere. Outsourcing centres, call centres, medical transcription centres, bookkeeping for various multinational companies in different parts of the world, software development, etc.—thousands and thousands of jobs

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are created all over India... in a city like Bangalore alone, it is said there are about 75,000 persons employed in call centres... outsourcing, it is said, is going to create millions of jobs in the near future for English-knowing educated Indians. (Krishnaswamy, 159)

The entire world seems to eye us with envy for our being one of the most robust economies with a sound demographic dividend (with 65% of its population aged under 35) while the erstwhile superpowers are facing the crisis of large scale sovereign debt. IT revolution and globalization and subsequent consumerism have changed the entire socio-economic scenario in India further resulting into the cyber cities, mall and BPO culture, multi-specialty hospital, tremendous rise of real estate, services sector, mobile technology, retail marketing and hence multitude of career opportunities in different fields.

The demographic dividend may be capitalized better only with the development of skills among the youth (including the life skills). On the National Skill Development Mission, it said that much more is required both in terms of achievements and speed to reap the benefits of demographic dividend properly. [National Skill Development Council, Ministry of Labour Government of India](#) aims at achieving rapid and inclusive growth through: a) Enhancing individuals' employability (wage/ self employment) and ability to adapt to changing technologies and labour market demands. b) Improving productivity and living standards of the people. c) Strengthening competitiveness of the country. d) Attracting investment in skill development. The Hindu reports:

The National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC), set up in July 2008, has been mandated to achieve the target of creation of skilled workforce of 150 million people by 2022. By the end of December 2010, 28 states and union territories had set up Skill Development Mission. India has the advantage of demographic dividend, with over 50 per cent of its population below 25 years of age, whereas many advanced economies, including Japan, are facing the problem of an ageing workforce. ([The Hindu, Feb. 25, 2011](#))

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To harness the benefits of tremendous inflow of FDI, rise in the number of BPOs, tourism industry, service sector, acquisition of foreign MNCs by Indian corporate houses and social sector reforms by the government, Indian youth needs to keep pace with the time. To have fair advantage of the changing scenario, our approach to English language learning needs to be given a fresh thought. For example, to have the advantage of emerging career avenues and employment opportunities in various fields, the English-knowing youth well-versed in other professional skills is required.

According to N. Krishnaswamy, in the globalised socio-economic and cultural context,

English teaching in India is becoming a big business. Every street corner has institutes for spoken English and grammar; many call centres are appointing English trainers to train people in the appropriate use of English, style polishing, accent sensitising, accent neutralising, English fluency, and cross-cultural communication... people who are good at spoken and written English are absorbed in the media and journalism. (Krishnaswamy, 160)

Change of Syllabi and Teaching and Learning Methods

At the same time, the traditional syllabi and methods of teaching English need to be given a fresh look by incorporating more of the communicative component and less of the literature. Now, the focus needs to be shifted from traditional practices in English studies (when British literature was given more prominence) to the pragmatic approach to English language teaching. The education system needs to be overhauled in such a way that our schools, colleges and universities don't produce aimless degree-holders but the ones poised to excel the world with clarity of vision, career and needs of the job market.

With the growing middle class, increasing urbanization, shift to a services economy, widening access to higher education (from 12% participation rate to 30% in a decade), increased vocational training, improved communications/mobility, more children attending private schools,

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English taught in government schools from Class 1 and English-medium streams opening in government schools, English language seems to have a very-very fertile soil to grow. But ironically, in spite of dozens of commissions and committees recommending suitable transformation in English Education in India, present scenario is not much encouraging. Our vibrant democracy emphasizing upon the principles like inclusive and sustainable development is still fraught with poor quality English language teaching in the educational institutions (especially those run by the government). Present day English language scenario in India fails to cope up with the socio-economic and cultural transformations we are witnessing at the global level as there are numerous challenges marring the productivity of English Language Teaching in India.

Continuing Apathy towards Learning and Teaching English in Schools

In spite of all claims of India having a bright future with skilled English-knowing youth in the next decade, general apathy towards English in schools, colleges and most of the universities is a matter of serious concern. Paradoxically, in the states like Haryana where English is introduced as a Compulsory subject, the introduction generates a general feeling among the majority of students that they will compulsorily fail. It is due to the lack of proper orientation and professional attitude among the teachers and students. These public-funded institutions seem to have failed the aspirations of the present generation of learners. In most of the states, the qualification of an English teacher is B.A. and B.Ed., with no specialization or rigorous pre-service or pre-induction training in the subject of English. Similarly, for the appointment of a teacher in college or university, NET or Ph.D. remains a compulsory requirement where there is hardly any focus on language or communicative proficiency (as prescribed text-books on poetry, prose and grammar don't address the emergent requirement), further leading to widening gap between the needs of the job market and education provided to the students. Obviously, such teachers might not have updated themselves regarding latest approaches/methods to ELT.

No Impact of Research in Teaching Strategies upon the Teachers, et al.

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The researches in the field of English Language Teaching don't percolate down to Indian English classrooms where teacher still holds the authority without creating any possibility for interactive approach and individual attention. The schools and colleges located in the rural areas are still practicing the outdated approaches to ELT including over reliance on Bilingual Method and Grammar-Translation Method where the job of the English teacher ends with summarizing the prose, poetry or fiction preferably in the first language of that region.

In the given circumstances, if there is any skill imparted to the students, it is reading or writing (that also doesn't include any element of creativity) rather than developing all four communicative skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW). The apathy of the system doesn't stop here as the curriculum of the English classes in most of the institutes is still content based with only partial focus on skills.

No Significant Remedial Measures Initiated

There is hardly any remedial measure initiated by the administrators to bridge the gap between aspirations and achievements of ELT. Most of the state governments fail to motivate the teachers to go for language courses like PGCTE or PGDTE from English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) or Regional Institutes of English (RIEs). So, introducing the smart classrooms with electronic devices like computers, LCD or Language Labs and essential skill-based CD-ROMs and study material without having smart teachers may not deliver the desired results. In addition to that, non-academic duties given to the faculty mar the performance of the teacher. Faulty Evaluation system encourages memorization and not development of skills

Conclusion

Though colonial tag is not attached much to the English language, the general misconceptions about the language and ideological constraints still discourage the learner in the absence of proper career guidance and vision. Role of mother tongue in learning the second language is undoubtedly crucial but excessive interference of L1 sometimes leads to generalization and subsequent fossilization. Lastly, the need of the hour is to sense the changing socio-economic

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context where English is acknowledged as the global lingua franca, and then to revisit the ELT strategies keeping in view the uniform structure, equity of access to quality language teaching environment and development of required skills among the students by instilling positive reinforcement. The changing global scenario and the rising needs of English language teaching demand that the traditional variants of general ELT should be further oriented towards English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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A Comparative Study of the Public and Private Sector Universities Students' Self Esteem

Fauzia Khurshid, Ph.D.

Khurshid Ahmad

Sadia Yasin

Abstract

Present research was designed to measure the differences between self-esteem of master level students of private and public sector universities. In this study, Factor Loadings Self Esteem Scale developed by Rifai (1999) was used for the measurement of self-esteem. A sample of 100 university students was collected through stratified random sampling; among them 56 were male and 44 female students. Students' age ranged from 20-30 years and their income level ranged from 40,000 to 80,000 per month.

The psychometric properties of the scale showed that it was a reliable and valid tool for the measurement of the self-esteem of university students. Statistical tests including mean, SD, correlation, and ANOVA were used to test the research hypotheses.

Results revealed that there is a significant difference between levels of self-esteem of the students of private and public sector universities (private mean= 85.5, public mean=72.). It also indicated that demographic variables, of gender, semesters, discipline, and family income affect in determining the level of self-esteem among the university students.

Keywords: Self-Esteem, Self-Acceptance, Academic Competence, Physical & Social Acceptance, and Self-competence, Private and Public Sector.

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Human beings have the capability of being conscious of their unique existence (self), the degree of liking or disliking themselves is known as self-esteem. Rogers (as cited in Rathus, 2001) defined self as a center of experiences; he believes that people have a positive feelings about themselves, as they become aware of themselves, they develop a need of esteem for the self and use different set of dimensions in defining and judging themselves according to the sets of values.

Maslow considered self-esteem as the basic need for human beings which include internal and external esteem factors such as self-respects, autonomy, achievement, (internal) status, recognition and attention (external) (as cited in, Robbins 2002). Coppersmith (1967) focused on the enhancement of self-esteem; he analyzed four basis of self-esteem that is competence, significance, virtue, and power. Brandon defined self-esteem as competence and worthiness (as cited in Mruk, 2006). Psychologists defined self-esteem in both terms i.e. “competence” and “worth.” Kreitner & Kinicki (2003) defined self-esteem as a belief about one’s own self-worth based on an overall self-evaluation.”Competence and worthiness are considered as two dimensions of self-esteem. White found that one dimension of self-esteem is a sense of competence which enhances another separated dimension of self-esteem that is self-worth and based on social value.

Tafarodi and Swann (1998) categorized two interdependent but distinguish dimensions such as, self-competence and self-liking. They defined self-competence as the sense of one’s own proficiency and self-liking refers to the sense of one’s own worth as a social being. Self-competence is the positive awareness of one’s self as productive and successful experiences to achieve a target. Self-liking is evaluation of one’s own worth as a social being and internalization of standards of good and bad. Self-competence can be determined by the correlating the targets or intensions with the result of actions to achieve those goals. Self-liking, in contrast, is determined by transmission of values at social level. Self-competence and self-liking are correlated to each other. When one act more competently, more approval he or she gets from others. Humans live in a community. We have common needs, standards and goals. When we successfully achieve these goals, we get more social approval from group members. Individual’s perception of competence is based on the group members’ judgment of individual’s competence. People who are competent, they are more sensitive about their acceptance from others because individual’s approval by others creates a sense of self liking. It increases individual’s self-esteem. So, those who are more competent tend to be high in self-liking.

In most of the researches two levels of self-esteem are measured by psychologists that are low level of self-esteem and high level of self-esteem. Mruk (2006) stated that low self-esteem becomes the cause of many mental disorders. Rosenberg and Owens (as cited in Mruk, 2006) identified the chief characteristics of low self-esteem. People with low self-esteem have feeling such as hyper sensitivity, lack of self-confidence, being more concerned with protecting against a threat than actualizing possibilities and enjoying life, lack of risk taking, depression, loneliness and so forth. Strict and harsh behavior of parents can cause low self-esteem.

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High self-esteem is mostly associated with positive abilities and characteristics. These positive aspects have played major role in making the self-esteem as an important psychological concept. Contemporary research on high self-esteem suggests that all forms of high self-esteem are not positive. Most of the positive characteristics are still associated with high self-esteem. These characteristics can be separated into two general types; those that help to maintain the self and those that allow the self to actualize. These two positive functions of self-esteem are known as self-maintenance and self-growth or enhancement. The maintenance function of self-esteem has capacity to act as a device for reducing the effect of anxiety or stress. High self-esteem is helpful in dealing with stress and avoiding anxiety that allows a person to continue functioning in the face of stress.

Academic competence as multidimensional construct composed of the skills, attitudes, and behaviors of a learner that contribute to academic success. James (as cited in Mruk, 2006) suggested that self-esteem is determined by how successful we are in achieving our goals. In this context teachers also play important role in developing positive sense of academic competence. When teachers are helpful and caring and emphasize on learning and getting good semesters, they tend to have mastery oriented students. Teachers can enhance students' academic competence by providing constructive feedback and encouragement. It is important for teachers to use motivational strategies and evaluate students' performance.

Academic achievements have an effect on student's self-esteem, better academic performance and positive feedback increase academic competence. Moreover there is a relationship between students' achievement and self-esteem, and that enhancement in self-esteem leads to progress in students' achievements. The parental and teacher roles in students' achievement are more important. Those students who judge themselves as valuable, competent and effective to face problematic situation and complete their tasks successfully, their self-esteem is high. Students with high self-esteem are more confident about doing anything what they want to do. They perform well in their academic activities and do not disappoint when they fail in achieving their goals. On the contrary, students with low self-esteem are less confident, disappointed, frustrated in difficult situation and do not perform well in their academic activities. So it can say that students' self-esteem is combined with personal goal setting and has impact on students 'academic achievement.

Pakistan has two sectors of education, private sector and public sector. In each sector many students are enrolled. These students get admission in different subject areas according to their different backgrounds and abilities to learn selected subjects. Students with high self-esteem are more confident but the students with low self-esteem are less confident. Socio economic status also has its effects on levels of self-esteem. Students who belong to high social economic status have higher self-esteem. In an educational context, there is a relationship between students' achievement and self-esteem, enhancement in self-esteem leads to progress in students' achievements. It is also the basic root for further education and is beneficial for further career. In this context, parents, teachers and peer group's roles are vital in developing positive self-esteem.

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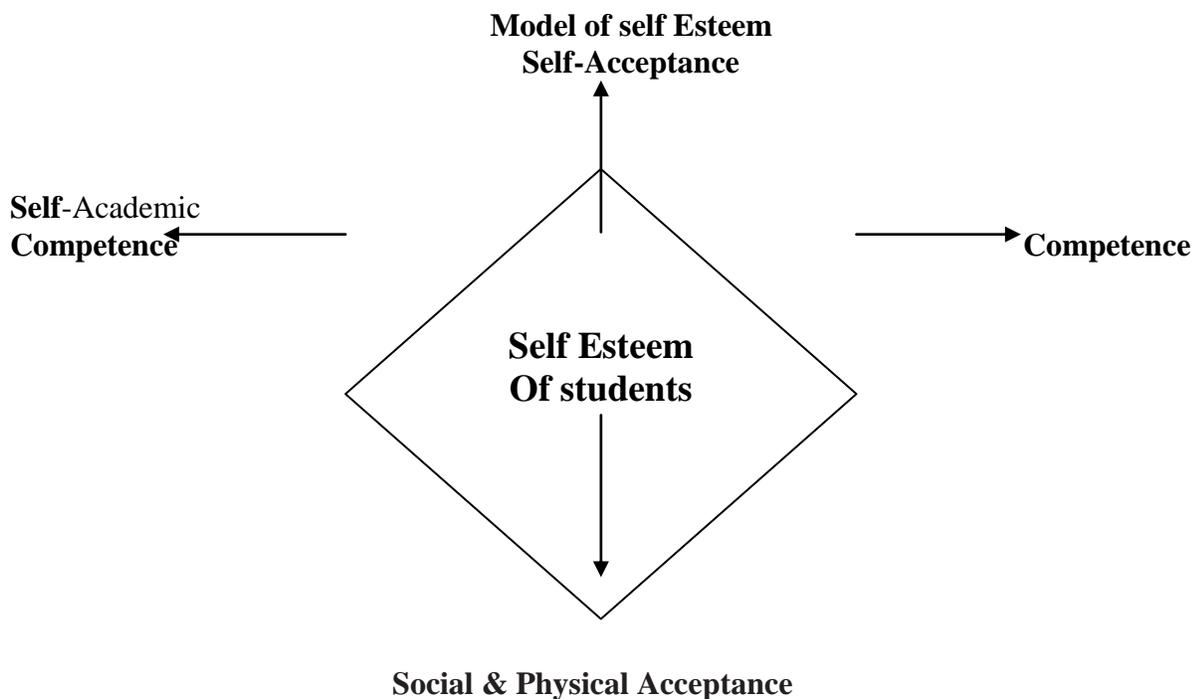
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In Pakistani contexts, only a few researches are available which measured the self-esteem of students at secondary school level and graduate level but no research is available in which the self-esteem of university students was measured. Therefore, the intention of present research is to measure the self-esteem of students in relation to different demographical variables at the university level.

Theoretical Framework of Study

The main objective of this study was to compare the self-esteem of private and public sector university students. For this, demographic variables such as gender, semesters, discipline, and family income are seen to be more important for the purpose of our research because these variables have great impact on the development of self-esteem. In the present study effects of these independent variables had been explored on the self-esteem of university students.



Four dimensions of self-esteem include self-acceptance, academic competence, physical & social acceptance, and self-competence (Rifai, 1999). Self-acceptance refers to feelings of liking about our self. Self-competence is defined as the sense of one’s own efficacy derived from multiple experiences of successful achievement of goals. Physical & social acceptance is defined as individual’s acceptance of physical appearance and his acceptance by others. Academic competence reflects students’ feelings of adequacy to complete their academic tasks successfully.

Problem Statement

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The problem under investigation is to weigh the self-esteem of students studying at Master level in the public and private sector universities; it further aims to measure the differences in the students' self-esteem due to demographic variations such as gender, discipline, and family income and semesters.

Objectives

1. To measure the differences between self-esteem of Master level students of the private and the public universities.
2. To investigate the role of certain demographic variables such as gender, family income level discipline and semester in determining the self-esteem of master level students of private and public sector universities.

Hypotheses

On the basis of objectives of the study, following hypotheses were formulated.

1. Private sector universities' students have higher self-esteem than public sector University students.
2. Male university students have higher self-esteem than female university students.
3. Students with higher socio economic status have higher self-esteem than the students who belong to lower socio-economic status.
4. Students of management sciences have higher self-esteem than students of social sciences & humanities.
5. Students of 3rd and 4th semesters have higher self-esteem than students of 1st, and 2nd semesters.

Method

Sample

A stratified random sample of 100 university students was collected from National University of Modern Languages; Islamabad, International Islamic University, Foundation University and Preston University. Among them 56 were male and 44 female students, their ages ranged from 20 to 30 years. All students were studying at the Master level in the departments of social sciences, management sciences, and humanities. Their family income ranged from 40,000 to 80,000 rupees per month.

Research Instrument

In present research for the measurement of self-esteem "Factor Loadings Self Esteem Scale" developed by Farida Rifai in 1999 was used. It was consisted of 29 items and based on four factors, i.e., self-acceptance, academic competence, physical & social acceptance, and self-competence. The reliability and validity of the scale was determined in pilot testing on a sample

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of 50 university students. The alpha reliability of the scale was .82 and split half reliability was .80. Results indicated that item no. 2, 3, and 13 were not significantly correlated with total scale. Therefore these items were excluded from the scale and rest of 26 was retained in scale for the measurement of the self-esteem of the university students.

Procedure

The respondents contacted at their university and information about purpose of study was provided, after their approval they were handed over the Factor Loading Self-esteem scale and requested to fill it in one setting. The assurance of confidentiality and anonymity was provided to them that information collected by them would be kept off the record and only be used for research purposes.

Results

The data was analyzed with the help of statistical techniques to arrive at the conclusion such as the coefficient of correlation mean, SD, alpha reliability, and analysis of variance with the help of SPSS .16. The psychometric properties of questionnaire were determined and items total correlations were computed in order to determine the construct validity of research questionnaire. All 26 items had significant correlation with the total score. The correlation coefficient ranges from .67 to .90.

Table 1

Inter-Scales Correlations of Respondents Scores on Factor Loading Self Esteem Scale
(*N* = 100)

Subscales	1	2	3	4
Self-Acceptance				
Academic Competence	.73*			
Physical & Social-Acceptance	.67*	.73**		
Self-Competence	.89**	.61**	.84**	
Total	.76**	.79**	.66**	.86**

p* < .05. *p* < .01

Table 1 describes the inter-scale correlations of self-esteem scale. The scores ranged from .61** to .89**. The result indicates that all subscales of factor loading self-esteem scale have significant correlation with each other and with the total scale.

Table 2

University-wise Comparison on Factor Loading Self Esteem Scale (N= 100)

Sub scales	Private University (n=50)		Public University (n=50)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	30.7	3.3	26.3	4.3
Academic Competence	20.4	2.1	15.3	2.2
Physical & Social Acceptance	17.1	4.0	16.0	2.3
Self-Competence	17.3	2.3	15.4	3.1
Total	85.5	11.7	72.0	11.9

Table 2 show the students' mean scores on factor loading self-esteem scale. The result indicates students of private sectors universities scored higher on the all factors of self-esteem as well as on the total scale of as compared with the students of public sector universities.

Table3

One way Analysis of Variance of Students Scores on Factor Loading Self Esteem Scale for the variable of type of university (N= 100)

	df	F	Sig
Self-Acceptance	98	8.537	.004
Academic Competence	99	6.760	.011
Physical & Social Acceptance	98	5.666	.019
Self-Competence	98	5.617	.020

*p < .05

Table 3 presents the difference between students' scores for variable of type of university. Results indicate that there are significant differences between students' scores on the variable of type of university.

Table 4**Gender –Wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on Factors Loading Self Esteem Scale
(N=100)**

Subscales	Private Sector (n= 50)		Public Sector (n= 50)					
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	29.1	4.2	24.6	4.1	27.4	3.3	20.6	3.2
Academic Competence	19.3	1.3	17.4	2.5	17.1	2.2	15.1	1.3
Physical &Social Acceptance	17.5	3.1	18.6	5.1	16.3	2.1	17.3	1.1
Self-competence	20.3	1.1	16.2	2.2	19.0	2.2	18.1	3.3
Total	86.2	9.7	75.8	13.9	79.8	9.8	71.1	8.9

Table 4 represents the gender wise differences of public and private university students. The result shows that male students of private sector have higher mean scores on all subscales of self-esteem. Female students of private university have higher mean scores on self-acceptance, academic competence and physical & social acceptance. Overall female students of public sector universities have lower self-esteem.

Table 5

**Discipline-wise Comparison of Students Scores on Factor Loading Self -Esteem Scale
(N= 100)**

Subscales	Private Sector (n= 50)		Public Sector (n=50)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Humanities				
Self-Acceptance	22.1	2.5	18.4	3.3
Academic Competence	16.0	1.2	15.1	2.2
Physical & Social Acceptance	17.3	6.1	15.3	1.1
Self-Competence	18.1	2.1	16.4	2.1
Total	73.5	11.9	64.2	8.7
Management Sciences				
	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	28.1	3.2	26.1	4.2
Academic Competence	17.2	2.2	15.4	1.3
Physical & Social Acceptance	19.2	3.3	16.3	1.2
Self-Competence	20.4	2.1	18.1	3.5
Total	84.9	8.00	75.9	10.1
Social Sciences				
	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	22.2	4.2	16.4	3.2
Academic Competence	17.1	1.3	15.3	2.1
Physical& Social Acceptance	15.6	2.2	18.0	3.4
Self-Competence	16.5	3.1	14.2	2.1
Total	71.4	10.8	63.9	10.8

Table 5 represents that public and private universities students of management sciences have higher self esteem as compared to students of humanities and social sciences.

Table 6
Family Income- Wise Comparison of Respondents Scores on Factor Loading Self Esteem Scale

Scale (N= 100)

Subscales	Private Sector (n= 50)		Public Sector (n= 50)		Private Sector (n= 50)		Public Sector (n= 50)	
	Rs.40000-50000				Rs.50000-60000			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	26.2	2.2	28.2	4.3	28.0	4.4	30.2	4.2
Academic Competence	17.3	2.5	15.3	2.0	14.3	1.0	16.1	3.1
Physical & Social Acceptance	17.2	3.5	15.3	1.3	18.1	2.3	15.1	2.3
Self-Competence	18.1	2.3	16.2	3.3	17.2	1.0	12.4	1.4
Total	78.8	10.5	75.0	10.9	77.6	8.7	73.8	10.9
	Rs. 60000-70000				Rs. 70000-80000			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	31.2	3.6	23.5	1.3	30.5	4.3	27.2	3.6
Academic Competence	17.3	1.1	13.0	2.2	18.5	1.1	15.4	2.4
Physical & Social Acceptance	17.1	1.1	15.1	1.2	22.1	7.2	12.3	1.1
Self-Competence	17.4	2.2	12.1	1.1	17.2	3.1	15.1	3.4
Total	82.9	8.0	63.7	5.8	88.3	15.7	69.	10.5

Table 6 shows the family income wise differences in the students' scores on factor loading self-esteem scale. The result indicates that students with higher income families have higher self esteem as compared with students with low income families.

Table 7

**Semester-wise Comparison of Students Scores on Factor Loading Self-Esteem Scale
(N= 100)**

Subscales	Semesters							
	1		2		3		4	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Acceptance	26.2	4.1	28.1	4.4	29.1	4.2	27.3	3.3
Academic Competence	15.3	2.2	16.6	2.1	16.2	2.8	22.3	2.3
Physical & Social Acceptance	16.6	4.3	17.5	3.5	20.1	4.1	18.6	3.5
Self-competence	15.2	3.1	16.2	2.4	16.3	2.6	20.2	2.1
Total	70.3	13.7	77.4	12.4	81.4	13.7	88.4	11.2

Table 7 represents the semester wise comparison between students' scores on Factor Loading Self Esteem scale. Results show that students of 3rd semester have higher mean scores on self-acceptance and physical & social acceptance, while students of 4th semester have higher mean scores on academic competence and self-competence. Overall students of final semester have higher self esteem as compared with students of other semesters.

Discussion

In this research the main objective was to measure the differences between self-esteem of Master level students of public and private universities. Second objective was to investigate the role of certain demographic variables such as gender, socio-economic status discipline, and semester, in determining the self-esteem of master level private of public universities students.

In this study various hypotheses were formulated to test the research objectives. The first hypothesis of the present study was that private sector universities' students have higher self-esteem than public sector universities' students. The result revealed that private university students have higher self-esteem than public university students. The reason may be that students of private university have high family income than students of public university. So, high socio economic status provides them more confidence. Another fact is that students of private university get better educational facilities, more chances of their vocational and professional growth than students of public university.

The second hypothesis of the study was that male students have higher self-esteem than female students. Results of the present study confirmed this hypothesis. Results of present study also revealed that male students have higher scores on self-acceptance, academic competence and self-competence. But female students have higher scores on physical & social acceptance.

The third hypothesis was that students with higher socio economic status have higher

self-esteem than students belong to lower socio economic status. Results indicated that students having higher family income have higher scores on Factor Loading Self Esteem scale. One of the reasons is may be that in this materialistic world, high socio economic status, money and the financial stability boost more confidence in oneself.

The fourth hypothesis was that students of management sciences have higher self-esteem than students of social sciences and humanities. Results accepted this hypothesis. The reason may be that students of management sciences have more concerned with marketing and for this purpose they have more planning and communicating skills. They have more task oriented activities.

The fifth hypothesis as that student of 3rd and 4th semesters has higher self-esteem than students of 1st, 2nd semesters. Results of the study also indicated that students of 7th and 8th semesters have higher self-esteem as compared to 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th semesters. The reason may be that students who are at the final semesters of their education, more focus on their future. They want to be more successful in their professional life.

Conclusions

On the basis of the results, following conclusions were drawn.

1. Students of private sector universities have higher self-esteem than students of public sector universities.
2. Overall male students have higher self-esteem than females but female students have higher scores on physical & social acceptance scale whereas, male students have higher score on self-acceptance, self-competence and academic competence.
3. Students from higher income families possess higher self-concept as compared with students with less income families.
4. Students of management sciences have higher self-esteem than students of social sciences and humanities.
5. Students of 3rd^h and 4th semesters have higher self-esteem than the students of 1st and 2nd semesters.

Recommendations

Present study explored various facts regarding the self-esteem of the university students. Findings of the study can help educational psychologists, planners, parents and administrators to introduce effective teaching strategies to enhance self-esteem of university students. Results indicated that students of public university have lower scores on self-esteem scale. So it is recommended that public universities may provide better educational facilities and more Opportunities for vocational and professional development of students. Government sector universities can introduce counseling and guidance services to their students so they may be able to boost their self-esteem.

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Result of present study showed that gender affects the self-esteem of students. So it is recommended that educational institutions may provide equal opportunities for male and female students. It is also recommended that educational institutions may provide moral education and different educational activities for both male and female students to eliminate the sense of deprivation.

Results indicated that students of social sciences and humanities have lower self-esteem than students of management sciences. So it is recommended that educational institutions may provide more task oriented activities to students of social sciences and humanities. Institutions may be developed professional skills related to their fields.

Present study showed that the level of family income also affects the self-esteem of university students. So, it is recommended that educational institutions may reduce the class difference among students by providing equal educational activities.

Results revealed that students of 3rd and 4th semesters have higher self-esteem than students of 1st and 2nd semesters. So, it is recommended that teachers may use motivational strategies at the beginning of the Master program to encourage the students to get involved in their studies. This will also help to heighten their self-esteem. It is recommended that students counseling & guidance services may be provided in all private sector educational institutions as well as in the government sector universities. It is recommended that university management may provide training to the teachers on how they can enhance the self-esteem level of their students.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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American Little Magazines of the 1920s and 1930s – An Introduction

Simon G. Bernabas, Ph.D.

Introduction

The purpose of this article is to give a brief introduction to American little magazines of the 1920's and 30s. In the broadest sense, most literary periodicals, including the literary/critical quarterly, are little magazines. Yet scholars who have made comprehensive studies of small magazines have assigned a more important and exalted status to the literary quarterly.

Little Magazines and Books

Little magazines play an important role in representing the literary-cultural characteristics of an age. True, books do reflect these peculiarities but quite often ideas enunciated in books find their early expression in magazines. Similarly, the creative expressions of an age come out through the pages of journals before they are collected and published in books. So it may be said that literary magazines published in any period can provide a fairly comprehensive picture of the creative and critical peculiarities of that time span. If this is true, the unique historical relevance of the

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American magazines published in the nineteen twenties and thirties cannot be overlooked, especially because they should contain the literary and artistic reflections of two of the momentous decades in the socio-cultural saga of that country. As it is well-known, if the twenties were characterized by the glitter of prosperity, the next decade, marked by poverty and desperation, exposed the corruption that underlay the American boom. The events of the decades should naturally receive the attention of the magazines of the time.

Aim

It is not easy for anyone to attempt a comprehensive study of the contents of all the little magazines published in America in the twenties and thirties and to estimate their roles in charting the history of the two decades. It should be added, however, that historical studies of major journals of the decades are available. The histories of T.S. Eliot's *Criterion* and the *New Republic* are two cases in point. This paper attempts to fulfill the modest objective of presenting a sketchy introduction to the little magazine movement that began in America around 1910 and extended till the end of the thirties.

While sketching the history of the movement during this period, an attempt has been made to list some of the important magazines published in the twenties and the thirties. In addition to this, various aspects pertaining to the production and circulation of small magazines are explained. Other aspects discussed include the function of these magazines, the roles of their editors, the problems they face during their publication and some of the prime causes of their suspension.

History and definitions

Frederick J. Hoffman, Charles Allen and Carolyn Ulrich, in their widely acclaimed book *The Little Magazine: A History and Bibliography* (1946:3), trace the origins of the term 'little magazine' to the years of World War I. They say that the adjective 'little' in the term does not signify the size or the contents of the magazines; nor does the epithet indicate the fact that little magazines generally do not pay their contributors. "What the word designated above everything else" is, Hoffman and his co-authors say, "a limited group of intelligent readers." The writers go

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on to say that “the word ‘little’ is vague and even unfairly derogatory.” The adjective, according to another writer, is applicable only to the “subscription lists” of the magazine (Anon: 424).

According to Paul Bixler (1946:553), a little magazine is meant for “a coterie or for an ‘in’ group or for its editors and contributors.” In his essay, “The Little Magazines: Portrait of an Age”, Frederick Hoffman (1943:3) has offered a clearer explanation of the meaning of the adjective ‘little’ in little magazines. He says: “They are ‘little’ because they enjoyed a limited circulation, were constantly handicapped by financial crisis and varying forms of indebtedness, relieved occasionally by the beneficence of a sympathizer who had money in his pockets.” In Edward J. O’Brien’s opinion (1933:21), the average little magazine has a circulation of anything from five hundred to thousand copies.

There are writers who feel that the phrase ‘avante-garde’ would have been a better substitute for ‘little’, but somehow the replacement has not taken place. ‘Avant-garde’, according to John Tebbel and Mary Zuckerman (1991:217), describes “the character of many of the personalities involved with the magazines.” These people include Ezra Pound, TS Eliot, William Carlos Williams, Norman Macleod, Eugene Jolas and many others. They “considered themselves leaders of Avante-garde, rebelling against conventional ways of writing and advocating unorthodox literary theories.”

The Definition of ‘Little’

Even though the origins, implications and suitability of the term ‘little’ have been explained, no attempt has been made so far in this article to define the two-word phrase ‘little magazine’. In fact, there is no dearth of definitions. When Felix Pollack (1978:49) was asked to define it briefly, he said: “If I would have to put it into one sentence, I would say that a magazine is much more than a small magazine that would like to be big.” Obviously, this definition is a little vague. Reed Whittermore’s definition (1963:5) is clearer. For him, “a little magazine is a serious magazine or a serious magazine is a little magazine.”

Perhaps the best definition of the term has been given in Hoffman, Allen and Ulrich's book (1946:2): "A little magazine is a magazine designed to print artistic work which for reasons of commercial expediency is not acceptable to the money-minded periodicals or press."

Little Magazines' Service

Hoffman's definition and a figurative definition of another writer (Munson: 1937:3) indicate that little magazines generally publish genuine creations of budding writers. Well-established magazines may not accept their contributions. Perhaps the most important service of little magazines, especially during the American modernist period, has been their relentless effort to promote the writings of new talented writers. Of course, many mediocre writers also got themselves published in them. About the contribution of last century's magazines, we read in the book by Hoffman and his friends (1946:1):

But one feature of twentieth century literary history must be noted; hundreds of writers have achieved-publication-- almost irrespective of their claims to merit or the significance of what they had to say. Since 1912 many of these persons have been published in the scores of literary magazines which have appeared and disappeared to the accompaniment of various forms of pretension, clamor and editorial oratory.

Magazines for Promoting Writers

The list of writers who have attained fame through little magazines is too long. They include James Joyce, T.S. Eliot, William Carlos Williams, Wallace Stevens and a host of others. Ezra Pound (1930:704), the doyen of literary Journalism, says: “There are plenty of people over forty who are willing to acknowledge that Mr. Joyce, Mr. Eliot, and the rest appeared... ten or fifteen years ago in small and allegedly eccentric magazines....”

In 1927, launching a magazine of his own, the *Exile*, Pound (1927:88) wrote: “In 1917 I presented a certain program of authors; in starting this new review I intend to present, or at least to examine the possibility of presenting an equally interesting line up.” What Roland E. Wolsely (1952:381) says about little magazine’s role in promoting literature, criticism and new writers and their works is also worth quoting:

Literary magazines have started movements, erected critical standards and founded schools of criticism, introduced new writers, maintained the following of older ones, and provided an outlet for work not marketable to the public through general or consumer magazines.

In fact one of the aims of these magazines of the early decades of the twentieth century was to set new writers against the middle generation American writers like Theodore Dreiser, Sinclair Lewis and Willa Cather (Marianne Moore, 1951:23). About eighty per cent of the post-1912 writers were introduced to the literary world by little magazines.

Harriet Monroe’s *Poetry*

The year 1912 is significant in the history of American literary journalism. It was in that year Harriet Monroe started her magazine, *Poetry: A Magazine of Verse*. Although the beginnings of a renaissance in the founding American little magazines could be traced back to 1910, it was the

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launching of *Poetry* that formerly inaugurated the revival. This is not to say that little magazines (commercial magazines are excluded) did not exist before 1910. Historians of literary journalism treat the *Dial* (1840-1844), edited by Margaret Fuller and Ralph Waldo Emerson, as the parent version of American little magazines. Even though contributors to the magazine included HD Thoreau, William Channing, Theodore Parker and Emerson himself, its circulation never went beyond three hundred copies. It was truly a little magazine. The magazine that followed the *Dial* was Henry Clapp's *Saturday Press*, published between 1858 and 1866. Then there was no significant little magazine in America till the 1890's. In that decade, however, three magazines flourished briefly: *Chicago Chap Book*, *Lark* and *M'lle New York*. Again, there was an interval until 1910. Ezra Pound (1930:689) has qualified these pre-1910 little magazines as "better magazines" although he complained that they "had failed lamentably and even offensively to maintain intellectual life."

Miss Monroe's starting a little magazine for poetry was indeed a historic event because in those days poetry was not treated as a branch of literary art. By 1919, in her own magazine, she wrote about a renaissance that was going on in America then. Indirectly she patted herself for bringing about the revival. That year the Pulitzer Prize for poetry went to Carl Sandburg and Margaret Widdemer, both of whom were contributors to Miss Monroe's magazine. Monroe (1919:262-63) pointed out that when John Pulitzer died in 1911, he had not mentioned poetry in his will even though he had set apart some money "for everything else under the sun." Miss Monroe (1919:262) adds that at the time of Pulitzer's death "poetry was so negligible and neglected that he did not recognize its existence as a modern art."

Miss Monroe had to face many challenges when she founded *Poetry*. They were severe during the first seven years. One of them was the birth of other new magazines but she and her colleagues welcomed it "on the principle of more the merrier-- for the field is large and no one magazine can gather all the harvest." (Ibid, 263) The supercilious attitude of the new magazines to *Poetry* was another challenge. A more serious threat was the scorn of the so called poetry critics. They believed that they were "quite competent to denounce all the poets of this century."

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(Ibid, 265) Despite these challenges, she diligently nurtured her magazine maintaining a tolerant and optimistic attitude to others (Ibid, 264-65).

Miss Monroe had an eclectic taste. Consequently, her selection of poems included both good and bad ones. But this does not mean that she was careless. Rather, according to Horace Gregory (1937:198), she could see “a definite relationship of the verse to the time in which it was written, either in the career of a given poet or in the movement represented.” One of her criteria of selection was that a poem should be interesting. Right from the beginning she had decided that she and her fellow editors should “keep free of entangling alliances with any single class or school.”(Whittermore, 1963:8). This decision was a consequence of her mixed taste. Similarly, she was not much concerned about the European or international critical principles. Whittermore believes that *Poetry* has had a long life because Miss Monroe set the trend of publishing a lot of ordinary budding poets. This indicated that it lacked snobbishness. Despite his objections to her poetic ideas and editorial policies, Pound had only good things to say about Miss Monroe when she died after editing her magazine for nearly twenty five years:

During the twenty four years of editorship
perhaps three periodicals made a brilliant record,
perhaps five periodicals, but they were all under the
sod in the autumn of 1936, and no other publication
[except *Poetry*] has existed in America where any writer
of poetry could more honorably place his writings.
This was true in 1911. It is true as
I write this. (H.Gregory, 1937:199)

Miss Monroe’s magazine encouraged many to launch their own little magazines. Thus, just a year after the founding of *Poetry*, Alfred Kreymborg started his monthly *Glebe*. However, he had to suspend it the next year. Again, in 1914 itself, he founded *Others*, a magazine for poetry (Hoffman, et al, 1946:44-51). The aim of starting this, says Charles Allen (1944:420), was “to experiment with new structures and free verse rhythms and...other radical experiments.” Kreymborg thought that through *Others*, the “relatively unknown poets [such as Marianne Moore, Wallace Stevens and William Carlos Williams] might become more widely accepted.”

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But this magazine also met with premature death. In 1921, with the help of Harold Loeb, Kreymborg founded *Broom*. Again, in 1927, he helped the launching of the *American Caravan*. Another important personal magazine was Margaret Anderson's *Little Review*, which was started in 1914. This list of magazines, launched under the influence of *Poetry*, could be extended further. Although the renaissance in the little magazine movement began in America in 1912, nobody can say for sure how many magazines have come and gone since then. In the early 1960's the University of Wisconsin had 716 titles in its Marvin Sukov Collection.

American Magazines of the Twenties

In American history, the twenties is generally treated as a decade of rebellion, a decade of the 'lost generation.' The revolt, according to Malcolm Cowley (1947:5, 35), found a reflection in the little magazines of the period. They stood apart from the main currents of American life and printed writers of rebellious factions. Further, they were "almost aggressively non-political" and "informal." One of the striking features of the magazines of the twenties was that they did not have any serious connection with the academic world, especially with universities and colleges. This meant that the small magazines were not funded by or published from such institutions.

The artists who exiled themselves to the Greenwich Village founded a number of magazines, many of which died with just one issue. However, some serious modernist magazines like the *Dial*, published in the twenties by Scofield Thayer and James Watson Jr., also existed. Quite a few of the little magazines of the decade were devoted to poetry. In 1919, in Miss Monroe's *Poetry*, Richard Aldington (1919:267-68) listed the ideal qualities of the typical poem of the twenties. He wanted it to be "aristocratic", emphasizing freedom and equality. The new poetry had to "be the expression of distinguished minds in a distinguished manner." Further, Aldington wished the poetry of the decade to be human, competent, individualistic and sincere. He also hoped that the new poetry would "develop along the lines which it has taken in the past few years."

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In the twenties, little magazines were a blessing for the “esthetically unemployable” young men whose lives were shaped by the First World War. Some of them were poets who did not seem to belong to the lost generation. As Hoffman (1943:4) says, “These young writers were not so much the ‘lost generation’ as they were a generation yet unborn, enjoying a most amazingly vigorous pre-natal life. They were to inaugurate that immensely stimulating period of American and English letters known simply as ‘the twenties.’ ” Julian Friend (M.Moore,1951: 12), himself a participant in the First World War, liked to qualify the writers of the twenties (including himself) as members of “ ‘ the found generation’ since we coolly and arrogantly assumed the task of leading literary expression towards something new and vital.”

American Magazines of the Thirties

In terms of their contents, the little magazines of the thirties differed from those of the twenties and the former’s number increased considerably in the decade. According to Robert Cantwell (1934:295), until 1932 there were only a dozen magazines in the US. But between 1932 and 1934, their number was anywhere between fifty and a hundred. It was difficult to give the exact number: “It is hard to place the figure more accurately than that, for the number is constantly changing-- a good many disappear after an issue or two, and new ones are started.”

The thirties being the Red decade, many of the American magazines carried revolutionary contents. This is not to say that there were no non-partisan little magazines. Cantwell says that the magazines of the decade ranged from the old fashioned art-for-art’s sake journals to overtly reactionary periodicals. However, these varied publications had certain common features. Cantwell goes on: “...in most of them the emphasis is on prose, on the short story; there is little poetry, of which only a fraction is memorable; their critical contributions, except for those in the revolutionary magazines, are negligible. A good part of their fiction is of the sort that is usually called promising....”

The major leftist magazines of the decade included *Blast*, the *Anvil*, the *Monthly Review*, the *New Quarterly*, the *Partisan Review*, *Left Front*, the [New] *Masses* and *Left Review*. Many writers of this period have praised these periodicals. Thus, while reviewing four such magazines in 1934, Waldo Teague (1934:61) said: “All of them are slim ... but within their limited space appear more advanced contributions to revolutionary fiction and poetry than have appeared in any American magazine for a long time.”

It is unwise, however, to think that the magazines published during 1912-1930 were not revolutionary. They, too, had a distinctly radical function to perform. According to Hoffman, the magazine of this period brought to fame the revolutionary ideas of Sigmund Freud, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Frederick Nietzsche and Karl Marx. Even though the ideas of these thinkers were available in their books, Hoffman (1943:3) says, “it is only through reading the pages of the little magazines that one gains a real understanding of the *manner* in which these ideas were assimilated and reshaped to meet the requirements of our own age.”

Little Magazines versus Commercial Magazines

In Hoffman’s definition of the little magazine, one finds a distinction being suggested between the literary magazine and the “money minded”/commercial magazines. Commercial magazines are slow to acknowledge new writers and their innovative writings. Michael Anania (1998:10) says: “Little magazines have always functioned primarily for writers.... At their best, little magazines draw together groups of writers and, however marginally, find them an audience. In contrast, commercial magazines find audiences and financial support and then, almost incidentally, find their writers.” The latter welcome novices only when they are rejected by standard literary periodicals as ‘useful’ commercial writers. It is observed that only twenty per cent of the post-1912 writers were sponsored or discovered by commercial magazines.

Such magazines, Hoffman and his co-authors (1946:3) say, have not done anything “to initiate the new literary groups.” Their only ‘positive’ feature is that “they have ultimately accepted any

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author, no matter how experimental, after he has been talked about for a period of years--sometimes a good many years.” Commercial magazines are generally considered as rear guard magazines

Big and commercial magazines are controlled by advertisers. The advertisers can accept or reject items received at the magazine’s office. While big magazines flourish with the backing of their advertisers, little magazines carry “no advertising or only a minimal amount.” (M Olson, 1978:37-38).

It is true that big magazines sometimes publish “good stuff, but it is safe stuff. It is the stuff that is already recognized as good. “Little magazines, on the other hand, may often publish trash which is detestable to the big ones. However, “there’s always the chance that something exciting will happen in little magazines that cannot happen in big.”

Production and Publication

The production and publication of little magazines is a profitless endeavor. Obviously, therefore, their production cannot involve a lot of money. Sometimes, they receive the financial assistance of patrons. However, seeking the support of patrons does not always contribute to a magazine’s healthy existence.

Gorham B. Munson (1937:3-4), an experienced editor of little magazines, feels that quite often patrons have a power complex which forces the editor to accept their conditions. Obviously, this exertion of work can affect the independence of the magazine: “For if the little review is not free, it is nothing, and freedom is polluted at the source if money is to exert an influence on editorial policy. Unconditional patronage is the *sine quanon* of the only kind of success open to the little magazine. . . .” However, it is difficult to find such patrons who have no conditions to set forth. Relying on his own experience, Munson says that a little magazine can be launched with just twenty dollars. In order to continue its publication the editor needs “Real Credit”, by which

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Munson means “determination – grit – guts.” Munson’s advice to prospective editors is: “If you want a little review of your own, launch it. You will not be able to see your way ahead, but you have voluntarily assumed responsibilities. You have made a draft on your Real Credit which is your pluck-- and you will acquire somehow what you require.” If a magazine has to be published without much cost, then the editor has to do most of the work involved in its publication.

Munson advises editors not to mimeograph their magazines because mimeographing will engender “resistance in the reader; he cannot escape the feeling that he is perusing an amateurish makeshift.” What Munson suggests, instead, is to buy a cheap printer and use cheap paper. The defect of this cheapness can be overcome with neatness of format and readability of the text. The page should not look cramped. Munson cites *Little Review* as an example for an inexpensively and neatly produced magazine.

Functions

Little magazines have certain useful functions to perform. The most basic and obvious roles are: One, it is generally through little magazines that new writers rebel against traditional modes of literary expressions and introduce new techniques and practices. Two, they boldly familiarize the literary world with those writings which will be rejected by cheap brash commercial magazines. Apart from these two, there are other functions as well. All literary traditions have gone through fresh movements. The complex history of these movements could be found in little magazines.

A movement before it gains acceptance has to brave criticisms and look for sympathies. The history of such mixed evaluations is generally found in little magazines. In a way it is the magazines which determine the ultimate success and failure of literary movements. John Crowe Ransom (1946:551) says: “Many of the shifts of literature prove to have been misguided, and have to be painfully and almost completely retraced after their initial frenzy, and it is as much to the credit of the little magazines to have resisted these as to have gone along with happier movements.”

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Morton D. Zabel (1929:332-33) also has described the role of little magazines in tracing “the ebb and the flow of ideas and literary manner.” He has pointed out how they help in arranging literary history into periods: “Without them the annals of literature would be duller, and certainly more difficult to compile.”

Editor’s Role

The functions of little magazines just listed suggest very well the importance and difficult responsibilities of their editors. Magazines can lose their direction if editors are not carefully innovative and adventurous. In fact, the editor of and contributors to little magazines share certain common attitudes. They bear within themselves a sense of dissatisfaction which forces them to consider the literary world and publishers of their times boring, ridiculous and even nonsensical; they may be contemptuous of the whole publishing world. The contributor who is an aspirant after fame may even revolt against all kinds of orthodox taste, and argue that the general attitude to literature should change and be more liberal. Sometimes he will insist “that publication should not depend upon the whimsy of conventional tastes and choices.”(Hoffman, et al: 4) Many of these assertions of the contributors can be the editors’ as well.

Gorham B. Munson (1937:4) believes that the editor of a typical magazine should perform the duties of office boy, typist, file clerk, book keeper, advertising manager, business manager, art director, sub-editor, collector of revenue, and editor. No matter whether the magazine belongs to a single person or a group, a “one-man control of the editorial policy is always the best.”

The editors sometimes show an urgency to fulfill their mission in their magazines. The mission is the expression of their own personalities and ideas. They feel the urgency because of the knowledge that their magazines could be short-lived. Consequently, their ideas find immediate expression in their editorials. An editorial can be generous, expressing the mutually shared views with the editor and his ‘kindred spirit’ or, it can also be a piece that sparks off serious

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discussions. It can be a pronouncement of some political or literary school which uses a magazine as its voice. Some editorials bear the stamp of their authors' spirit of freedom and their desire to be frank and shocking; they may also reveal the editors' eagerness to contradict what is unpleasantly traditional and reflect their impetuous but intense desire to subvert the literary assumptions of their times.

While the editor's standards are ultimate, Munson (1937:4) says, he should not interfere with the contributors' freedom to choose their own means to attain their standards. "The editor of a little review" freedom, he asserts, "never edits or rewrites his contributor's work. For the editor of a little magazine censorship does not exist." Julian Friend also means more or less the same when he says that "editors do not create literature, they try with what light they possess to give the best available material a hearing." (M Moore, 1951:17).

Types of Little Magazines

Scholars engaged in the study of literary journalism have classified little magazines under different heads. The classifications vary from scholar to scholar (RA Wolseley: 1950; J Tebbel and Zuckerman: 1991). While some categorizations are too narrow, others are usefully broad. However, a perfect grouping is not always possible because the features of various types can overlap. Hoffman, Allen and Ulrich have classified little magazines under six categories. Their illustrative examples are American magazines of the few first decades of the last century.

The first type of little magazines is poetry magazines. As their name indicates they are magazines whose content is poetry. Magazines like *Poetry*, the *Poetry Journal*, *Contemporary Verse*, the *Fugitive* and the *Measure* are examples of early 20th century poetry magazines.

The second variety of little magazines comprises leftist magazines. The socialist journal called *Masses* was the first important American magazine to express the literary feelings and ideas of the left wing writers. It played an important role in shaping the proletarian spirit of many writers

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of the thirties. Other chief leftist journals included the *Liberator* and the *Partisan Review*. Many short-lived magazines like the *Anvil*, *Blast*, the *Monthly Review*, *Left Front* and the *Windsor Quarterly* also had leftist leanings.

Regional magazines constitute the third class of little magazines. Until 1915 the literary activists of American Midwest had been controlled and directed by the publishing house of the east. Thus the artist of the Midwest had either to propagate the pre-conceived notions about his region or to caricature it for the amusement of the east. But in 1915 John T. Frederick started a magazine called *Midland* from Iowa and it faithfully voiced the artist's feelings about the Midwest. The journal's interest in the distinct cultural identity of the region led to the publication of similar magazines in the same region and also in the South West and the Far West. The names of such magazines as the *Frontier*, the *Texas Review*, the *Southwest Review* and the *Prairie Schooner* may be remembered in this context.

The fourth kind of little magazines is named experimental or advance guard journals. These magazines have outnumbered the others over the years. Their interest in experimentalism was responsible for the introduction of such literary movements as Imagism, Dadaism and Surrealism. These periodicals encouraged technically radical writers who broke away from conventional realism or naturalism. Of the many magazines of this kind, the following are some of the important ones: the *Little Review*, *Broom*, *Secession*, the *Reviewer*, the *Double Dealer*, *This Quarter* and *Transition*.

The fifth type of little magazines, critical magazines, mainly focuses on criticism and reviews. However, a small part of them will contain fiction and poetry. Three magazines-- the *Dial*, the *Hound and Horn* and the *Symposium*-- form a representative group of critical journals. In the twenties and thirties, critics like T.S. Eliot, J.C Ransom, R.P. Blackmur, Allen Tate, Yvor Winters and many others were regular contributors to critical magazines. Eliot had his own critical review, the *Criterion*.

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The last variety of little magazines is eclectic magazines. The 'eclectics' support and publish creations representing all literary currents but generally they contain "straight, realistic writing" with "more or less conventional structural patterns". They may be treated as the spiritual descendants of commercial magazines like the *Smart Set* and the *Seven Arts*. The eclectics' connection with university campuses is well-known and "they often reflect the tastes and preoccupations of the universe community in which they originate."(Hoffman, et al: 9) Magazines like *American Prefaces* (University of Iowa) and *Diogenes* (University of Wisconsin) are examples of eclectics.

Death of Magazines: Causes

Although little magazines perform some daring and vital literary and critical functions, their existence and success in the face of odds have always been precarious. Most literary periodicals have a short life. Some of them die with the publication of a single issue. Sometimes magazines die a natural death, but sometimes they are 'killed'. In short, the publisher of a non-funded magazine can be sure of one thing: his magazine will be short-lived (of course, there are exceptions). The mushrooming of all journals, however, makes up of many premature deaths. One cannot say that the fated collapse of little magazines is avertable. Many factors are involved in their discontinuation.

One of the frequent causes is the lack of money. Thus, for instance, Kreymborg's *Others* and many others' magazines were suspended because of inadequate finance. Many leading writers of the past have made desperate efforts to keep magazines alive. Thus, Kreymborg, Ezra Pound, and William Carlos Williams are considered as "the patron saints of the little magazine movement."(C Allen 1944: 418)

A second reason is the weakening of editors' initial interest. The enthusiasm they show at the time of founding their magazines can wane as time passes on; they become lazy. The loss of the novelty of ideas which magazines like to express may be cited as a third reason. As Morton

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Zabel (1929: 333) says, “It is very easy for a periodical to assist in the establishment of new ideas to such a degree as to make these ideas, and at the same time itself, conventional, and these processes usually result in its undoing.” The editors and contributors’ tendency to ignore the ordinary and legitimate demands of the publishing world can also cause the death of a magazine. Similarly, contributors can sometimes contribute to the discontinuation of periodicals. Since they do not receive any remuneration for their toil, they may withdraw their support, especially when they have won a name for themselves. A reason that Roland E. Wolseley (1950: 65,70) mentions is that little magazines “are established by inexperienced magazinists.” Consequently, magazines’ excessive interest in their freedom and experimentation can prove fatal:

But the magazines, being free in spirit if not independent financially, often gives room to freakish ideas and to ridiculous experimentation. Or so it seems to those who may not understand streams-of-consciousness short stories, surrealist drawings, and automatic (guided by the sub-conscious mind) writing. Poor works also creep in under the guise of experiment; this ,however, is one of the prices of freedom.

Readers will not take too long to identify the good from the bad. The identification of poor stuff can cause the death of a magazine.

Sometimes editors feel that their magazines have fulfilled the aims for which they had been launched. And then it is not difficult for the editors to kill them. Frustration and exhaustion can also prompt editors to allow magazines to die. Michael Anania (1990: 10) says that editors feel the sense of accomplishment if they are working “for magazines with a closely defined literary point of view and a tightly knit group of writers.” There are other factors, too, which can bring about the death of the magazines. John Crowe Ransom (1946: 551) feels that magazines could be suspended if they have nothing important to do. He does not think their discontinuation would have any adverse impact. He adds: “For even the good little magazines do not live long, and we

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are quite habituated to the fact. When the editorial impulse is spent it seems altogether a mistaken piety to try to ‘keep the magazine alive’, as if there were a virtue in their business.”

Conclusion

Little magazines continue to play most of the roles described above. In the recent years their number has been on the rise and many of them judiciously introduce new writers and their works to the literary world. With literature and criticism becoming more and more specialized, the relevance of little magazines is widely recognized.

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LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 12 : 1 January 2012

ISSN 1930-2940

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Language Learning - Second Language Acquisition

Smita Jha, M.A., Ph.D., PGDTE

Relationship between Theories of Second Language Acquisition and General Linguistic Theories

The theories of Second Language Acquisition have traditionally been the offspring of general linguistic theory, sometimes supplemented by insights from psychology. Our interest in the language-learning process has significance both for general linguistic theory and language-teaching practice. General linguistic theory may have its own importance, but it is language learning which provides the litmus test for the worth and value of all theories of language.

The linguists as well as the psychologists are interested in discovering what is universal in language and what general laws govern our acquisition of language. The area of discussion is largely the learning of the mother tongue, but the moot point is: if there are

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general language-learning principles involved, then they cannot also be without relevance to foreign-language learning as well.

The basic thing that requires serious and sustained consideration is whether or not language-teaching procedures be based on general theories of language acquisition. These theories, by and large, suggest that the individuals are essentially “the same” in their language-learning capacities; nevertheless, teachers are probably conscious of the diversity of language-learning abilities that their pupils display.

General Theories of Language Acquisition

1. Behaviorism

This is a general language-learning principle which enunciates that there is no difference between the way one learns a language and the way one learns to do anything else. The behaviorists are committed to admitting as evidence only that which they can observe, so that their data are the utterances that the people make and the conditions under which they are made. This may also be viewed as the Stimulus-Response phenomenon, the stimulus, to which the utterance forms a ‘response’, being physically present in the situation.

Reinforcement does also play an important part in the case of behaviorism, particularly with regard to a child when he /she gets approval from his/her parents. Wilkins says about behaviorism that in this case ‘learning is controlled by the conditions under which it takes place’, that ‘as long as individuals are subjected to the same conditions, they will learn in the same way’, that a ‘physical need in the child may be as a result of his utterance, that parental approval ‘acts as a powerful reinforce’, that the ‘notion of repetition is therefore extremely important’, and that it is ‘the making of the response that is the learning process’.

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2. Mentalism

Mentalism, we find, goes against behaviorism almost wholesale, point by point. According to the mentalists, people learn a language, 'not because they are subjected to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits them to acquire a language as a normal maturational process'. Language, they argue to say, is a very complex form of behavior, and perhaps can hardly be learnt in terms of external stimuli. In the view of these people, a learner has to be adequately exposed to the target language.

3. Language Environment

Language environment is something that the learner hears and sees in the new language. It may include a wide variety of situations as available in or through stories, conversation with friends, watching television, or books. There are two kinds of language environment: **Macro-Environment** and **Micro-Environment**.

4. Macro Environment

When the focus of the learner or speaker is on the form of the language, then the language environment is formal. The formal language environment focuses on a conscious learning of rules and forms. However, when the focus is on the content of communication, then the language environment is natural. The natural language environment seeks to enhance the development of communication skills in both the foreign and host situations. There are three types of communication in which the learner participates: **One way, restricted two ways, and full two ways.**

One –Way Communication

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The learner listens to or reads the target language, but does not respond. The communication is one way; it is towards the learner, and not from him or her.

Restricted Two-way Communication

The learner responds orally to someone, but he/she does not completely use the target language.

Full Two-way Communication

The learner is both a receiver and a sender of messages. Most of the research works emphasize the usefulness of one-way and restricted two-way communication during the early periods of learning process.

5. Micro-Environment

While the macro –environmental factors are the broad, general characteristics of the language environment, micro-environmental factors point to the specific structure of the language the learner hears or sees: e.g., the induction of yes/no questions into the learners’ environment. Three micro-environmental factors have been identified from the perspective of their effect on the quality and pace of language acquisition. These are **Saliency, Feedback and Frequency**.

Saliency

It refers to the ease with which a structure is heard or seen. As for example, people can hear or see the English article the more easily than the past tense ending-ed as in talked. Psychologists have defined saliency by referring to those characteristics which seem to

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make an item visually or by hearing more prominent than others. Such characteristics, besides others, do also include phonetic substance. In the sentence, She does not want anything, does not and want receive greater salience or prominence than she or anything.

Feedback

It points to the listeners' or readers' response to the teachers' speech or writing. One kind of feedback is correction; another is approval which is also known as positive feedback. Still another kind of feedback consists in expanding or modifying the learners' speech without making them unduly conscious of modification. This is known as expansion correction.

Frequency

In the language-acquisition procedure frequency refers to the number of times a learner hears or sees a given structure. The typical example in this regard is the recurrence of Wh- questions involving What, Who, Which, Where, Whose and Whence. The count of such questions could be considered as the basis of generally been assumed that the more a learner tries to acquire a structure, the sooner would he/ she learn the language.

Micro-environmental factors have their impact on second language learning only when the learners have reached a certain level in their L2 development, the level at which they are in a position to internalize a given structure, the salience or frequency of the structure may increase the probability that would closely and steadily notice the structure and acquire it.

6. Internal Processing

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Language learning, essentially speaking, occurs or materializes in the mind of the learners, where mental structure or mechanism process and organizes the language to which they are exposed. A systematic study of the discrepancies between the language that the learners produce and the language they hear or read provide the basis from which we can infer the attributes of an otherwise invisible mental structure. Researches in the concerned area suggest that three internal processing factors play a substantial role in second language acquisition: **Filter, organizer and monitor.**

Filter

It is that part of the internal processing system which subconsciously screens incoming language based on what the psychologists call affect. It conditions the learners' native needs, attitudes and emotional states. Filter is the first main hurdle that the incoming language data have to encounter before they are processed further. It determines.

(i) Which target language models will the learners select; (ii) Which part of the language will be attended to first; (iii) How fast can a learner acquire language, and (IV) when should language-acquisition efforts cease.

Organizer

It subconsciously processes data which the filter lets in. It is chiefly concerned with the learners' ability to organize gradually the new language system. Its subconscious functioning is cognitive in nature. The functioning of the organizer may be seen in terms of (i) the systematic progression of changes in the interim or transitional constructions the learners use before a structure is finally acquired; (ii) the errors that systematically occur in the learners' speech, and (iii) the common order in which mature structures are learnt.

An analysis of these aspects of the learners' participation in L2 System reveals different facets of the operation of the inner processing that governs the acquisition of language.

Monitor

It is that part of the learner's internal system which controls conscious linguistic processing. As and when conscious linguistic processing takes place, the learners may be said to be using the monitor. When a learner performs a drill, it requires conscious attention to linguistic form; when he memorizes a dialogue, conscious processing is inevitably taking place, and monitor is being used.

The degree to which monitor is used or may be used depends on at least (i) the learner's age; (ii) the amount and quality of formal instruction; (iii) the focus on verbal task, and (iv) the personality of the learner.

7. Language Processing Mechanism

Within the some language environment, the learners have mostly the same language-processing mechanism, and yet there are some learners who learn second language better and faster than others. It is, therefore, proper to identify those individual factors that affect a learner in acquiring a language.

Personality

It signifies an aggregate of traits or characteristics of a particular individual. One has to see or perceive whether an individual is an extrovert or introvert, impulsive or reflective, authoritarian or submissive, intelligent or dull. These and several other similar qualities constitute and reveal an individual's personality. The operation of personality is quite evident and crucial in second language learning. Those who have done research work on

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personality in relation to language learning do also include such aspects as those of the level of self-confidence, ability to emphasize, and the degree of logicity or the power to analyze.

Empathy

The dictionary meaning of the word “empathy” is so plain and clear, and yet so telling: it is ‘the ability to share someone else’s feelings or experiences’ or ‘the capacity for participating in another’s feelings or ideas. It has been pointed out that one might expect a strong relationship between an individual’s capacity for empathy and his or her L2 performance. It is unlikely, though, that someone’s ‘capacity for participation in another’s feelings or ideas’ would be measured in linguistic manipulation tasks; nevertheless, if empathy is an important factor in L2 learning, then it is likely that empathy would manifest itself in the development of communication skills which enable participation in another’s feelings and ideas for more effectively than linguistic manipulation.

Age

The belief that children are better at language acquisition than adults is supported by scientists. Children who acquire second language in natural environment learn better than adults. Adults may do better on this regard initially, but in the long run children do always surpass them. Children under ten experience enough natural communication in the target language and do always succeed in attaining native-like proficiency, while those over fifteen find it difficult to be able to do so. Various concerned studies confirm this very view, saying that children may not learn second language faster than adults, but they do learn better.

A number of suggestions have been made regarding the nature and causes of child-adult difference in respect of second language acquisition. However, no single suggestion is adequate for explaining the difference between the child and the adult in learning the second language. The first suggestion involved in this connection is *biological*: whether or not the child and adult brains are fundamentally different, and whether or not the differences, if any, do really operate.

In his book, *Biological Foundations of Language*, E.H.Lenneberg says that the development of specialization of functions on the left and right sides of the brain begins in childhood and is completed by puberty. Puberty marks the time when automatic acquisition from mere exposures to a given language seems to disappear. This is so because, after puberty, the left and right hemispheres of the brain develop specialized functions, and the organizer ceases to build up a new language system subconsciously. That is why, Lenneberg says that the transfer of language functions from one part of the brain to another is related to the plasticity that is required for learning a language naturally and completely. However, in his book, *The Language and Thought of the Child*, J. Piaget maintains that in spite of all child-adult differences in respect of language-learning operation, the adults' cognitive superiority should eventually place them better than children in language-learning process.

Interference and Transfer

The first language has often been considered to be the cause of major problems in the course of learning a second language. However, of late L1 (First language) is not usually looked upon as an annoying interference in a learner's efforts to acquire L2 (second language). According to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, the automatic transfer of L1 structure to L2 performance leads to positive results when the two structures are the same. Negative transfer results in error, while positive transfer results in correct

construction. Such negative or positive results are due to the influence of L1 habits on L2 production. For example:

Aage Chalo - Forward go, instead of Go Forward.

Mera naam A hai - My name is A. This is an example of correct transfer.

Interference refers to a distinct linguistic phenomenon. Psychological interference refers to the influence of old habits on the new ones that are being learned. Sociolinguistic inference takes, us to language interactions, to linguistic borrowings and shifts that occur when different language communities are in contact. The behaviorists who first defined transfer say that, technically speaking, transfer is a process involving an automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious use of learned linguistic behavior in the attempt to produce new response.

Interlanguage

It is not infrequently that the term *interlanguage* is used to suggest the intermediate stages observable in the learners' language between the native and the target language. The assumption is that there are psychological structures latent in the brain, which is activated when one attempts to learn a second language. It is this stimulus that produces interlanguage, a language system different from that of L1 and of L2.

Moreover, five aspects of interlanguage performance are also mentioned. These are (i) language transfer, (ii) transfer of training, (iii) strategies of learning, (iv) strategies of communication, and (v) overgeneralization of target language materials. This is referred to as Interlanguage Approximate System. This is spoken of at times also Approximate Syllabus. This term has the advantage of implying or pointing to the developmental nature of language learning. The learners' system keeps on being modified as new

elements are incorporated into the learning process. This developing system of language learning becomes evident in terms of the learners' errors.

Errors

The errors committed by L2 learners are important for a proper understanding of the process of second language acquisition and also for planning courses. A Contrastive study of contact languages may be fragmentary and, so, inadequate, and our attention is thus necessarily drawn to those sources of error which are independent of L2. The factors responsible for or causing these errors are (i) learning strategy, (ii) teaching technique, (iii) folklore in L2, (iv) period over which L2 has been used by the speech community, and (v) the learners' sociolinguistic situation. There seems to be a system in the learners' error, and this system does have its own significance.

Influence of L1

It is believed that Second Language Acquisition is strongly influenced by the learners' L1. The most obvious evidence in this regard is the accent of the speaker. The L1 utterance does also affect other aspects or levels, including syntax and morphology. It is believed as well that the role of L1 in second language acquisition is a negative one, i.e., L1 gets in the way of or interferes with the learning of L2 in such a way that the features of L1 are transferred to L2.

Really speaking, learning L2 means overcoming the effect of L1 and steadily replacing those features of L1 that intrude into L2 with the characteristic features of L2.

According to the behaviorist learning theory, old habits stand in the way of acquiring new habits. The grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind for the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second. The notion of interference has its

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own centrality in the behaviorist account of L2. Interference results in proactive inhibitions, and in order to be able to develop new linguistic habits, the learner has to overcome these inhibitions.

8. Theories of Second Language Acquisition

There are several theories relating, in particular, to second language acquisition, and these theories do have their own importance in the field of research. In fact, they reflect a variety of perspectives with regard to second language acquisition. These theories are (i) the Acculturation Model (closely associated with the Nativization model); (ii) Accommodation theory; (iii) Discourse theory; (iv) Monitor theory; (v) the Variable Competence Model, (vi) the Universal Hypothesis, and (vii) the Neurofunction theory.

These theories are briefly described below to help understand the real aim of these theories as well the role of the second language acquisition research:

- (a) Second Language Acquisition research may be described as a search for an appropriate level of description of the learners' system of rules. The main goal is description, i.e., characterization of the linguistic categories which constitute the learners' interlanguage at any point of development.
- (b) It seeks what really motivates the learner to learn and what causes him to stop learning.
- (c) A reference is made to two types of Second Language Acquisition--- Assembly Mechanism and Power Mechanism. The difference is important because some theories focus on how, while others on why. It is only a comprehensive theory that would explain both Assembly Mechanism and Power Mechanism.
- (d) Two approaches to the theory of building are mentioned: (i) Theory then Research and (ii) Research then Theory.

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The theory-then-research

The theory-then-research approach involves four stages:

- (i) developing an explicit theory;
- (ii) describing a testable prediction from the theory;
- (iii) conducting research to test prediction; and
- (iv) testing the new prediction if the first prediction is confirmed.

The research-then-theory

The research-then-theory approach has **four** stages:

- (i) selecting a phenomenon for investigation;
- (ii) measuring its characteristics;
- (iii) Collecting data to look for systematic patterns, and
- (iv) Formalizing significant patterns as results.

9. Discourse Analysis

One has to look at discourse in order to be able to study how language learning evolves out of the strategies used to carry on conversation. The type of conversation depends on who the learner is: Child or Adult.

Discourse (L2)	
Child learner	Adult learner
Prolonged discourse is difficult	the need of the learner here and now, i.e., to be able to make a request

Discourse analysis considers the teachers' as well as the learners' contribution. It describes not just the function of separate or isolated utterances but also the utterances combined for larger discourse units. A three-phase discourse consists of exchanges between the teacher and the student in the course of which the former initiates and supplies the feedback, while the latter responds. For example:

Teacher: Is the clock there on the wall?

Student: Yes.

Teacher: Good, the clock is there on the wall.

10. Classroom Interaction

It is both pertinent and useful to consider the kinds of classroom interaction. The three basic kinds of pedagogic goals are:

- (i) Core goal: It points to the explicit pedagogic purpose of the classroom.
- (ii) Framework goal: It focuses on the organization requirements of the lesson.
- (iii) Social goal: It involves the use of language for more than personal purposes.

Second Language acquisition follows a route in syntactical development. Native speakers adjust their speech in order to negotiate meaning with non- native speakers. The conversation strategy influences the pace and route of second language acquisition in a number of ways. Conversation, articulate conversation, is at the very centre of second language acquisition.

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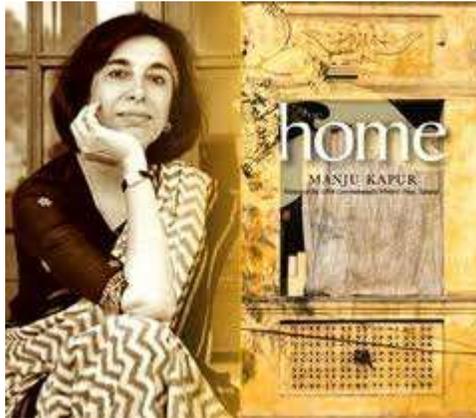
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Volume 12 : 1 January 2012
ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.
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Feminism in India and Manju Kapur's Fiction

Sushila Chaudhary, M.A.
Usha Sharma, M.A.



Manju Kapur

Defining Feminism

Feminism is the belief that all people should be treated equally in legal, economic and social arenas- regardless of gender, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity and other similar pre-dominant identifying traits. Feminism includes the idea that a person's gender does not define who they are or their worth; that being a woman (or a man) should not put a person at an overall- and especially institutionalized- disadvantage.

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Feminism as a social movement sought to redress the imbalance in society by providing women with same rights and opportunities as men, in order to be able to take their rightful place in the world. After the feminist re-awakening in the 1970's feminist began to realize that equal rights alone cannot free women from sexual and social subordination. Intellectual starvation, economic expression, commercial exploitation, domestic domination, physical abuse, sexual harassment and lack of personal freedom continued to affect the lives of women in spite of laws to the contrary. Hence, Western feminist writers and critics were forced to re-analyze and re-access the socio-cultural setup looking for clues to explain the mechanism of patriarchy that contrived to keep women eternally subjugated.

The Focus of This Paper

The paper "Feminism in India and the Fiction of Manju Kapur" involves a basic definition of feminism and what it means in the Indian context. It specifies the direction in which feminism in Indian English fiction has evolved and the kind of feminism Kapur adopts to scrutinize the problems besetting the Indian woman. It discusses why Western theories on feminism cannot be blindly applied to analyze feminist issues in India and how important it is for us to evolve our understanding of feminism to tackle problems unique to the Indian situation.

The Female Characters of Manju Kapur

The female characters created by Kapur are characterized by the adoption of a critical and reflexive attitude that question their position and as a consequence attempt to redefine cultural and social stereotypes and values in order to create a space of their own, which brings a redefinition of their identity as well as a controversy and confrontation to the social context and a prevalent and powerful patriarchal ideology.

Kapur highlights the factors which curbs the freedom of the female to live, grow and actualize herself the way men do. The manner in which religion, tradition and myth are misused to condition women into an acceptance of their secondary status causing them to lead claustrophobic and circumscribed lives. The female protagonist resist and overcome the ideological suppression and reshape ideals and existing value systems to re-invent themselves in a meaningful way. In this sense, her novels are a significant contribution towards the realm of Indian English fiction and feminist psycho analysis in India.

Origin of the Term

The term 'feminism' has its origin from the Latin 'femina' meaning 'woman' and thereby refers to the advocacy of women's rights, status and power at par with men on the grounds of 'equality of sexes'. The term became popular from the early twentieth century struggles for securing women's suffrage in the Western countries and the later well-

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organized socio-political movement for women's emancipation from patriarchal oppression. The political scope of feminism has been broadened by the impact of Marxist ideology that made feminist challenge sexism along with capitalism, for both encouraged the patriarchal setup.

Feminism, besides being a political crusade, attempts to study and solve the various gender-based problems. It questions the pre-conceived assumptions about the roles that men and women should have in life. In literary text, feminism brings to scrutiny the portrayals of gender roles, which tend to impose social norms, customs, conventions, laws and expectations on the grounds of gender discrimination. It throws a challenge on the age-long tradition of gender differentiation and attempts to explore and find a new social order. Feminism, with its thrust on gender and sexuality, has played a vital role in studying the construction of masculine and feminine identities and the construction of heterogeneous sexuality, homosexuality, bisexuality and the erotic sensuality.

Feminism in India

Feminism in India has been a long, unsettled debate which is still persistently prevalent in various forms. Indian feminist researchers have not yet been able to define "Indian Feminism". As Feminism is a Western notion, an import, feminists "naturally" are to be condemned.

For most Indians, the term "feminism" means nothing, if anything; the term has acquired many negative connotations in recent years. There is a general skepticism about its usefulness. "Patriarchal religious traditions and overt or covert conservative super structures have kept it from becoming widely apprehended phenomena" (Nabar, 7).

A Variety of Responses

Among the urban literate, the awareness of feminism is largely confined to what is perceived of as the moral corruption of women abroad, a result of their outlandish freedom to think and say, and choose what they want out of life.

The conservative structures and Indian panorama of seeing things have not so far allowed it to become a widely apprehended phenomenon.

For most Indian males feminism has contained to be an "obnoxious" word, which they feel have tremendous negative effects on the minds of Indian females. Since the Indian female has always been a considerably more conditioned product; totally custom-made and usually coerced into a mindless acceptance of male diktat, the possibility of a reasoned, open-minded approach to the concept of feminism has been at its best sporadic.

Indian Patriarchy

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In India patriarchy is just one of the hierarchies which keep females down, oppressed by the traditional system. Arranged marriages are always preferred and love marriages are viewed as a social sin and are regarded with shame. Many Indians contend that arranged marriages are more successful than marriages in the West, where staggering divorce rates are the rule. Unwed mothers, separated, single or unfaithful women are considered outcasts. Living out of wedlock with a partner is still virtually unheard of. An unmarried daughter -- seen as a spinster even in her late twenties -- brings shame upon her parents, and is a burden. But once married, she is considered the property of her in-laws. The marriage of the bride and groom requires the bride's father to pay dowries to the bridegroom. In India, as there is the custom and tradition of joint family, a bride has to face her tyrannical in-laws, and traditional Hindu society still rejects divorcees.

Curtailed Rights

In financial matters, although women are permitted to work outside the home, their rights on any household matters have always been denied. A woman has to take charge of the kitchen, even if she is a wage-earning member of the household and holds a job outside of the home. Legally, although the court recognizes that sons and daughters have equal rights regarding patriarchal property, those rights are never exercised; today as in generations past, ownership changes hands from father to husband to son and the rights of a daughter or a daughter-in-law are denied.

To Cultivate Support for Female Cause

Since the situation of women in India is quite miserable and a great deal needs to be done on their behalf, it is important that Indian feminists understand the Indian context thoroughly. The need of this hour is to rise above the limitations and to deconstruct patriarchal structures through individual questionings. Only through this process of reinterpretation and interrogation new images will be created and new histories written.

In order to gain massive support for the “women’s cause”, Indian feminists need to phrase and frame their criticisms, their arguments and their demands keeping in mind the sensitive issues and sentiments related to the Indian society. Thus our priorities should be to “uplift” the women’s issues and maintain a balance within the socio-economic and political scenario of India. To end discrimination and move forward with visions of a better life where both men and women will live as liberated human beings.

Indian Women Authors

In the past, the work by the Indian women authors has always been undervalued because of some patriarchal assumptions. The Indian women novelists, particularly of the 1980’s onward have gained worldwide recognition. Women writers have moved away from traditional portrayals of enduring, self-sacrificing women toward conflicted female

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characters searching for identity, no longer characterized and defined simply in terms of their victim status. In contrast to earlier novels, female characters from the 1980s onwards assert themselves and defy marriage and motherhood.

Modern women writers have articulated woman's aspirations, her professional endeavours, her newly formed relationship with man and the changed perceptions of sexuality in their novels. Authors such as Shashi Deshpande, Anita Desai, Arundhati Roy, Manju Kapur, Namita Gokhle, Gita Hariharan, Shobha De and even the diasporic writers like Bharti Mukherjee, Shona Ramaya and others have presented various modes of resistance to patriarchal norms.

Manju Kapur and Her Works

Manju Kapur is a famous Indian English novelist whose writings reflect man– woman relationship, human desire, longing, body, gender discrimination, marginalization, rebellion and protest. Implicit in it is Kapur's critique of the widely contested site of socio-cultural life in modern, urban, postcolonial India.

Manju Kapur's perceptions of women's liberation and autonomy are deeply entrenched in the Indian women's situatedness within the socio-cultural and economic spaces and paradigms of the country. The protagonists in Manju Kapur's novels are caught in the continuous dichotomy between the personal needs and the institutional and social obligations and responsibilities. They challenge the male domination and patriarchal mechanisms of surveillance and control over women's body.

Till date she has written five novels i.e. *Difficult Daughters* (1998), *A Married Woman* (2002), *Home* (2006), *The Immigrant* (2008) and *The Custody* (2011). Her first novel *Difficult Daughters* has won the Commonwealth Prize for first novels (Eurasia section) and was a number one bestseller in India. *The Immigrant* has been long listed for the DSC Prize for South-Asian literature

Difficult Daughters



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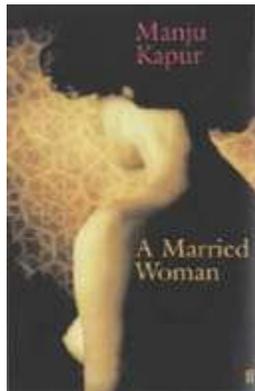
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Manju Kapur's first novel *Difficult Daughters* is a tale of protagonist's struggle for career and identity against the dominant ideology of domesticity. Set around the turbulent years of World War II and the partition of India, she realistically depicts women of three generations focusing on Virmati, the difficult daughter of the second generation. The novel is the story of a woman torn between family duty, the desire for education and illicit love. The search for control over one's destiny is the key theme. While India fights for freedom from the British Raj, Virmati fights for the freedom to live life on her terms. The novelist has portrayed her protagonists as women caught between the passion of the flesh and a yearning to be part of political and intellectual movements.

A Married Woman



A Married Woman explores Astha's longing for a purpose in her life other than being a wife and mother against a vividly realized backdrop of Indian sectarian politics. It presents an interesting collage of the problems, insecurities and unrest faced by middle class woman and nation both at the verge of transition. The author presents a lesbian relationship between Astha and Pipeelika but in the end regularity norms are set in play to confine women's sexuality within the framework of heteronormativity- i.e. relationship that are monogamous, within marriage and often with opposite sex.

Home



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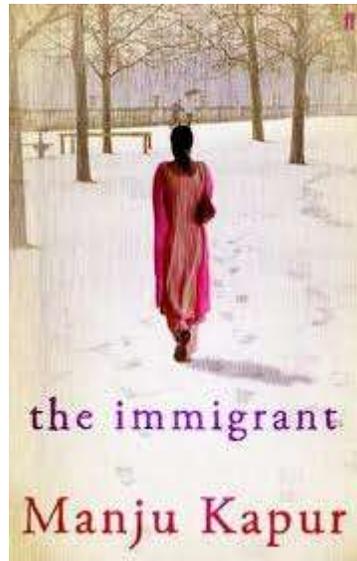
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The novel *Home* exposes the still prevalent parochial attitudes towards the upbringing of the girl child in India. She traces the painful voyage of the heroine Nisha from childhood into adulthood in the form of buildingsroman. *Home* details Nisha's search for a home i.e. search for a place of shelter and security. Unfortunately to women in India, home is not a place of comfort and relaxation and it does not ensure them any emotional security, nonetheless, it sometimes does not provide them any physical security. The novel unravels the story of an ordinary middle class joint family's life in Delhi.

The Immigrant



In the novel *The Immigrant* Kapur explores the special challenges facing immigrant wives, the way a young woman's life already pressured in professional and reproductive terms becomes an even more impossible balancing act inside a foreign culture. Nina finds she is not only ill-prepared for the cultural gulf she encounters but also the gaping distances (intellectual, emotional and physical) in her barren relationship. Sexual inadequacy turns into security and then infidelity. Kapur explores the adjustments and frustrations of a modern marriage.

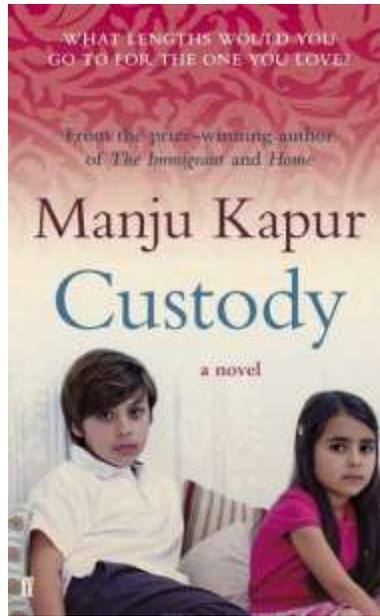
Custody

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Manju Kapur's fifth novel *Custody* is not just a social commentary, but a novel that is true to the universal angst of modern marriage, with its burden of individualism. It is set in the thriving, upper middle class colonies of Delhi in the mid-nineties, against the backdrop of the initial surge of foreign investment in India. Shagun is a modern woman who fulfills her individual dreams instead of familial fulfillment. Shagun is an ambitious woman who is over-ridden by individualism and her own well-being.

The novel charts the life of a changing woman in a time of increased globalization. It chronicles the various intricacies around the dissolution of marriage and a family in modern India. The novel shows that a childless marriage is despised. The *blame* is attributed to the female. Female infertility is recognised as ground of divorce.

Highlighting Endemic Issues

Kapur highlights those issues of feminism that are endemic to the situation in India in order to help us understand how difficult it is for women here to arrive at an evolved state of mind being trapped within the matrix of religion and tradition . Her novels manifest women's struggle for emancipation from economic, political and social bondages. She has tried to evolve her own stream of emergence of new women grounded in reality. Kapur's novels significantly add to the growing tradition of Indian women's literature in English.

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The Use of the Passive by Female and Male Indian Speakers of English: Are Female Speakers of Indian English Less Formal?

Rohit Kawale, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.

Abstract

The passive voice in English has attracted the attention of a number of grammarians. Especially, the frequency of the passive in English has been studied extensively by some grammarians, like Svartvik (1966). Based on the model of the study of the passive in English used by Svartvik (1966), the use of the passive in Indian English was analysed. The analysis was based on data collected from the two corpora of Indian English.

The study was focused on the form, function and frequency of the passive in Indian English. For analysing the use of the passive, texts from various registers in spoken and written English were selected.

While analysing the data collected from conversations, it was found that the passive is used less frequently in conversations in English among only female Indian speakers, compared with conversations among only male speakers of English.

This paper aims at giving the findings regarding the use of the passive by female and male Indian speakers of English and also connecting it with the formality scale. It may be

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concluded that the frequency of the passive is indicative of the amount of colloquiality. Therefore, it implies that female Indian speakers are less formal than male speakers in their conversations in English.

Introduction

The passive voice (usually referred to as the passive) in English has attracted the attention of many grammarians. Svartvik (1966) made the first corpus-based study of voice in English, particularly of the passive voice. One of his main findings was about the overall frequency of the passive and the frequency of the various types of the passive in English. Using his classification of the types of passive, the types of passive verb phrase etc, the passive in Indian English was studied to find out the overall frequency of the passive in conversations, various kinds of writing etc.

Instances of the passive were extracted from two corpora of Indian English – *The Kolhapur Corpus of Indian English* and *ICE-IND* (the Indian component of *The International Corpus of English*). All the instances of the passive were taken from those texts in the corpora, which were selected for the study.

Therefore, it was possible to draw reasonably valid conclusions about the frequency of the passive in Indian English. The form, functions and frequency of the passive in Indian English was studied. The types of passive, the types of passive verb phrase and the types of passive clause were studied, and the relative frequencies of all these in various registers were also measured. Using the method employed by Svartvik (1966), the frequency of the passive was counted in terms of the number of passive clauses per one thousand words. Instances of both finite and non-finite passives were selected from both the corpora of Indian English. The following are examples of finite and non-finite passives respectively.

1. In the non-radiative transfer, the coupling *is brought about* by the phonon field of the crystalline matrix. (*Kolhapur Corpus*, J 02, 1340-1360)
2. It can't be categorised as wrong English, it is *to be categorised* as Indian English. (*ICE-IND:S1A-028#45:1:B*)

One of the features of the passive in Indian English that were studied was the frequencies of the passive used by male and female speakers of English.

Passives Used by Male and Female Speakers of Indian English

Fifty direct conversations from *ICE-IND* were analysed in the present study. As the personal information about every speaker taking part in conversations is given in the corpus such as age, sex, educational qualifications, it was possible to find out if the speakers taking part in every conversation were male or female. It was found that out of fifty conversations analysed for the present study, there were twenty conversations with only female speakers taking part in them,

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twenty-two with only male speakers in them, and the remaining eight conversations with male as well as female speakers in them.

Table 1: The frequency of the passive in conversations by male and female speakers in ICE-IND					
The passive used by female speakers		The passive used by male speakers		The passive used by female & male speakers	
No. & frequency of finite passives	No. & Frequency of non-finite passives	No. & frequency of finite passives	No. & frequency of non-finite passives	No. & frequency of finite passives	No. & frequency of non-finite passives
231 5.77	32 0.80	297 6.75	73 1.65	123 7.68	30 1.87

Table 1 shows the frequency of finite and non-finite passives used by these speakers in their conversations. It was found that both finite and non-finite passives were used more frequently by male speakers than female ones. In individual pieces of conversations this consistency was found to a large extent. The frequency of finite passives in the conversations by only female speakers was 5.77 per thousand words. The frequency in the conversations by only male speakers was 6.75. In conversations involving both male and female speakers, the frequency was 7.68. The frequencies of non-finite passives were 0.80, 1.65 and 1.87 respectively.

The frequency of both finite and non-finite passives in conversations involving male and female speakers was more than the frequency in conversations of only female and only male speakers. In general, the frequency of both finite and non-finite passives was lower than in most of the other registers, not only of written English, but also of spoken English. Especially, the frequency of non-finite passives was consistently very low. It was the lowest in the conversations of only female speakers. It was less than half of the frequency in the conversations of only male speakers. There was not so much difference in the frequencies of finite passives, but their frequency was also lower in the conversations of female than in those of male speakers.

The data shows that female speakers of Indian English use the passive voice less frequently than male speakers and that they especially use non-finite passives with a very low frequency. Of course, this observation applies *only* to conversations in English.

Functions of the Passive: Possible Reason for the Difference in Frequencies of the Passive

In the study of the passive in Indian English, the functions of the passive were also studied. One of the functions that was found was that the use of the passive is related to the arrangement of given information and new information in a clause. But it was also found that the use of the passive is related to the amount of colloquiality in the text.

Following the theory of Granger (1983), it was found that the frequency of the passive is linked with the formality scale. The more formal the text, the more frequent is the passive; and the more colloquial the text, the less frequent is the passive.

It was found in the study of the passive in various registers in Indian English that non-finite passives are used more frequently in registers of formal or academic nature, such as business correspondence or academic writing. Therefore they are used with low frequency in all conversations, but with the lowest frequency in the conversations of only female speakers. This can imply that the female Indian speakers are less formal in their conversations in English, as far as what the use of the passive indicates.

If this view is carried further, it can also be deduced that conversations in English by male Indian speakers can be formal and they can be very formal if they involve both female and male speakers.

As shown in **Table 1**, the frequency of both finite and non-finite passives is more in the conversations involving female and male speakers than in those of only female and only male speakers.

Conclusion

It can, therefore, be concluded that male Indian speakers use passives more frequently than female ones in their conversations in English. As the frequency of the passive is in direct proportion with formality in communication, it can also be concluded that at least in their conversations in English, female speakers are less formal than male speakers, and that conversations in English involving female and male Indian speakers are most formal.

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Reminiscent Pledge A Symbolic Story

Kaneez Fatima Syeda, M.A. English, M.Phil. Scholar

An obvious triviality sometimes proves hidden extremity.

Certain things of life cannot be confined to the annals of oblivion. These reminiscent things serve the purpose of invocation to misery. At moments, the words uttered by someone seem to be totality of life but when the splinters of that fickle-natured glassy verdict scatter before sensual sight and unbreakable ties meet with breakage, the compulsion of moments increases to suffocation.

The night was cold, rimy and mysterious. A pale flickering Star was shining somewhere in the heart of gloomy mist. Perhaps that was unyielding among its species. In the misty darkness of sky, it seemed a camp in heaven. Every object was expressing a coffin like gravity.

In that unfavorable gloomy night, a pedestrian was tracing some intangible and unseen steps on the wooded earth of the 'Heath'. She was walking mysteriously among the prevailing nocturnal mysteries. In that bleak hour of night, she had

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something to rely upon; some light in her heart which was a kind of fluctuation between grief and glee. In her tightly closed fist, perhaps she had something slippery.

She was holding tightly a verbal pledge in her “Fist of Entity” with an inherent dilemma of sensual anxiety. Though she was not sure about the reliability of the pledge, yet it was a constant source of strong light coming from the uncovered “Lantern of Trust” in her other hand.

Fast flurry of winds was hovering around that sole source of light in her journey but the pledge was unwavering. She was going to find out the person who had shown her that dark, gloomy path of life with the bright light of promise to come back.

She was walking with contentment because the “Lantern of Trust” was with her. She was pacing forth, when suddenly a shrill voice stopped her. The audible voice was the one frequently heard by her in the long hours of emotional distress. The voice was feminine and was saying to her: “Stop for a while!” “Stop for a while!”

Surely the voice was of the “Queen of Broken Trust” who was residing in the “Inner Utopia” of our pedestrian since the day of her creation. She had often addressed the Queen as: “O, immortal friend! Come to my mortal sense and tell me, who you are? Whence have you come to reside in my entity?”

The reply of the Queen was always a bitter laughter and the single word: “Pledge.” Today, perhaps, she was talking to her for the first time in long syllables.

She was saying:

“O, pedestrian of this gloomy night, Listen to me! Today you are going in the same direction, on the same path which had once made me reprobate and desperate one. It is just quite possible that somewhere you happen to see him, the residing prince of my heart who got estranged from me and was lost in such like gloomy mist of time. I am hankering after his memories and vision since then. If you happen to see him somewhere on the way, so do tell him that the “Queen of Broken Trust” is still residing in the palace of her dreams. She gleans the splinters of your broken pledge every day and lacerates her palms.”

The Queen said so and got silent once again, perhaps once and for all. However, when our pedestrian stood motionless to listen to her, a blow of wind extinguished her sole source of light: her “Lamp of Trust”.

She was left aghast and started weeping. The “Queen of Broken Trust” once again laughed bitterly from her inner utopia. A bitter laughter and the single word.....Pledge!

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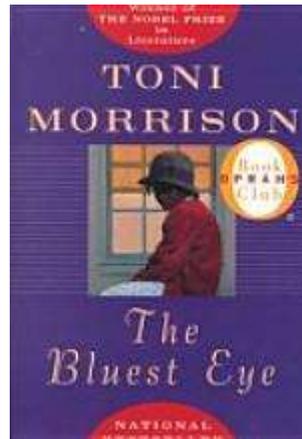
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Maternal Images: Reading Toni Morrison's *The Bluest Eye*

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Abstract

The present paper explores the maternal images as portrayed in Toni Morrison's *The Bluest Eye*. The analysis highlights the irritatingly negative attitude of African American motherhood which stems from the deep disappointment and negligence in the lives of these women. Still, there are a couple of mothers who derive their inspiration from African values and cultural practices and offer a resistance against the maternal stereotype imposed by the white literature. The basic tenet of the paper is to stress the construction of the stereotypes of black motherhood as an ideological tool to control and define the black mothers in American society. Confronted with the reality that the patriarchal order around which society is structured does not allow black women equal access at par with their white counterparts. Numerous black children

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have suffered at the hands of many black females, but when their dividends are dependent on class, race, and social status, it becomes impossible to fulfill their roles as mothers.

Key Words: Maternal Images, African American Motherhood, Stereotypes, Patriarchy

Aspects of the Portrayal of Motherhood

Portrayal of motherhood has always been one of the most dominant preoccupations of all the Black women writers as it finds its vivid and graphic manifestation in their works. These writers build upon black women's experience of and perspectives on motherhood to develop a view of black motherhood in terms of both maternal identity and maternal role. Their perception of motherhood is radically different from that of dominant culture where Black motherhood has been used as a distinctly complex ideology to control Black women. They have been assigned certain stereotypes as breeder, concubine, sapphire, mammy, and mule and projected as more eager for motherhood than their white counterparts in most of white literature. Furthermore, the white literature also endorses their capability as mothers as compared to the white women "...all black women became superhuman mother, not only for their own people, but for white people as well. More than white women, it is assured, black women look to motherhood as their chief justification in life; and more than white women, they are physically and emotionally capable of handling the responsibilities with it" (Wade-Gayles, 59).

Furthermore, the mother-daughter bonding or the portrayal of motherhood is an extension of the necessity of female bonding which brings attention in the wake of the feminist movement of the 1960s. The major writers who vividly portrayed this concept are Toni Morrison, Alice Walker, Brenda Wilkinson, Jamaica Kincaid, Gayl Jones, Gloria Naylor, and Maya Angelou. Against a racial and sexual domination, these writers have consistently expanded motherhood into a creative and personally fulfilling role.

How African American Authors Deal with Mothering



Toni Morrison

The Black women novelists, on the other hand, deal with experience of mothering rather than the image of it which is yet another way of countering the stereotypical images of black women in white literature. African American authors have given vibrant portraits of what a

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mother is and what the act of mothering could be. Mothering in their view, is fundamentally and profoundly an act of resistance, essential and integral to black women's fight against racism. They also prove that the state of black motherhood has more depth than any other stereotype. The power of motherhood and the empowerment of mothering are what make possible the better world they seek for themselves and their children. Maya Angelou's cycles of autobiographical works, for example, make important contributions to the literary record of black motherhood. Her autobiographies are an important record of how black mothers affect their families and communities.

This paper is a celebration of African American women's resistance and resilience as mothers. It further illustrates how black women writers have deconstructed motherhood as an experience in itself and focuses on the value given to motherhood by these women.

Handerson may be quoted in this regard when he says:

Black women have...brought into the literature a special knowledge of their lives and experiences that is...different from the descriptions/portrayals of women by men....They (Black women writers) freed themselves from the roles assigned to them in the writings of their male counterparts, where, depicted as queens and princess, or as earth mothers and idealized Big Mommas of superhuman wisdom and strength, they were unrecognizable as individuals (Henderson XXIV).

Barbara Christian in one of her essays, "An Angle of Seeing: Motherhood in Buchi Emecheta's *Joys of Motherhood* and Alice Walker's *Meridian*" from her book, *Black Feminist Criticism* (1985) has compared the perception of motherhood in African and African American cultures and has found that though certain societies in Africa proclaim themselves to be matrilineal but only in letters and not in spirit. Certainly they are valued as mothers, yet their motherhood does not put them in special esteem when they are elderly. Their value as mothers largely exists because they have sons and subsequently that they allow men's names to have a continued link to the next generations. Christian shows that the African American women have moved from being 'un-free' to control their own reproductive experiences. She further puts that motherhood is more than a 'function' of the women rather an entire state of being. Mothering is not restricted to the definition imposed by male writers or other dominant social entities, but is defined by those who are the protectors and nurturers of the children they bear.

Toni Morrison and Maternal Body

Paula Gallant Eckard in her book, *Maternal Body and Voices in Toni Morrison, Bobbie Ann, and Lee Smith*, (2002) celebrates a paradigm shift in American fiction that marks significant departure from that of patriarchal orientation. She exclusively deals with the works of three 20th century women writers—Toni Morrison, Bobbie Ann, and Lee Smith who portray maternal experiences in their works. In *Toni Morrison and Motherhood: A Politics of the Heart* (2004), Andrea O'Reilly has brilliantly explored the complexities of motherhood and mothering in Morrison's novels from *The Bluest Eye* to *Paradise*. She has correlated the experience of motherhood with their struggle against racism and sexism and their resistance to oppression.

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In creating intense mother figure in fiction African American writers have paid tribute to the beauty, struggles, and sorrows of black motherhood. These probable and real mothers offer an important counter to the negative images of black womanhood disseminated in other media. Most of the times neglected, sometimes alienated by socio-cultural factors, the black woman has struggled and survived on her own supporting her children. She could have succumbed but maternal bonds hold her. She looks at her children for every possible emotional support. For the purpose of study, Toni Morrison has been selected from the vast arena of Black female writers on the basis of the merit of portraying multiple aspects of black motherhood unraveling the layers of reality that constructs the life of the women of African descent.

Toni Morrison is an African American author, who was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1993. In her work, she has explored the experience and roles of black women in a racist and male dominated society of the United States. In the center of her complex and multilayered narratives is the unique cultural inheritance of African-American people in general and the women in particular. Morrison has been a member of both the National Council on the Arts and the American Academy and Institute of Arts and Letters. Morrison's oeuvre of writing is marked by its consistent critique of black community which has traditionally suppressed black women. Morrison's creativity and encouragement stems from her realization of the responsibility of portraying the black women's experiences of motherhood which is different from white motherhood altogether. She goes on to politicize the issue of black motherhood in the wide discourse of racism in the United States.

Morrison's Focus on African American Consciousness

Morrison has continually attempted—all through her seven novels—to focus on African American consciousness, particularly that aspect of it which deals with the black women's problems. What stands out above all these is her skill as an expert storyteller who has looked into the hearts of men and women and extracted there from a bitter sweetness which we recognize today as Morrison's worldview. Her critical essays add immensely to the canon of African American aesthetics. They enlarge on the themes of the African American woman novelist's role, on the importance of black aesthetics with regard to specific readings of black literary works, and on the relevance of African American literature towards a clearer understanding of modern black life, society and culture.

***The Bluest Eye* – Several Aspects of African American Mother**

The first novel to emerge from the canon of her brilliant career is *The Bluest Eye* (1970). It is the study of the tragic life of a young African American girl Pecola Breedlove who yearns for love and concern from her family members and her white counterparts at school. She becomes conscious of her despicable birth into a black family which makes her the butt of ridicule. She longs for blue eyes and blond hair like those of white children and for looking like Shirley Temple. She understands that her frail self image is brutally viewed by the world outside, and consequently she goes insane and withdraws herself into a world of fantasy in which she possesses the bluest eye of all.

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In *The Bluest Eye*, Morrison presents several aspects of the Black mother. Pauline Breedlove, the crippled mother of Pecola and Tommy, is one of the negative figures in the novel. Her negative feelings towards her children are a result of her inability to adequately provide for them. She feels more comfortable in the luxurious home of her white employer, so she ignores and fails to identify a sense of pride in her own culture and her family which results in Pecola's madness. She never fails to be "an ideal servant" at work (127). It was a matter of pride for her to be in their service and guard their possessions as if they were her own. Pauline tries her level best regarding "creditors and service people" on behalf of her masters and never ever let anybody do compromise in terms of having the best out of everything for her employers: "She refused beef slightly dark or with edges not properly trimmed. The slightly reeking fish that she accepted for her own family she would all but throw in the fish man's face if he sent it to the Fisher House" (128).

Contrary to it is set a strong mother-daughter bond between Claudia and Mrs. MacTeer. Like Pauline, she is destitute and has inconsiderate conditions in her life which sometime shape Mrs. MacTeer's rough and cruel treatment of her children. Yet she has come to terms with her situation rather than becoming bitter like Pauline. She is a very loving and understanding mother who realizes the value of motherhood. When in the opening of the novel, Claudia is vomiting, Mrs. MacTeer scolds her but she also remembers her mother's love, "Love, thick and dark as Alaga syrup, eased up into that cracked window. I could smell it—taste it—sweet, musty, with an edge of wintergreen in it base—everywhere in that house" (12). Claudia, unlike Pecola, experiences a moment of bonding with her mother: "so when I think of autumn, I think of somebody with hands who does not want me to die" (12).

Child Rearing and Economic Oppression of African American Mothers

If observed closely, it comes out that the economic repression of Black mother results in the suffering of her child. The mother is incapable to give care and attention to her child during the day because she has to work outside; hence, the child is neglected. Pauline is working as a housekeeper for a white family. Her job is the major resource of income for her family's living expenses. Family's economic situation prevents them from enjoying a comfortable position in society. On the other side, she is also physically abused by her spouse, which also affects her bond with the children. Yet another reason for Pauline's unwillingness as a mother is the life experiences of her own mother where her motherhood had brought only more work and no delight. She, therefore, escapes into the world of fantasy and experiences vicarious pleasure in identifying herself with white women in the movies.

Subjected to Racism

Another point of focus for Morrison is that black children are subjected to racism. Since parents are incapable of shielding their children from the racism and violence of the outside world, most of the times they surrender which is the case with Pauline. She fails to nurture the feeling of self worth in Pecola because of the lack of self esteem in herself which further results in her dissatisfaction as a mother and she carries motherhood as a burden. She has buried her motherhood some deep in her heart which has never come out throughout the novel. If you go

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deep you find that Pauline herself has not given proper care and attention when she was a child. Pauline was totally ignored by her parents and she blames their parental neglect on her limp foot. Very early in her life she was introduced to the traditional duties of a woman, like babysitting, which she performs efficiently. Because of racist stereotyping black mothers are denied the attention and respect enjoyed by white mothers. Pauline's experience at the maternity hospital has been bad. She recounts the hospital incident prior to the birth of Pecola when the white doctors attending on her comment: "They deliver right away and with no pain. Just like horses" (97).

The racism that controls every other aspect of the black mother's life and her relationship with her family even dictates whether or not she is capable of feeling pain. Anger on such a comment is diverted towards her children. Pecola becomes victim of her anger. One more thing adds to her disillusionment is that like her mother, Pecola too, believes in the white standard of beauty. There is a distortion in the natural self of Pauline because she exchanges her role of an ideal mother with that of an ideal servant. It is interesting to note that black mother's assessment of her condition gives first consideration to her relationship with the racist whites. Morrison's narrators suggests that there existed a void in Pecola's psyche of a mother which is reflected in where, "Pecola, like Sammy and Cholly always called her mother Mrs. Breedlove" (43).

Absence of Normal Mother-Daughter Relationship

A close reading of the novel shows that Pecola and Mrs. Breedlove never enjoyed a normal mother-daughter relationship as such. There may be one reason as Mrs. Breedlove, throughout the novel never been able to show maternal love to her. Instead, she has practices force and violence on Pecola. There is one incident when at her white employer's kitchen, Mrs. Breedlove strikes out on her for spilling the hot blueberry pie on the floor which caused a sudden burn to Pecola, "for she cried out and began hopping about just as Mrs. Breedlove entered . . ." (Morrison, 109), but all the consoles and comforts of Pauline go to the Fisher's child rather than Pecola. Pecola just receives the outburst anger of her mother who "with the back of her hand knocked her to the floor. Pecola slid in the pie juice, one leg folding under her. Mrs. Breedlove yanked her up by the arm, slapped her again, and in a voice thin with anger, abused Pecola directly and Frieda and [Claudia] by implication" (109).

Not only this, Pauline shuts Pecola out of the doors of her white employer's house in some literally harsh and insulting words: "Crazy fool . . . my floor, mess . . . look what you . . . work . . . get on out . . . now that . . . crazy . . . my floor, my floor . . . my floor" (109). Through this insulting act Pauline rooted deep in Pecola's mind and heart the superseding value of Whites over Blacks. It is the refusal of maternal love that leads Pecola to find out love outside world where she stared fantasizing about Shirley Temple and in the absence of the mother figure; Shirley Temple assumes a maternal image for Pecola.

Detachment from Family Members

Pauline's utmost attachment to the Fisher's family was resulting in the negligence of and detachment to her own family members: "More and more she neglected her house, her children,

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her man—they were like afterthoughts one has just before sleep, the early–morning and late–evening edges of her day, the dark edges that made the daily life with the Fishers lighter, more delicate, more lovely” (127). The outcome of her negligence towards her family members and the sweet home itself was diminishing and losing its ground day by day. “Two sofas, an upright piano and a tiny artificial Christmas tree, which had been there, decorated and dust–laden, for two years” (35) were themselves narrating the entire story that the home is not more than a so called sweet home. Some naughty fights which are considered to be helpful in making the home more lively were converting into great disputes and most of the times leading to physical violence even in the presence of the children. Pauline never miss a chance to make Cholly realize his failures in life and her own successful efforts to earn bread for her family: “You sure ain’t bringing in nothing. If it was left up to you, we’d all be dead . . .” (41). All these things were affecting the bringing up of their offspring whose reflections were soon visible. Instead of making her children obedient and good human being, Pauline was incorporating “into her daughter a fear of growing up, fear of other people, fear of life” (128).

Despite all the blames on part of Pauline regarding her husband, children and home, the fact that she stands like a strong pole to support her family cannot be ignored. Circumstances made her so. She was fulfilling all he basic needs of her family to which Cholly was totally unaware with. “The demands of providing for children in intersecting oppressions are sometimes so demanding that [black mothers] have neither the time nor the patience for affection” (Collins 187). Her inclination towards her white employers was due to the attention and appreciation she used to receive from them. Another reason was that she was living in the illusion of having an idealistic family in the name of Fishers. Thus her life revolves around the two worlds made by herself: one was being an ideal, obedient, loving, caring and efficient servant at work, another being a controlling power at home.

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