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**Implementing Explicit Grammatical Instruction
in Thailand Schools**

Dele Ashade, M.A.

Abstract

A great deal of research has found that, if well implemented, explicit grammar teaching will most likely result in learners' ability to write grammatically correct English and also speak it fluently. Contrary to this position, it is believed that English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) learners in Thailand are lacking in ability to write grammatically correct sentences and even speak English correctly and fluently.

This article is based on the hypothesis that one of the major causes of this problem is the wrong implementation of explicit grammatical instruction adopted in several Thailand schools and by a great many teachers of grammar. This article, therefore, seeks to present a step-by-step guide for teachers, first in Thailand and, further, in other countries where English is studied as a foreign language and not as a second language.

Key words: Explicit Instruction, Grammar, Implementation, EFL

Introduction

A lot has been said about the advantages of explicit grammatical instruction but how to implement this grammar teaching approach practically in the classroom may not have been a popular topic. Borg, (1998) declares that "... the teaching of grammar in the absence of well-founded guidelines is like a landscape without bearings", (p. 10).

It is widely claimed that many Thai learners of EFL may write fairly, grammatically correct English but speak English in manners inconsistent with the structure and conventions of contemporary English in spontaneous communication, even after many years of learning English grammar explicitly.

Chaturon (2005) posits that, most students' inability to communicate in English despite spending years learning the language points to a clear failure in English teaching in Thailand. It has become a matter of concern that a cognitive system that can engender some level of accuracy for the learner has been seen unable to generate fluency ability for the same learner. This is different from the position of the literature which is awash with evidence that explicit grammatical instruction in English as a Foreign Language-----if properly implemented----- is profitable for not only accuracy but also fluency (see R. Ellis 2002a, 2002b; Spada 1997; Larsen Freeman, 2003).

Schmidt (2001) declares that instruction and attention are "...necessary in order to understand virtually every aspect of second language acquisition (SLA) including... L2 fluency..." (p. 3). Explicit instruction translates to implicit knowledge (comprehension and oral production) when learners receive communicative exposure to grammar points introduced through formal instruction. Learners also benefit when the grammar instruction is extensive and is sustained over a long period of time. Such instruction contributes to the development of implicit knowledge as measured by performance on production tasks (Dekeyser, 1994; Doff, 2000). In the same vein, a fairly sound knowledge of grammar may help learners perform some communicative activities, without which the performance appears to be very difficult, and it may help them to overcome gaps while communicating (Terrell, 1991).

The purpose of explicit grammar is to develop the rules capable of explaining how surface structures are generated from deep structures and to make them generalisable, having first stated them (Hillocks et al, 1971). This teaching approach which makes rule formulation its organizing principle is implemented in stages in the real classroom.

Implementation Components and Stages

What Ur (1988) describes as "general framework" (p. 7) for explicit grammatical instruction will be examined from not just a unilateral perspective but from a body of documented examen, research, hypotheses and theories. In order to generate both fluency and accuracy for the learner of English through explicit grammar learning, certain elements constituting its implementation procedure may need to be put in operation, including:

Presentation:

- (a) Identifying and isolating a structure, form or topic for instruction,
- (b) Converting the complex structure into a simple one,

(c) Formulating rules based on the simplified version (if deductive approach,)
(See Azar, 2007; Borg, 2003; Doff, 2000; Eisenstein-Ebsworth, 1987, 1998)

(d) Giving extensive explanations with copious, relevant examples and illustrations,

Feedback:

(e) Feedback elicitation and ‘checking’ (Scarcella, (1990).

Practice:

(f) ***Practice:*** Giving learners opportunities for practice, that is, written exercises (Ur 1988, 1998) .

Production:

(g) Encouraging independent learner production of the new structural item (Richards and Rodgers, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Ur, 1999; Celce Murcia, Donyei & Thurrell, 1997).

Follow-up:

(h) Testing and review (Ellis, 2002; Ur, 1988; Widodo, 2004; Eisenstein, 1987; Dekeyser, 1994; Mitchell, 2000).

Explicit Grammar Implementation Component One: Presentation by the Inductive and Deductive Approaches

Whether explicit grammar is to be taught intensively (over a period of time, and which could be a lesson, a unit or a series of lessons), or extensively (teaching a complete range of structures within a short period of time) (Ellis, 2006), the decision about how to present the material or structure to the learners is important because instructional methods employed make significant differences in learner understanding and performance (Karen & Ziemer, 2007).

Direct explicit instruction, that is, the *deductive* approach is one of the two ways of teaching grammar explicitly and it involves oral or written explanations of grammatical phenomena (Widodo, 2006; Dekeyser, 1994). Rules which are capable of explaining how surface structures are generated from deep structures are usually given as guide. Attempt is also made to generalise them having first stated the rules (Hillocks et al, 1971).

The deductive approach is also known as ‘rule-driven learning’. Michael Swan (cited in Thornbury, 1999, p. 32) outlines guidelines for presenting the rules:

The rules should be true.

The rules should show clearly what limits are on the use of a given form.

The rules need to be clear.

The rules ought to be simple.

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The rules need to make use of concepts familiar to the learners' experience.

One constant feature of explicit grammatical teaching is the formulation of rules from, perhaps complex structures and the demonstration of the functioning of same with examples, (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In the deductive approach, rules should be personalisable, short and thoroughly exemplified (Ur, 1988; Widodo, 2006).

However, the second method identified for teaching explicit grammar is the *inductive* and is hinged on a reasoning progression that proceeds from particulars, such as measurements, data or observation, to generalities (which include laws, rules, theories or concepts) (Felder & Henriques, 1995).

In this regard, learners are involved in consciousness-raising tasks which enable them see the pattern of a structure so that learners can formulate rules from such patterns (Ellis, 1998; 2006). The following are patterns from which at least one rule could be derived:

- (i) He travelled *in* January.
- (ii) She started schooling *in* April.
- (iii) He met them *in* November.
- (iv) My birthday comes up *in* March.

Either the teacher or the students may formulate a rule from these, thus:

- Months of the year are usually introduced by the use of the preposition *in*, or
- Use *in* to introduce months of the year.

This inductive approach is also called, 'rule discovery learning'.

The inductive approach leaves an almost unforgettable experience with learners who may have had experiential participation in their own learning by formulating usable rules for the construction of standard and convention-compliant sentences. At the same time, it develops their mental strategies for handling tasks (Eisestein, cited in Long and Richards, 1987).

Both approaches have been found effective. While Selinger (1975); Fotos & Ellis, (1991); Fotos, (1994); Herron & Tomasello (1992) avouch that it is better than the deductive; N. Ellis, (1993); Robinson, (1996); Reber, (1989) and Hammerley (1975) declare that the deductive approach is better and more result- oriented. However, Rosa and O'Neill (1999) found no difference between the effects of inductive and deductive approaches. Perhaps it is for this variation in findings that Corder (1973) had advocated a mixed-bag approach: teaching with both approaches.

Component Two: Skill Practice

Grammar and grammatical instruction have been loathed and decried by learners who have been frustrated by the sheer mechanicality, systematicity and the seeming odious, dry, drab, jejune and lackluster rules which many learners in all corners of the

English – learning world, have found rather theoretically otiose and banally unexciting.

According to Ellis, 2006, there is “...some evidence that teaching explicit knowledge by itself (i.e. without opportunity for practising the target language feature), is not effective”, p. 96. In explicit grammatical instruction, ‘presenting’ or teaching structures and rules alone, without providing a means of helping learners understand, internalize and produce the new language in real-life situations appears a half measure that confuses learners and the teaching is very likely to end up in drudgery and counter-productivity.

Richards, Platt and platt, (1992) aver that teaching grammar through drills, grammar explanation and other form-focused activities is a way of raising learners’ awareness of the grammatical features of the language. This is contrasted with the traditional approaches to teaching of grammar in which the goal is to instill correct grammatical patterns and habits directly (p. 78).

According to Ur, (1999), the practice stage comes after the initial presentation and explanation when the learner is assumed to have perceived the material and taken it into short-term memory but cannot be said to have really mastered it yet.

Carroll (1999) expounds on the cognitive processes in listening that lead to the internalisation or processing of messages into the Long Term Memory and this takes place, at the practice stage. The concern is both for understanding and internalising, on the part of the learner because activities are reinforcers. In considering “... these events or stimuli (reinforcers) that follow a response and that tend to strengthen behaviour, say, to teach somebody something, we ought to attend carefully to reinforcers” (Brown, 1987, p. 63).

Situation in Thailand

In Thailand, the teaching of grammar has been without skill practice in most classroom cases. (Khunying, 2005; Arunee, 2001). Thai and other learners of English have ample opportunities to practise and produce the language while this may represent a clear departure from the tradition of complete reliance on language-focus exercises. An illustration below may describe the difference between *production* and *practice*. Practice exercises come in the form of:

(a) slot fillers:

He ---- good English. (speaking / speak/speaks OR,

(b) Transformation, e.g. Change the sentences below to plural

(i) This is a man

(ii) That lady is my friend.

(c) Multiple choice, e.g.:

There ---- man at the door, now

(i) and some (ii) are a (iii) is some (iv) are many OR,

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(d) Matching:

He		a bird
I		a teacher
She	{ is }	students
The girls	{ am }	a nurse
The Peacock	{ are }	a man

Exercises provide no opportunity to ‘do’ things although they help supply examples of the structures and as such, are not communicative. Therefore, piquant, picturesque, verisimilitude, amusing or game-like activities offer more learning value and are communicative. For Ur (1988: 7), the “... practice stage consists of a series of exercises done both in the classroom and for home assignment, whose aim is to cause the learners to absorb the structure thoroughly.

Component Three: Production

Production is the third P in the PPP pedagogic principle and it refers to the practical demonstration of new language items acquired by the learner. This is quite different from ‘Practice’ in that it is the juncture at which learners’ understanding of the input is acted out in real life. Performance seems to follow understanding but it is risky to assume that learners usually understand teacher input. It may be difficult to say that learners can remember; that they have proceduralised or internalised the new knowledge, or, say they will be able to produce the new knowledge in real life, because, “... we cannot acquire what we do not understand” (Nunan 1989 p. 25).

For the practical dimension to grammar learning, Snow (2006) recommends choral drills, classroom chat, model-based dialogues, role-plays, surveys, interviews, cocktail parties, press conferences, pair or small group tasks, debates, and large group discussions.

A currently active tradition in language pedagogy research is task-based learning (Skehan, 1998). In principle, TBL may seem to have little to do with grammar but it offers a balanced approach in which grammar pedagogy is linked with communicative experience (Thornbury, 1997; Lynch, 1996; Pennington, 2002). Teachers are therefore expected, according to Snow (2006, p. ix), to see language as “... a major tool for communication and that communicative activity should play a major role in the language classroom”.

The focus of teaching is authentic communication, extensive use of pair and group activities that involve negotiation of meaning and information sharing. This is necessary because, “... being able to talk about the language is very different from being able to talk in the language” (Cameron, 2001, p. 106). This is the case of formal grammar, which is described as “... grammar presented as form in isolation from its meaning in context” (Batstone, 1994, p. 136). This is against the spirit of explicit grammar implementation.

Learner practical involvement (alluding to the ‘Present Practice Produce’ principle) carefully guides learners to “... attend to grammar while retaining a measure of self expression and meaning focus” (ibid., p. 137). It is noteworthy that it was the lack of fluency and ease experienced by those taught by grammar translation that led to the development of CLT in the late 1970s and 1980s (Cameron, 2001). Learning grammar and its rules alone does not translate to, or guarantee, accuracy or fluency but practice does. Mitchell and Myles (1998) contend that competence and performance are closely related. In his participation metaphor, Sfar (1998, p. 6) says, “... in the image of learning that emerges from a linguistic turn, the permanence of having gives way to the flux of doing”.

In this connection, Kagan (1989) advocates cooperative learning activities which involve group activities to ensure learner understanding but with the teacher spending a little more time explaining off the points, leaving little time for the “cooperative learning” experience. Moskowitz (1978) suggests that students be given the right to be heard. Also, having learners participate “... in a project immediately after its explanation can be very effective” (Scarcella 1990, p. 84). Producing grammar items may come in the form of free group discussions, semi-controlled small-group transactions, fluid pairs, chain, brainstorm, student-teacher exchange, teacher-student exchange, dialogues, play acting, role play, entertainment and visual focus (Lindsfors, 1987). Doing this will make the learning of grammar in the long term one of the means of acquiring a thorough mastery of the language as a whole, not as an end in itself (Ur, 1998).

Component Four: Feedback

Feedback is, accurately interpreting our students’ reactions to our lessons and understanding our own methodology of giving feedback (Scarcella, 1990). In the course of a classroom lesson, learners are wont to make errors repeatedly with the same structures or forms. The fully professional teacher determines the source of the error: cause and course and effects a correction.

Here, we see feedback in the light of the fore-going where learners need to be corrected or put aright by the teacher during the implementation process of an explicit grammar lesson. Ellis (1998) examines theoretically motivated instructional options relevant to explicit grammar teaching among which is negative feedback. Whether as a component of a main lesson or as an alternative grammar teaching method, this method shows learners when they have failed to produce a structure in the correct form. Johnson (1988) argues that learners should be made to see for themselves where the structure may have gone deviant. Doughty and Varela (1995) aver that negative feedback is effective in the scaffolding process. According to Lightbown & Spada (1990), there is reduction in the incidence of particular errors during communicative lessons where negative feedback is demonstrated. Explicit grammar lessons are executed with feedback as one of the pillars that tailor the learner to success, and a few options are open to the teacher under the dispensation of explicit grammar teaching.

However, care must be exercised in administering correction during an explicit grammar lessons so that the process will not be counterproductive as the reaction of

Thai students is naturally different from that of other learners in other countries or cultures. Many teachers in France, as Dannequin (1977) observes, believe that students do not have the right to make mistakes, but must conform to the teacher's standards. This is most like the Japanese society, as reported by Thompson (1987), where much heed is paid to the correct answer, through dogmatic rule learning without regard to context. The Chinese education is also obsessed with correctness (Maley, 1986). It is therefore not surprising that French, Japanese and Chinese students, for example, do not feel comfortable with a lesson that fails to demand correctness and correction, of them.

Spotlighting----singling out a student and asking this student to perform or answer correctly before others) is common in the United States (Mohatt and Erikson, 1981). This method may not be successfully used with learners in Asia. This may be so because students in Asia are generally bashful. In Asia, students feel that if they give the wrong answer it not only humiliates them but also brings shame on their families (Sue 1983). Iwatake (1978) warrants that in Asia, teachers are accustomed to learners' reticence on this account.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) believe recast is the most common form of feedback (where recast refers to the reformulation of a learner's utterance or a part of an utterance according to target language norms by an interlocutor or teacher). They present four other types of feedback, including explicit correction which is a means by which the teacher or interlocutor gives the correct form or structure of a deviant form or utterance. Second is the 'clarification request' option where a teacher or interlocutor seeks more information on the deviant structure from the speaker. This automatically raises a red flag to the speaker. Many Asian students, including Thais are reluctant to request clarification (Sato, 1981). Third is the elicitation of the correct form of the deviant utterance by the interlocutor from the learner who is helped by the interlocutor's (teacher's) leading cues. Also identified is the metalinguistic feedback where learners are encouraged to pay more attention to language descriptions, using specific grammatical terms. Lastly, repetition of deviant structures also tends to notify the learner of an error which may be rectified by the learner.

In his "error gravity" analysis, Kiparsky, (1974) identifies two categories of errors that learners can make: local errors such as the omission of an auxiliary verb, e.g.

He () my brother (for: He *is* my brother)

She () go tomorrow (for: She *will* go tomorrow); and global errors such as faulty word order, for example:

(1) *The English language rules forget many people.*

The speaker intends to say:

(2) *Many people forget English language rules.*

Local errors are sentence-level errors while global errors are discourse-level errors, the latter being the worse source of miscommunication or confusion than sentence-level errors (Frodesen, 1991).

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In attempting to correct learner errors in an explicit grammar lesson, Tomasello & Herron (1988) found two methods, first, the inductive where learners are exposed to many parallel examples and the 'garden path condition' where the teacher gives as many examples as in method one above and asks learners to apply the rule which the learners formulated. Other pedagogic correction interventions are, the 'reformulation technique' (Cohen, 1983), the 'interview analysis' (Wechsler, 1987), both applicable during oral (speaking) presentations while, for correcting written work, Knapp (1972) designed the 'underlining and error checklist'. Witbeck (1976) designed and prefers 'peer correction activities' unlike when learners are in the glare of the whole class, corrected, leading to perceived embarrassment. Teachers dispensing explicit grammar instruction may also wish to consider the use of audio cassettes which Farnsworth (1974) warrants will give learners access to the exact points the teacher is correcting, as that this can be played over and over for mastery.

The implementation procedure outlined above becomes important for every grammar teacher in Thailand and other countries where English is learnt as a foreign (not 'second') language. This is because implementing explicit grammatical instruction in partial measure (for example, neglecting the 'production' part of it) may result in a situation where learners are only able to write occasional correct sentences but are unable to make coherent, cohesive or correct oral production of sentences in real life communication. They may also not be fluent. By implication, all steps and components of explicit grammatical instruction are recommended for implementation by Thailand (and other practicing EFL) teachers in their grammar lessons.

Conclusion

Input is successful not when there is corresponding uptake but at the point where it is activated by the learner for profit. Understanding alone is not responsible for performance (Ellis, 2006) Input may be understood but later forgotten and, as such, cannot be utilised in real-life situations. This demonstrates the necessity for input retention, which is derived from the understanding of the explanation offered by the teacher.

With this in mind, it becomes imperative to take cognizance of a teaching process which is based on the premise that, for explicit grammar learning to be profitable for both accuracy and fluency, according to researchers' consensus opinion, the learner must understand input, convert input to uptake and retain uptake. In other words, uptake is useless when it becomes slippery. Students under this kind of EFL situation are expected to get more 'production' time in the class to practically act out the substance of the theoretical structure just learnt.

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Nature of Sentence Intonation in Kannada, Tulu and Konkani

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Abstract

Intonation is one parameter of prosody that gives information on the production aspects of linguistic prosody. The aim of this study was to understand the terminal intonation patterns of different types of sentences in three languages Kannada, Tulu and Konkani.

Four simple sentences, one for each sentence type namely, declaratives, exclamatory, interrogatives, and imperatives were taken and recorded in Motor Speech Profile software, by native speakers of the three languages. F0 patterns were plotted using the PHH model of intonation. The results showed that declaratives and imperatives had falling contours in all languages. Exclamatory sentences had raising contours in Kannada and Konkani, but falling contour in Tulu. Interrogatives had raising patterns across all languages, except for males in Kannada.

The production of sentences in Kannada, Konkani and Tulu indicated that there are differences in the terminal F0 pattern across the different sentence types.

Key words: Linguistic prosody, intonation, Indian languages, instrumental analysis

Introduction

Speech is the effective way in which we communicate. It has got mainly the segmental and suprasegmental features. Segmental features are the basic inventory of distinctive sounds and the way that they combine to form a spoken language where as suprasegmentals are those

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features that influences the way the sounds are processed for meaning. Suprasegmental features are also called as prosodic features. Segmental features alone do not serve the purpose of communication. Communication becomes meaningful only when the supra segmental features are imposed and is useful in speech production as well as perception.

Prosody serves a variety of functions in language processing. Functionally prosody may convey both linguistic and affective contents based on which prosody can be classified as linguistic prosody and emotional prosody Vivian & Hielscher, 2004. Emotional prosody is defined as the ability to express emotions where as Linguistic prosody is used to disambiguate or to mark the internal organization of sentence constituents or to convey the intonation contour of a sentence (Lieberman, 1968).



Research has indicated that right hemisphere dominates for decoding affective prosody whereas the left is dominant for the linguistic prosody. There are also evidences from the brain damaged individuals that substantiate these views. Right hemisphere damaged individuals have been reported to perform poorly in the perception and production of emotive intonation compared to left hemisphere damaged or non-brain damaged (Ross, 1981). Damage to both the cortical and subcortical structures can give rise to impaired speech prosody (Kent & Rosenbeck, 1982).



Intonation, Rhythm and Stress

Intonation, rhythm and stress are classically understood as prosodic parameters. Rhythm is the variation of the length and accentuation of a series of sounds or other events. Stress is understood as a comparative force with which particular syllable within the group of syllable are pronounced. Intonation is defined as the variation in pitch superimposed on the sentences (Bolinger, 1972). Acoustically, the prosodies of oral language involves variation in syllable length, loudness, pitch, and the formant frequencies of speech sounds.

Speakers use intonation patterns to help them express their ideas or emotions. Intonation conveys meanings that apply to phrase or utterances as a whole, such as sentence type or speech act, or focus and information structure. Intonation patterns are specified as an abstract sequence of high and low tones. These tones have no absolute physical value. Rather, they are implemented relative to each other through the manipulation of pitch and the fundamental frequency (F0) of the voice (Ladd 1996). These are as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The F0 variation for different intonation types

S No:	INTONATION TYPES	PITCH/AMPLITUDE CONTOUR
1.	FALL /LOW TONE	
2.	FALL-RISE	

3.	RISE	
4.	RISE-FALL	

Some researchers also analyze intonation according to the PHH model proposed by Pierrehumbert and Hirschberg (1990). The model's units are the simplest possible code levels of relative pitch: High pitched peaks, H: low pitched regions, L: and combination of these events with stress (*) and end of utterance (%). Thus, the F0 patterns are described as a series of high and low tones relative to each other.

Linguistic Prosody

Studies on production aspects of linguistic prosody have addressed the patterns or contours of change in fundamental frequency (F0) for different types of sentences. Most of the languages have 4 types of sentences, declaratives, interrogatives, exclamatory and imperatives. A sentence in the form of a statement is called as declarative sentence. An exclamatory sentence is to express strong feelings by making an exclamation. A sentence that gives advice or instructions or that expresses a request or a command is termed as imperative sentence and the form of sentence used for asking questions is interrogative (Richard, 2003).

A study done on Japanese and Russian languages reported that there is an increase in the height or magnitude of a rise for the intonation pattern of a declarative sentence in both languages (Makarova, 2000). Another study concluded that there is a raising terminal contour in the exclamatory sentence in English. (Bolinger, 1989). Quirk et al. (1985) claimed that imperative sentence frequently has a tone unit to itself, especially in final position with a rising tone.

According to Bassano and Mendes (1994) in French language declaratives and exclamatives were of falling intonation pattern, interrogatives were of rising and imperatives split between falling and rising contours depending on their specific functions. Falling intonation is reported to indicate a declarative utterance, while a rising intonation contour declares an interrogative utterance in German (Raithel & Hielscher, 2004). Commands are found to have no salient contour.

Studies on Linguistic Prosody in Indian Languages

Few studies on intonation patterns of sentences have also been done in Indian languages. A comparative study on the intonation pattern of declarative sentence in Chattisgarhi and Khariboli speakers done by Manish, Chongtham and Rakesh (2008) reported that Chattisgarhi speakers produce declaratives with a falling pattern, Khariboli speakers show a raising pattern. In Kannada, it has been reported that there is no significant rising or falling contour to mark a statement effectively as a question (Suma & Manjula, 2007).

But, there is a dearth of studies in Indian languages addressing the location and direction of F0 change in a speech segment. And it is evident from the above studies that the intonation patterns do not follow a universal trend, it varies across languages.

Being a multilingual country, in India, there is a wealth of information to be obtained by studying the aspects of intonation patterns in the various languages. This would provide a speech language pathologist an understanding on the normal and abnormal aspects of prosody, which will in turn aid in the assessment and management of prosodic errors in individuals with communication disorders. This would also throw some light on the parameters of prosody that need to be incorporated for the synthesis of speech in the Indian languages.

Need of the Study

Study of prosody in any language yields information on the essential suprasegmental aspects of speech which adds meaning and melody to a speaker's production. Knowledge of the normal patterns of prosody aids in the understanding of abnormal aspects, as in the case of communication disorders. Also, such database can also be incorporated in the corpus for speech synthesis.

Synthetic speech is widely being used in the field of mass media and communication as well as in the field of speech and hearing, especially with respect to the development of speech stimuli as part of test procedures.

Thus, an attempt is being made in this study to understand the terminal intonation pattern, for different sentence types in three languages being spoken in the city of Mangalore; Kannada, Tulu and Konkani. Kannada forms the official language in this city, while Tulu and Konkani are being spoken by culturally different sects of the population.

Objective of the Study

This study aims at understanding the terminal intonation patterns in three languages, Kannada, Tulu and Konkani, for different types of sentences and also to document if there are differences in the patterns produced by male and female speakers of the respective languages.

Method

Participants

Twelve participants were considered for the study. They were divided as native speakers of Kannada, Tulu and Konkani, with two males and two females for each of the languages. All the participants were in the age range of 18-40 years. They were normal healthy individuals, devoid of speech, language problems, neurological problems and hearing problems.

Protocol

a) Preparation of test stimuli: Four sentence types were considered, namely, declaratives, exclamatory, interrogatives, and imperatives. Simple sentences, one under sentence type,

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randomly chosen from text books served as test stimuli in all the three languages.

b) Instrumentation: Motor Speech Profile software (MSP) of Computerized Speech Lab 4150 from Kay Elemetrics, was used.

c) Procedure: The recording was done in a sound treated room, with the participants seated on a comfortable chair and the microphone of the CSL hardware was placed at a constant distance of 10 cm away from the mouth. The participants were visually presented with the sentences written on cards one by one and instructed to say the sentences. They were also provided with a model of each sentence with the appropriate intonation pattern. Each sentence was recorded thrice and the second repetition was considered for the analysis.

d) Analysis: The F0 patterns for all the sentences were plotted from CSL, by an experienced speech language pathologist, using the PHH model of intonation; H for high tone, L for low tone, (*) to mark the stress and (%) to mark the end of utterance. the terminal F0 contours were noted.

For the acoustic analysis, the following parameters from MSP were considered: (1) rfo (running speech average fundamental frequency , /Hz/)- this is the average Fo of during the vocalization; (2) rFhi (running speech highest fundamental frequency, /Hz/)- this is the highest Fo during the vocalization; (3) rFLo (running speech lowest fundamental frequency, /Hz/)- this is the lowest Fo during vocalization; (4) rvFo (running variability , /%/)- this is a parameter which tracks the degree of pitch variability; (5) rvAm (amplitude variability , /%/)- this is a parameter which tracks the degree of amplitude variability. The analysis was carried out separately for Kannada, Tulu and Konkani.

The readings from MSP were subjected to statistical analysis, using Mann Whitney U Test (SPSS Version 16) to explore the possibilities of gender differences in the production intonation. The analysis was carried out separately for Kannada, Tulu and Konkani.

Results and Discussion

The results on the study of intonation patterns for four types of sentences in Kannada, Tulu and Konkani are as discussed below.

Within each language, the F0 patterns did not vary among the subjects of each gender. This was observed throughout for all the sentence types under consideration, thus only one pattern has been plotted for reference. These patterns of the F0 variations plotted for the sentence types in Kannada, Tulu and Konkani are as given in Table 2.

Table 2: Intonation patterns of Kannada, Tulu and Konkani

Sentence Type	Kannada		Tulu		Konakani	
	Females:	Males:	Females:	Males:	Females:	Males:

Declarative						
Exclamatory						
Imperative						
Interrogative						

In Kannada, the pattern of the declarative sentence for females was represented as LH*L% and for males were as HLH*LHL%. The pattern of the exclamatory sentence was HLHLH*LH% for females and LHLH*LH% for males. For imperative sentence the pattern was HLH*LHL% for females and LH*L% for males. The interrogative sentence was marked LH*LHLH% for females and HLHLH*L% for males.

In summary, it can be seen that the terminal pitch contour for declaratives and imperatives was HL, a falling contour. This was common for both male and female participants. Exclamatory sentence was marked by a raising contour, HL, in both males and females. The terminal contour varied between the genders for interrogatives with females having a raising and males having a falling contour.

In Tulu, for declarative sentence the intonation pattern was HLH*L% for females and males. HLH*L% for males were the intonation pattern. The pattern for the exclamatory sentence was LHLH*L% for females and LHLH*LHL% for males. For imperative sentence the pattern was LHL-LH*LHL % for females and LH*L% for males. The interrogative sentence was marked LH*LHLH% for females and LHLH*LH% for males.

In summary, it can be seen that the terminal pitch contour for declarative, exclamatory, and imperatives was HL, a falling contour. This was common for both male and female participants. The interrogatives had a raising terminal contour, marked as LH. This was common for both genders.

In Konkani, LH* LHL% and LH*LHLHL% marked the declarative sentence for females and males respectively. The pattern for the exclamatory sentence was LHLH*LH% for females and HLH*LH% for males. For imperative sentence the pattern was HLH*L% for females and LH*LHL for males. The interrogative sentence was marked LH*LH% for females and HLH*LH% for males.

In summary, it can be understood that the terminal pitch contour for declaratives and imperatives was HL, a falling contour. The exclamatory and the interrogative sentences had a

raising pattern, LH. This was common for both genders.

A Comparison of the Results Obtained for Kannada, Tulu and Konkani

The results of the acoustical analysis for the sentence types across Kannada, Tulu and Konkani are as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Mean of F0 pattern in Kannada, Konkani and Tulu for the 4 sentence types

Parameters		rfo				rfhi				rflo				rvfo				rvam			
Language	Sentence type	Mean		Z	P value	Mean		Z	P value	Mean		Z	P value	Mean		Z	P value	Mean		Z	P value
		M	F			M	F			M	F			M	F			M	F		
Kannada	Declarative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121
	Exclamatory	1.50	3.50	-1.63	.102	1.50	3.50	-1.63	.102	1.50	3.50	-1.63	.102	1.50	3.50	-1.63	.102	1.50	3.50	-1.63	.102
	Imperative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121
	Interrogative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-.775	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000
Tulu	Declarative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000
	Exclamatory	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	3.50	1.50	-1.54	.121
	Imperative	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000	3.50	2.50	-1.54	.121
	Interrogative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	3.50	1.50	-1.54	.121	3.00	2.00	-.775	.439
Konkani	Declarative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	3.50	1.50	-1.54	.121	3.00	2.00	-.775	.439
	Exclamatory	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	2.00	3.00	1.00	.000	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439
	Imperative	2.00	3.00	-.775	.439	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	3.50	1.50	1.54	.121	2.50	2.50	1.00	.000
	Interrogative	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	1.50	3.50	-1.54	.121	3.00	2.00	-1.54	.439	3.50	1.50	-1.54	.121

From the table it can be seen that there were no statistically significant differences between males and females on all the F0 parameters analysed. This was a common finding for all the three languages.

On a comparison across Kannada, Tulu and Konkani, it can be understood that there were certain similarities and differences in the F0 terminal contours for the different sentence types. Declaratives had a falling pattern in all the three languages. This is similar to the findings in the studies done on declaratives in French, German and Chattisgarhi languages Bassano and Mendes (1994) and Raithel and Hielscher (2004), Manish, Chongtham and Rakesh (2008). Imperatives had a falling pattern in all the languages. This finding is similar to the study done in French by Bassano and Mendes (1994).

Exclamatory sentences had a raising pattern in Kannada and Konkani, which is a similar finding reported for English (Bolinger, 1972). Whereas, a falling pattern was seen for exclamatory sentences in Tulu. This is in accordance to the study done by Bassano and Mendes (1994) and Vivian and Hielscher, (2004), in this type of sentence in French and German respectively.

The pattern for the interrogative sentences in Tulu and Konkani were the same, a raising pattern. Similar results are reported for French and German languages (Bassano and Mendes, 1994 and Vivian and Hielscher, 2004). While in Kannada this raising pattern was seen for females but not for males. This finding is contrary to that of an earlier study by Suma & Manjula (2007), who reported that there was no significant difference, in the extent of rise (steep/ shallow) to mark a statement effectively as a question. The reason for the differences in the pattern between the genders is interesting to note, since it was seen only for the interrogative sentence. This could indicate that there are gender differences in the production of intonation. Though conflicting, it remains to be seen if this phenomenon is observed on larger samples.

Another interesting finding is that, on the acoustic analysis, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females for the parameters analyzed. But on the spectrographic analysis it was seen that there are differences in the overall pattern of the sentence between the genders. This difference could be assigned to the varied pattern of stress used by males and females. Also, the loci of stress were different for both the genders for all the different sentence types. This phenomenon needs further understanding, including larger sample sizes.

Conclusion

The present study has attempted to provide intonation patterns in the three languages Kannada, Konkani and Tulu. In comparison, Kannada, Konkani and Tulu there is a falling pattern observed in declarative sentence. Exclamatory sentence had a rising pattern in Kannada and Konkani and a falling pattern was observed in Tulu. Imperative sentences had a falling pattern observed. The pattern for the interrogative sentences in Tulu and Konkani were the same, a raising pattern. While in Kannada this raising pattern was seen for females but not for males. Another interesting finding is that, on the acoustic analysis, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females for the parameters analyzed.

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Appendix 1

Sentences in Kannada:

Declarative: /Iðu n^nnɑ: kɑ:ru/ (This is my car)

Imperative: /kitəki mutʃu/ (Close the door)

Exclamatory: /avəlu geðəlu/

Interrogative: /av^ru h3ðəra:/

Sentences in Tulu:

Declarative: /inð^ ennɑ: kɑ:ru/

Imperative: /k^ndi mutʃɑ:/

Exclamatory: /ɑ:l genðijɑ:l/

Interrogative: /ak^l pojəra:/

Sentences in Konkani:

Declarative: /œi m^d3i gɑ:di/

Imperative: /zanel ðɑ:mp^/

Exclamatory: /œə dzinklei/

Interrogative: /œi geleigi:/

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Nature of Sentence Intonation in Kannada, Tulu and Konkani

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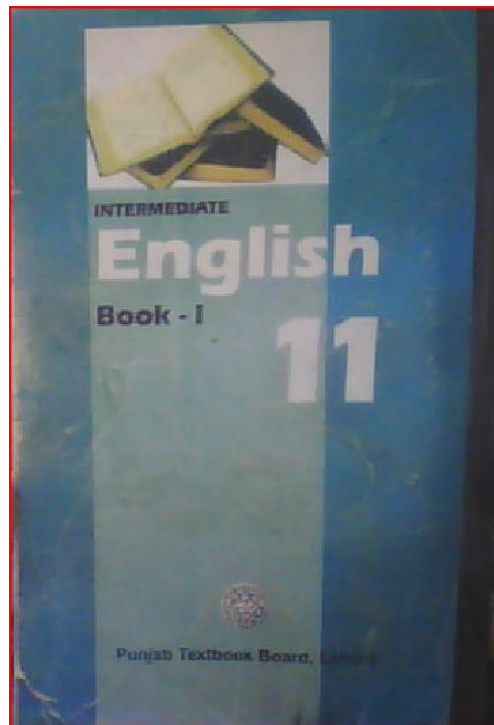
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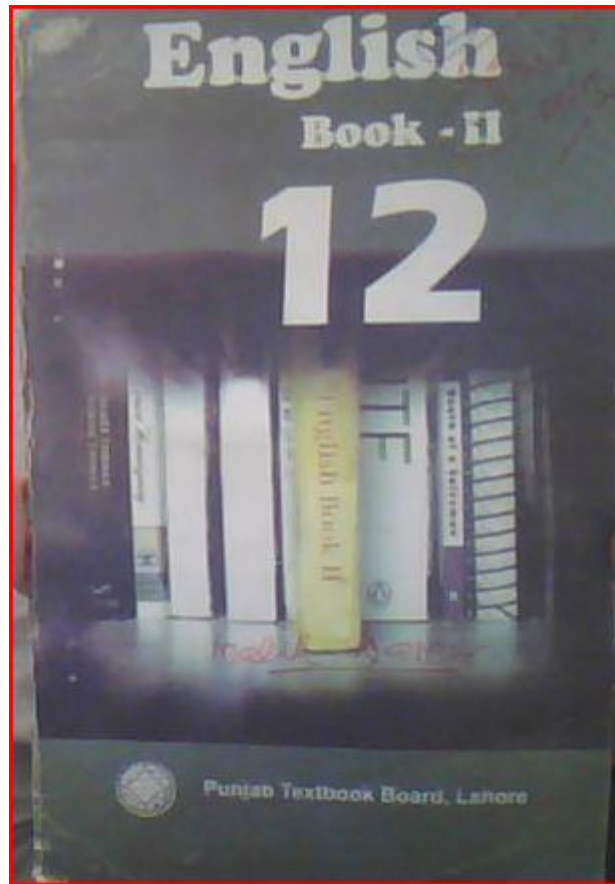
Abstract

This study aims at analyzing the four English language textbooks of intermediate classes in Pakistan. The textbooks are the approved course of Intermediate classes by Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Islamabad [FBISE], Pakistan and all the educational boards of the Punjab, Pakistan. The starting point of the study is that gender equality and gender equity are among the major concerns of the world today. This concern about gender equality has also been reiterated in the Pakistan Education Sectors Reforms 2001-2005, and National Plan of Action concerning Education for All [EFA] 2001-2015. But the current practices in education sector in Pakistan do not speak for it.

The study has been conducted by employing feminist perspective on the textbooks. The analysis uses the qualitative approach of Kabira & Masinjila (1997) framework of gender analysis. This model looks at the textbooks by raising a series of questions that expose the gender responsiveness of a text. This paper uses only one aspect named “language use” of the model to analyse the gender related language of the textbooks.

The results of the study show that in most of the textbook items language regarding gender issues is stereotypical and does not represent the present world realities. The study concludes that female gender has been demeaned and marginalized through the negative stereotyping of the language whereas male gender has been uplifted in the textbooks. Thus, the textbooks offer only the realities of the past which cannot be acceptable to females in the present world. Moreover, such type of biased use of language may impart negative impact on the minds of the students who study these textbooks on daily basis. Therefore, the study recommends that textbooks should be reviewed, and instead of gender biased and gender blind use of language in the textbooks, gendered balanced and gender aware language should be used in the English language textbooks.

Introduction



Gender equality and gender equity are among the major concerns of the world today. This can be seen on the UN agenda in different fields of life. Goal-5 of the international declaration of World Education Forum, Dakar Framework for Action 2000, is a pledge to achieve gender equality in education by 2015 (UNESCO, 2002). Pakistan also signed to follow the recommendations of Dakar Framework for Action 2000.

This concern about gender equality has also been reiterated in the Pakistan Education Sectors Reforms 2001-2005 (Govt. of Pakistan, 2002) and National Plan of Action concerning Education for All [EFA] 2001-2015 (Govt. of Pakistan, 2003). But the current practices in education sector in Pakistan do not speak for it.

In Pakistan, the issue of gender representation in textbooks has not been given much attention in the past. Yet, a few studies conducted in Pakistan in this area have found disparities between the portrayal of male and female in the curriculum (Jafri, 1994; Mirza, 2006; Mirza & Rana'a, 1999; Zeenatunnisa, 1989).

On the whole, the research on language and gender is scanty in Pakistan, and hence the present situation demands for further research in this area. In other parts of the world, through the linguistic analyses of textbooks, researchers have found gender bias at different levels. At the

word level, particular adjectives like beautiful, pretty and tall are often associated with women while words like poor, rich, strong, and young for men (Carroll & Kowitz, 1994; Glass, 1995). Lesikin (2001) states that at the sentence level, males are mostly placed in the position of communicative prominence and in the participants' roles males are often presented to have greater social prominence and power. Poulou (1997) reveals that at the dialogue level, females produce fewer utterances and words.

In this regard, it was observed by the researcher during his teaching of English language textbooks at intermediate level in Pakistan that there are language disparities in the representation of both genders in the said textbooks. Hence, the study has been designed to analyse whether there are differences in the use of language in the representation of male and female gender. The books chosen are the four English language textbooks of intermediate classes approved by Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education [FBISE] Islamabad and all the educational boards of the Punjab.

The purpose of this study is to raise the awareness of the teachers and course designers about the importance of gender balanced and gender aware language in textbooks because educational materials affect social values and behaviour of young learners, and gendered messages conveyed in textbooks have the potential to develop the biased attitude of learners towards the two sexes. As gender discrimination in textbooks can have a dangerous impact on the cognitive and behavioural development of young learners so it is possible that male and female students develop an unequal attitude towards a particular gender. Hence, considering the potential effects of gender issues in the textbooks, this area of language and gender has been chosen for investigation.

Method

The data has been analysed in the light of Forum for African Women Educationalist [FAWE] framework of gender analysis developed by Kabira and Masinjila (1997). FAWE framework employs five aspects to analyse the gender responsive of a text but this paper applies only one aspect of "language use" on all the four textbooks. In a broader context, this study adopts the feminist approach in exploring gender biases and gender inequalities in the representation of female gender through the language used in the textbooks.

According to this framework (Kabira and Masinjila, 1997, pp. 17-21), language is one of the most important and subtle ways of portraying gender biases through conventions of speaking and writing. For example, naming often takes on descriptive forms in texts, which influences our perception of certain characters or their actions. Naming or not naming is instrumental in shaping attitudes towards characters in a text. In language use, the *use of nouns and pronouns* is also very important.

Within this section the researcher should be able to focus on how nouns and pronouns are used as means for identifying characters. Researchers should be able to list gendered characters using the nouns and pronouns that refer to them and also identify and list common nouns used in the

text. Gendered pronouns should also be identified and quantified, and a special note made of the order in which they appear, i.e., how often does ‘she’ appear before ‘he’ and vice versa.

The model states that in language use, the *use of generics* is also very important. Generics are meant to be gender neutral. Some generics easily lend themselves to questions of their neutrality when they bear a clear male or female stamp in other forms of speech. These are for, example, words such as early man, businessmen, mankind, manpower etc. All these refer to men only in their gendered form but include women in their neutral usage to the extent that it is sometimes difficult to determine in what sense they are being used. Another area is the *use of vocatives*.

Analysis should also focus on the use of vocatives, or forms of address. This is because vocatives often bestow status, or demean, patronize or generally shed light on inherent attitudes towards the person or persons addressed. For example, if a male character constantly draws attention to the age and gender of a female character even when it is out of context by use of words such as “my dear young lady”, or when references such as “my dear” become the standard by which male characters address female characters and especially so when it is not applied in the reverse then one may want to question what the hidden attitudes and messages could be. In the analysis of language use, there may be *other gendered references and associations*. Some texts may consistently contain overt references with derogatory connotations towards women or men. For example, there may be a series of stories that refer to women as foolish. This may create an unfavourable image of the people referred to in these texts.

Results and Discussion

The results and discussion of the linguistic analysis of intermediate English textbooks on gender issues is as follows.

Intermediate English Book-1

In lesson one, *Button Button*, the stereotyping about the greedy nature of female gender has been exposed through the use of following words of Norma, when she tempts her husband for money: “doesn’t it intrigue you, too?” Here, these words of Norma show that she is stimulating her husband to push the button to get \$50,000 through unfair means, whereas, he rejects the temptation by saying, “It offends me” (p. 4). Moreover, the words like ‘impulsively’, ‘abruptly’, ‘shrieking’, ‘looked disgusted’ and ‘selfish’ have been associated with Norma, the wife. Whereas the words like ‘reading’, ‘smiled’, ‘shrugged’, ‘looked incredulous’, and ‘astounded’ have been used for Arthur, the husband (pp. 1-10). From feminist point of view these words demean the character of wife with comparison to her husband.

In lesson two, *Clearing in the Sky*, the words and phrases like ‘will power’, ‘hard work’ and ‘determination’ have been associated with Jess’ father, although he is an extremely old man. On the other hand, Jess’ mother has been kept in the background.

In lesson three, *Dark They Were and Golden Eyed*, the analysis shows no particular gender disparities apart from the epithet ‘nonsense’ (p. 30) which Harry associates with his wife Cora.

In lesson four, *Thank You Mam*, the female character Mrs. Luella Bates Washington Jones has been labeled as a ‘large’, ‘powerful’, firm and forgiving woman; whereas, the labels like ‘frail’ and ‘willow-wild’ have been attached with the boy Roger (pp. 42-46). Hence, this lesson is an exception from those lessons which exhibit gender stereotyping of male and female roles and show the male dominance and the female subordination.

Lesson five, *The Piece of String*, is gender biased in the sense that it does not include any female character, whereas the male characters/references in this lesson are ten. Consequently, this lesson revolves around male characters only.

Lesson six, *The Reward*, is also a male centred lesson. Except a single female reference of “ladies’ brilliant dresses” (p. 65) no other female reference or character has been presented. Hence, this lesson also rotates around male characters and ignores the female gender.

In lesson seven, *The Use of Force*, the husband exercises his commanding behaviour on his wife in the following words, “You get out”, and condemns her at one place by saying: “Do you want her to die of diphtheria?” (p. 76). This *action* of the husband is stereotypical of male domination and female subordination in family life. The linguistic analysis exposes that the words and phrases like ‘a big startled looking woman’, ‘valiantly’, ‘screaming’, ‘apologetic’, ‘attractive’, ‘yelled’, ‘instinctively’, ‘shrieked’, ‘terrifyingly’, ‘defensive’ and ‘hysterically’ have been used with the two female characters of the lesson, which are, most of the time, stereotypically used with the female characters with an exception of the word ‘valiantly’ (pp. 73-77). On the other hand, the male doctor/implied author associates the words like ‘furious’, ‘assault’, ‘attack’, ‘grasped’ and ‘overpowered’ with himself (pp. 73-77). All these words show the dominating nature of male gender.

Lesson eight, *The Gulistan of Sa’di*, keeps the female characters on periphery, stressing upon male characters. Female gender has been represented with the only one female reference of a word ‘mother’ (p. 86) with no further explanation, whereas male characters/references in comparison are twelve.

Lesson nine, *The Foolish Quack*, too has only one female character. Except the words like ‘foolish’, ‘villain’ and ‘wretch’ used for one male character of quack, other male characters have been represented in positive way with their masculine powers. Contrary to that, the only female character has been labeled as “the poor old creature” (p. 93).

In lesson ten, *A Mild Attack of Locusts*, the analysis of the language also shows that words like ‘shouted’, ‘yelled’, ‘pouring out of the compound’, ‘shouting excitedly’ and ‘giving orders’ have been used for the male characters (p. 101) whereas the words like ‘looking at the hills’, ‘stood watching the locusts’, ‘fearfully’ and ‘half-crying’ have been used for Margaret, the female

character of the lesson (pp. 101-103). These words portray the stereotypical nature of language used in the lesson.

Lesson eleven, *I Have a Dream*, is indeed a speech delivered by Martin Luther King, Jr., a male character and he is also addressing the male audience. Hence, this lesson is a male dominated lesson, seen from every angle and female characters remain missing in this lesson.

Lesson twelve, *The Gift of the Magi*, is the story of a couple. With reference to language, in the whole lesson, Della's 'beautiful hair' have been stressed, a quality which is normally connected with femininity whereas in contrast 'gold watch' of her husband has been stressed upon (pp. 120-125). Hence both the references seem to be stereotypical of their genders.

In lesson thirteen, *God be Praised*, the *activities* of all women characters have been mostly confined to the four walls of the home which is a stereotyping of their social roles. All the female characters are dependent on the male characters, or they are a kind of burden on the male characters. Especially, it is well depicted in the case of the wife and daughters of Maulvi Abul Barkat.

In lesson fourteen, *Overcoat*, for personality attributes the adjective 'tall' has been used for the young man of the couple roaming on Mall, whereas the adjectives 'short' and 'bulky' have been used for the girl (p. 148). Obviously, the personality attributes used for the female character humiliate her character in comparison to the attributes used for her husband.

In the last lesson, *The Angel and the Author and Others*, female characters are totally missing in this lesson. The whole lesson is about the author himself, as he is narrating a discussion that occurred between him and an angel about the good deeds that he (the author) had done in his life before his death.

Intermediate English Book-2

Book-2 is the second textbook of English for Intermediate classes. In this book, there are only a few lessons in which female characters exist in a real sense. In most of the cases, there are only the references of females and their characters have not been elaborated.

Most of the lessons are male-centred and based on male characters whereas female characters/references are invisible. In six out of fifteen lessons there are no female characters or references at all. These lessons are 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 11. Hence, the linguistic analysis under FAWE framework of gender analysis has been carried out only in those lessons in which both male and female characters/ references exist.

In lesson two, *Using the Scientific Method*, there is only one female reference with comparison to four male references. This female reference has been used in the following sentence: "Thrifty housewives preserved their home grown vegetables and fruits by canning, pickling, or drying them for use during the cold weather" (p. 8). This single female reference has also been linked

with the *activity* of home keeping. Hence, this single female reference is also stereotypical and gender biased.

In lesson four, *End of Term*, through the language use, the maid servant of the author's family has been made a laughing stock as her voice has been compared with the 'deep funeral tones' and her walk has been labeled as 'ominous tread' which are both the negative qualities associated with her character and humiliate her character in the lesson (p. 21).

In lesson eight, *China's Way to Progress*, the analysis of the language used in the lesson shows that "from a Western angle there is a lack of femininity in the Chinese women" (p. 48) and hence this aspect degrades the Chinese women with comparison to the Western women as far as their beauty is concerned. But on the other hand, there are also the positive qualities associated with them because the Chinese women have 'confidence', 'dignity' and 'an undoubted awareness' in them (p. 48). Overall, this lesson is an exception from those lessons which portray the negative stereotyping about female gender.

Lesson nine, *Hunger and Population Explosion*, does not include any female character/reference except this that the author of this lesson is female. Hence, this lesson is paradoxical from this stance that although it is written by a female writer yet revolves around male characters/references only. This aspect shows the patriarchal nature of human societies.

In lesson ten, *The Jewel of the World*, there is only one female reference of a 'nun' that also ends within one sentence, without any elaboration whereas most of the 16 male characters/references have been fully elaborated and praised. In short, the analysis shows that the whole lesson has been written from male perspective because all those matters have been included and discussed which highlight the male gender. The description of male characters shows them as great Muslim heroes of their time in the territory of Spain.

In lesson twelve, *Hitch-Hiking across the Sahara*, a male personality has been focused as a hero, and his adventures have been portrayed throughout the lesson. This biographical lesson includes only one female character in comparison to 23 male characters. The only female character is of the foster mother of Robert Christopher, the hero of the lesson.

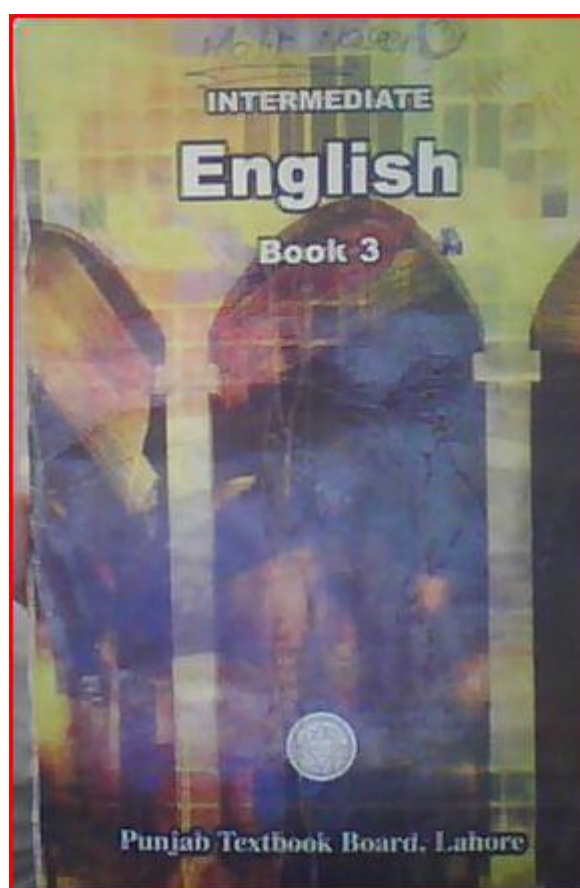
Lesson thirteen, *Sir Alexander Fleming*, revolves around the personality of the male hero of the lesson. In this lesson, among the three female references no woman has been assigned any personal role. Hence, their introduction with reference to their husbands undermines their own self identities as productive members of society. The third female reference of this lesson has been even more marginalized and disgraced as she has been labeled a 'forgetful Paddington housewife' (p.96). Thus, this role of a 'housewife' with the *visualization* of being 'forgetful' clearly demeans her character.

Lesson fourteen, *Louis Pasteur*, is also based on the life and works of the male hero of the lesson. The whole lesson spins around his towering personality and female characters/references can be seen only on periphery. The women in the silk district have been *visualized* getting up

“during the night to supply the worms with fresh mulberry leaves” (p. 108) an activity which confines them to their home in the context of the lesson. Pasteur’s wife has also been assigned no professional or social role and so her character has not been given due worth. Only in one reference, Pasteur’s little daughter of eight years has been visualized using microscope which uplifts female gender using technology.

Like the previous four lessons, the last lesson, *Mustafa Kamal*, is also based on the heroic deeds of its male hero. In this lesson also the very few female characters/references remain on periphery, with a little exception of a female medical practitioner. Her role is a rare exception from the negative stereotyping which is typical of the language textbooks.

Intermediate English Book-3



Book-3 comprises short plays and poems. There are total three short plays and 20 poems in this book. The linguistic analysis of this book on gender issues is given as under.

Plays Section

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Language and Gender - Linguistic Analysis of Intermediate English Textbooks in Pakistan

Book-3 starts with the play '*Heat Lightning*', therefore, the analysis of this book is started from this play. In this play all the *actions* of the two male characters are stereotypical of male gender for example 'helping', 'killing', 'chasing', 'pushing', 'rattling door viciously and casually behaving even in dangerous situations.

On the other hand, the only female character of this play acts in the way that is stereotypical of female gender, for example 'falling', 'sobbing', getting 'terrified', being 'chased', 'rushing', being 'out of breath', 'shuddering' and 'crying'.

The first man uses the vocative 'my dear' repeatedly, to overpower the girl which shows the male dominance over her. The stereotyping of male and female characters is very vivid in this play through different linguistic units. For example, the words and phrases like 'out of breath', 'hysterically', 'frightened', 'screamed', 'sobbing', 'going to faint', 'about to faint', 'cry out', 'nervous', 'pressed', 'upset', 'afraid of storms', 'muffled cry' and 'stunned' have been used for the girl demeaning her character. To the other side, the words and phrases used for male characters are like 'tall', 'pleasant looking' and 'nice looking' which uplift the male gender (pp. 2-14).

In Play-2, *Visit to a Small Planet*, there are two female and seven male characters/references mentioned. The two female characters are a mother, Mrs. Spelding, and her daughter, Ellen. From the perspective of language use, the adjectives used for female characters are like 'bored', 'vague', and 'lively' whereas the adjectives used for the male characters are like 'unctuous', 'resonant' and 'vigorous' (pp. 21-41).

In Play-3, *The Oyster and the Pearl*, there are ten male and three female characters/references. The most important female character is of Miss McCuthcheon who is a new teacher in the town and wants to get the poodle haircut to look more plain and simple. The second female character is of Roxana Larrabee, a small girl who brings with her an assortment of sea shells like other children when she enters the barber's shop accompanied by her brother named Clay. The third female character/reference is of Clay's mother whose behaviour seems to be overpowering because her husband has left home after writing the words 'enough's enough' (p. 52) on the kitchen wall.

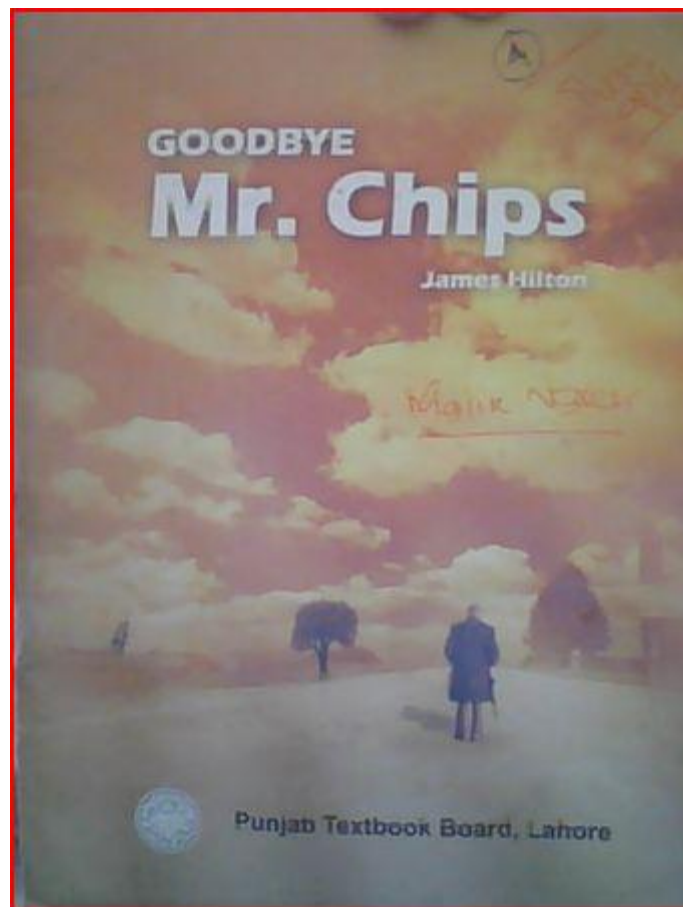
Although, in this play there is not much demarcation on gender basis yet even the most important female character 'Miss McCuthcheon' is subordinated by the dominant male character of Harry Van Dusen, a barber, who makes her a laughing stock in the play. The aspect of language use exposes that the words and phrases like 'blond hair', 'too pretty', 'too young', 'too intelligent' and 'bathing beauty' have been used for Miss McCuthcheon whereas the words and phrases like 'well dressed', 'swift', 'dressed neatly' and 'bewildered' have been used for the men folk which are stereotypical of both the genders (pp. 49-72).

Poems Section

In the Poems section, there are total twenty poems. In all twenty poems, there are only three female characters/references with comparison to twenty-four male characters/references. Among these three poems which include one female character/reference each, there is only one poem, *A Sindhi Woman*, in which the female character has been given as much space that her character can be elaborated to some extent.

In this poem, a Sindhi woman is carrying a stone jar on her head passing from the Karachi slums. Here, this action of roaming in the Karachi slums with no shoes and a jar on her head is an example of negative stereotyping of the women's social roles from feminist point of view. From the perspective of language usage, the qualities like 'bare foot', 'undulant grace', 'glide with a stone jar' and 'ripple in her tread' (p. 96) have been associated with the Sindhi woman in poem six. Hence, her description creates the image of a poor backward woman.

Intermediate English Book-4 (Novel)



The novel, *Goodbye Mr. Chips*, is the fourth English textbook of intermediate classes. It is a biographical novel written in retrospect by James Hilton. It consists of eighteen chapters. The

gender analysis of the novel as a whole, without dividing it into chapters is presented in the following sections, through the language analysis of FAWE framework of gender analysis.

Good-bye Mr. Chips, based on the life history of a male character, has only two main female characters; others are only the references of just a few women. One is the character of Katherine Bridges, wife of Mr. Chips, and the other character is of Mrs. Wickett, the land lady of Mr. Chips in whose house he is living after retirement from Brookfield School.

The first female character, Katherine, is a modern woman of the nineteenth century whose approach towards life is modern and she has very radical views about the gender and class/social disparities. Moreover, in personal life she tenders advice in all matters of life to her husband. Hence, her role does not present any particular negative stereotyping against female gender and her character is an exception from those female characters which demean and marginalize female gender. After marriage, the influence of Katherine on Chips was so much that he sought her advice approximately in all matters of life and school, and in 9 out of 10 cases he complied with Katherine's instructions as stated in the line, 'About once in ten times he was adamant and wouldn't be persuaded' (Chap. 4, p. 17).

The other female character in this novel is of Mrs. Wickett. She is the landlady of Mr. Chips but is very cooperative with him and serves him and his guests with tea. She has been in-charge of the linen room of Brookfield before her retirement. Her character has been associated with an activity of preparing tea to serve the key male character of the novel i.e. Mr. Chips and her guests. Mrs. Wickett, although, has the social role of serving Mr. Chips with tea yet she does not enjoy less power than Mr. Chips, as her role in the novel is of the landlady of Mr. Chips.

The overall representation of the two female characters in this textbook is much better than as it has been in other three textbooks. From the point of view of their occupational and social roles, Mrs. Wickett has been the in-charge of the linen room of the school and is the landlady of Mr. Chips. In the same way, the main female character, Katherine Bridges, has been a governess. Her role is also very positive and is not stereotypical of female gender from feminist point of view. In chapter four of the novel, she has been introduced as follows:

Her name was Katherine Bridges; she was twenty-five—young enough to be Chips's daughter. She had blue, flashing eyes and freckled cheeks and smooth straw-coloured hair....she rode a bicycle and was unafraid to visit a man alone in a farm-house sitting room....She was a governess out of job, with a little money saved up; she read and admired Ibsen; she believed that women ought to be admitted to the universities; she even thought they ought to have a vote.
(Chap. 4, p. 9)

On the other hand, in chapter eleven of the novel, Mr. Chips, Katherine's husband and the main male character of the novel, has been represented as a traditional old man. In the words of Ralston, his 'methods of teaching are slack and old-fashioned'; and his 'personal habits are

slovenly' (p. 25). He is a 'mixture of slackness and obstinacy' with his 'Latin pronunciation' (p. 25).

Conclusion

The gender analysis of textbooks in this study reveals the fact that there are many gender biases and gender inequalities in the use of language regarding both genders in intermediate English textbooks. The study shows that there is stereotyping in the representation of both genders. Female gender has been marginalized and demeaned whereas male gender has been highlighted and uplifted.

Mostly, female characters are oppressed, dependent on males, confined to their homes as mothers, housewives and home keepers. On the other hand, male characters are independent, free to adopt any profession and breadwinners of families.

In most of the cases, they have been assigned no professional roles. In social roles, they have been assigned the roles of home keeping, child rearing and serving their husbands or other members of their families. In short, they enjoy very limited or no powers with comparison to their male counterparts. The decision making in the family or social matters is also the authority of male members.

When textbooks are blamed for their gender blind treatment, there are also found different reasons for the unequal or biased gender representation. First of all, while the course outlines of textbooks are designed, the issue of equal gender representation is not considered. The textbook items are chosen without consideration to the time and space i.e. when and where they are to be taught.

Hence, the issue of gender equality generally remains unattended and neglected. Secondly, this remains the fact that textbooks items are not specifically designed for textbooks. Specifically speaking about the language textbooks, when a short story, essay, poem, play, biography or a novel is written by the respective author, it is not actually written for textbooks. The purpose of any piece of art is actually not that it will be included in the textbooks from a specific perspective like equal gender representation.

Consequently, it is the duty of the course designers to consider such issues. They should select those pieces of art for the textbooks which are balanced in such pertinent issues. The present study shows that most of textbook items which have been included in intermediate English textbooks do not correspond to the time in which they were written and in which they are being taught.

Many of the lessons are those pieces of art which were written about forty years back and they were written in the background of that time. Hence, they were good for that time in which they were written. Now they are somewhat out dated as the issues, needs and circumstances of the world have changed. In the modern world of today, where females are found in every field of

social and professional life, their images in the textbooks should also be shown corresponding to the reality. The women characters should not been shown in the past scenario and they should not be assigned the stereotypical social, family and non-professional roles.

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Appendix

Introduction to the Textbooks

The textbooks selected for this analytical study are the four English language textbooks of HSSC classes. These books are published by Punjab Textbook Board Lahore and are the approved textbooks of FBISE Islamabad, and all the educational boards of the province of the Punjab. The titles of the books followed by the contents of each book are as follows:

Intermediate English Book-1(Short Stories)

- Lesson No. 1 *Button Button* by Richard Matheson
- Lesson No. 2 *Clearing in the Sky* by Jesse Stuart
- Lesson No. 3 *Dark They Were and Golden-Eyed* by Ray Bradbury
- Lesson No. 4 *Thank You, M'am* by Langston Hughes
- Lesson No. 5 *The Piece of String* by Guy de Maupassant
- Lesson No. 6 *The Reward* by Lord Dunsany
- Lesson No. 7 *The Use of Force* by William Carlos Williams
- Lesson No. 8 *The Gulistan of Sa'di* by Sheikh Sa'di
- Lesson No. 9 *The Foolish Quack* (Folk Tale)
- Lesson No. 10 *A Mild Attack of Locusts* by Doris Lessing
- Lesson No. 11 *I Have a Dream* by Martin Luther King, Jr.
- Lesson No. 12 *The Gift of the Magi* by O. Henry
- Lesson No. 13 *God be Praised* by Ahmed Nadeem Qasmi
- Lesson No. 14 *Overcoat* by Ghulam Abbas
- Lesson No. 15 *The Angel and the Author- and Others* by J. K. Jerome

Intermediate English Book-2(Essays)

- Lesson No. 1 *The Dying Sun* by Sir James Jeans
- Lesson No. 2 *Using the Scientific Method* by D. Barnard & L. Edwards

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- Lesson No. 3 *Why Boys Fail in College* by Herbert E. Hawkes
 Lesson No. 4 *End of Term* by David Daiches
 Lesson No. 5 *On Destroying Books* by J. C. Squire
 Lesson No. 6 *The Man Who Was a Hospital* by Jerome k. Jerome
 Lesson No. 7 *My Financial Career* by Stephen Leacock
 Lesson No. 8 *China's Way to Progress* by Galeazzo Santini
 Lesson No. 9 *Hunger and Population Explosion* by Anna Mckenzie
 Lesson No. 10 *The Jewel of the World* by Philip K. Hitti
 Lesson No. 11 *First at Harrow* by W. S. Churchill
 Lesson No. 12 *Hitchhiking Across the Sahara* by G. F. Lamb
 Lesson No. 13 *Sir Alexander Fleming* by Patrick Pringle
 Lesson No. 14 *Louis Pasteur* by Margaret Avery
 Lesson No. 15 *Mustafa Kamal* by Wilfrid F. Castle

Intermediate English Book-3(Plays and Poems)

- Play No. 1 *Heat Lightning* by Robert F. Carroll
 Play No. 2 *Visit to a Small Planet* by Gore Vidal
 Play No. 3 *The Oyster and the Pearl* by William Saroyan
 Poem No. 1 *The Rain* by W. H. Davies
 Poem No. 2 *Night Mail* by W.H. Auden
 Poem No. 3 *Loveliest of the Trees, the Cherry Now* by A. E. Housman
 Poem No. 4 *O Where Are You Going?* by W.H. Auden
 Poem No. 5 *In the Street of the Fruit Stalls* by Jan Stallworthy
 Poem No. 6 *A Sindi Woman* by Jan Stallworthy
 Poem No. 7 *Times* (Taken from Ecclesiastes, 3, 1-12)
 Poem No. 8 *Ozymandias* by P. B. Shelley
 Poem No. 9 *The Feed* by Ahmed Nadeem Qasmi
 Poem No. 10 *The Hollow Men* by T. S. Eliot
 Poem No. 11 *Leisure* by W. H. Davies
 Poem No. 12 *Ruba'iyat* by Allama Muhammad Iqbal
 Poem No. 13 *A Tale of Two Cities* by John Peter
 Poem No. 14 *My Neighbour Friend Breathing His Last!* by Bullah Shah
 Poem No. 15 *He Came to Know Himself* by Sachal Sarmast
 Poem No. 16 *God's Attributes* by Jalaluddin Rumi (Translated by Dr. Nicholson)
 Poem No. 17 *The Delight Song* by N. Scott Momaday
 Poem No. 18 *Love - an Essence of All Religions* by Jalaluddin Rumi
 Poem No. 19 *A Man of Words and Not of Deeds* by Charles Perrault
 Poem No. 20 *In Broken Images* by Robert Graves

Intermediate English Book-4 (Novel: Goodbye Mr. Chips)

Goodbye Mr. Chips is a novel by James Hilton. This novel is the fourth textbook of English for HSSC classes. This is a novel written in retrospect and comprises eighteen chapters.

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Malik Naseer Hussain, M.Phil., Ph.D. Scholar and Ayaz Afsar, Ph.D.

Language and Gender - Linguistic Analysis of Intermediate English Textbooks in Pakistan

The paper is derived from the Principal Author's M.Phil. thesis submitted to International Islamic University Islamabad, Pakistan.]

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**Development of Punjabi-Hindi Aligned Parallel Corpus
from Web Using Machine Translation**

Gurpreet Singh Josan, Ph. D.
Jagroop Kaur, M. Tech.

Abstract

Aligned parallel corpus plays a vital role for research in various automatic NLP tasks. A constantly increasing resource for collecting parallel text is the World Wide Web. This paper discusses a novel approach for collecting parallel text for language pair Punjabi-Hindi. We use Machine Translation and DOM for finding parallel text from internet. The collected text is of heterogeneous nature and is aligned at word level with high precision. The approach discussed in this paper guarantees high quality parallel data in short time span.

1. Introduction

Recent advancements in natural language processing are largely based on statistical approaches. The parallel corpus plays a vital role in statistical approaches as it allows empirical studies for various applications of NLP as language studies, machine translation, cross language information retrieval, bi-lingual lexicon development etc. Parallel corpus is a collection of original texts translated to another language where the texts, paragraphs, and sentences down to word level are typically linked to each other.

There exists multi language parallel corpus like Europarl, Bible, and OPUS etc. as well as bi lingual parallel corpus like ISJ-ELAN Sloveign English, English Chinese, English Norwegian parallel corpus etc. English enjoys the privileges when it came to the creation of parallel corpora. Most of the time, it is one of the two languages in the pair. Also the size of available corpus is limited. Another constraint is the limited domain. Most of existing corpora are developed from either government documents or from Newswire texts. There is a scarcity of parallel corpora for any other language pair excluding English particularly among Indian

languages. The problem is a big barrier in the development of NLP applications involving Indian Languages.

World Wide Web is a constantly evolving source of a parallel text. Electronically accessible information is available on the web and is increasing day by day. The web mining seems to be a promising and can be used for building parallel corpora for the under privileged and minority languages. Collecting parallel corpus particularly for resources starved languages from the internet is among the challenging problems in NLP tasks. This is not a trivial task at all for the huge network makes the process very labor intensive. Besides there are the chances that useful documents are mixed up with garbage and high quality translations are mixed up with garbage.

Therefore, scientists have designed several systems to automate this construction process. The idea leads to the development of software for automatic discovering parallel text on World Wide Web such as BITS (Xiaoyi and Liberman, 1999), PTMiner (Chen and Nie, 2000), and Strand (Resnik, 1998; Resnik and smith, 2003) etc. This paper describes a technique for automatic generation of parallel corpora for Punjabi and Hindi. We will try to utilize best possible techniques available and supplement these techniques with additional resources. We will show why the already present systems are not suitable for our work and then we describe how a machine translation system helps in identifying and then aligning the parallel corpus obtained from the web.

2. Existing systems

(Resnik, 1998) proposed a simple method based on the anchor tag. A simple query is posted to Altavista to locate the pages that point to a pair of pages which contain an anchor text indicating the language of its parallel text. This is the case for an Index.html file which contains pointers to two parallel texts anchored as “English version” and “French version”. However this simple method can only catch a small part of all the parallel pages. A lot of other parallel pages do not satisfy this condition.

PTMiner (Chen and Nie, 2000) uses the method described by Resnik and also employed file name matching. File name matching is based on the fact that the translated version has same resemblance in file name like same file name in respective language name folder or same filename with respective language suffixes e.g.

..../hindi/file.htm and/Punjabi/file.htm Or/abc/file_h.html and
..../abc/file_p.html

The outstanding feature of PTMiner is the ability to effectively reject false pairs prior to downloading them. (Chen et.al. 2000) uses parallel text identification system (PTI) which includes content analyzer module in addition to above mentioned techniques. This module measures the semantic similarity by using bilingual dictionary. BITS (Xiaoyi et.al, 1999) provides a different approach. All pages from a specified domain are crawled exhaustively. Their language is determined by a language detector and all possible combinations of these pages (a full cross product) have to be examined to find matches. In this proposal, a bilingual

dictionary has been used to perform matching at word level between parallel documents. This approach is easy to understand yet very time-consuming.

STRAND (Resnik, 1998; Resnik and Smith, 2003) has a similar approach to PTMiner except that it handles the case where URL-matching requires multiple substitutions. Structural filtering with a tuning parameter optimized by using Machine Learning gives it the ability not to examine all possible combinations like BITS. (Resnik and Smith, 2003) also proposes a content-based matching method as in (Xiaoyi and Liberman, 1999) but similarity is measured in a different way.

The parallel text identification system was developed by (Jisong, Chau and Yeh, 2004) for collecting parallel corpus from the web. A filename comparison module and a content analysis module are used to measure the semantic similarity between two pairs. They report recall rate of 0.96 and precision rate of 0.93. Another Automatic Acquisition of Chinese-English Parallel Corpus from the Web was performed by (Ying, Wu, Gao, and Vines, 2005). They used various features for candidate selection like anchor text, image alt attribute text etc. Extractions of candidate pair is done by pattern matching and edit distance similarity measure. They use KNN classifier for parallel text validation. (John Fry, 2005) also described a method of collecting parallel data from RSS feed.

2.1 DOM Tree Alignment Model

The Document Object Model is a platform- and language-neutral interface that will allow programs and scripts to dynamically access and update the content, structure and style of documents. It defines the logical structure of documents and the way a document is accessed and manipulated. (Lei, Cheng, Ming and Gao 2006) described a DOM based model for extracting parallel data. They claim the precision of system by using DOM to be 97.2%. Reduced bandwidth cost and improved mining throughput are some other benefits of their approach.

3. The Approach

For building Punjabi Hindi parallel corpus, the potential source is a news website <http://www.webdunia.com/> which is published in eight languages besides Punjabi and Hindi. It was observed that when presenting the same content in two different languages, authors exhibit a very strong tendency to use the same document structure (e.g., Figure 1)

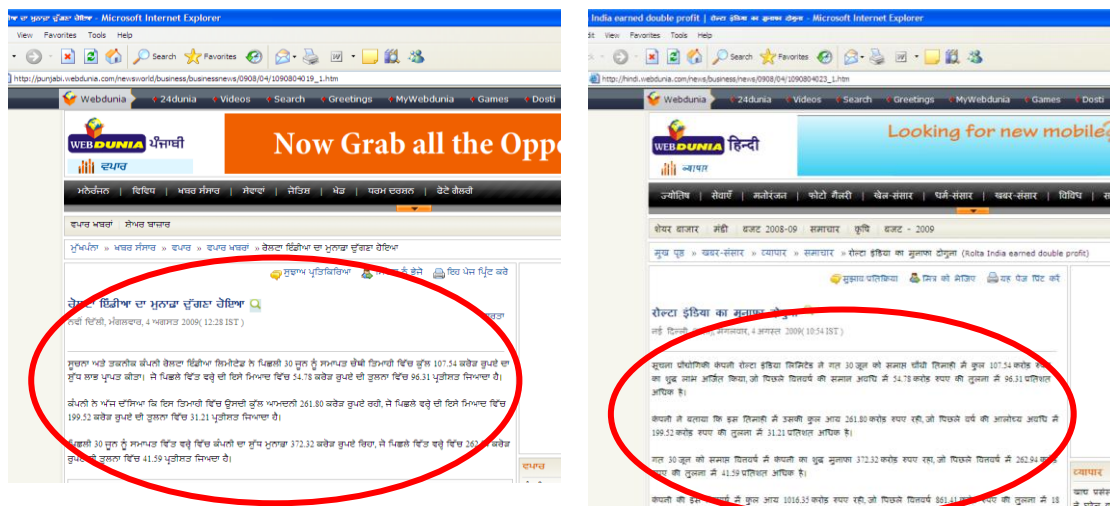


Figure 1 (a and b) Web Pages Showing same contents and similar page structure in Punjabi and Hindi (Similar contents circled)

Although the website contains lot of text in both languages, the collection of parallel text is not straightforward. The above discussed techniques are non-effective for the task in hand due to various reasons. First, the two versions of website don't use the anchor tag to point the other version. Second, the bilingual websites hosted by Webdunia uses varied naming schemes. E.g. a news item “ਆਤਮਘਾਤੀ ਹਮਲਿਆਂ ਨਾਲ ਦਹਿਲਿਆ ਕਾਬੁਲ” in Punjabi has file name http://punjabi.webdunia.com/newsworld/news/international/0902/11/1090211025_1.htm whereas its Hindi version “आत्मघाती हमलों के साथ दहला काबुल” has filename http://hindi.webdunia.com/news/news/international/0902/11/1090211133_1.htm.

We can see that the website uses numeric figures to identify the files which has no correspondence with other version. This means we can't use the file name for identifying the potential targets as done by PTMiner. Similarly the approaches used by PTI system and BITS are too much time consuming. Structural filtering in STRAND (Resnik and Smith, 2003) cannot be applied since all pages from a news website share the same structure.

The current system for collecting parallel text in Punjabi and Hindi is designed by keeping the above mentioned drawbacks. The system is shown in figure 2. It takes advantage of the machine translation system for converting source language text in target language text and then searches the web by posting the translated text to Google search engine. The result is filtered for the text retrieved from only webdunia host which is hosting Hindi version. Following are the implementation steps:

1. Select the source text from <http://punjabi.webdunia.com/>
2. Retrieve all the anchor tags.
3. For each anchor tag, retrieve the text between start and end anchor tag.
4. Translate the retrieved text using Punjabi to Hindi Machine Translation System.
5. Post the translated result to a search engine (Google in our case).
6. From the result obtained from the search engine, select only those which are retrieved from webdunia domain.

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7. From the retrieved urls, fetch the page.
8. Perform sentence alignment (Described below)
9. Perform word alignment. (Described below)

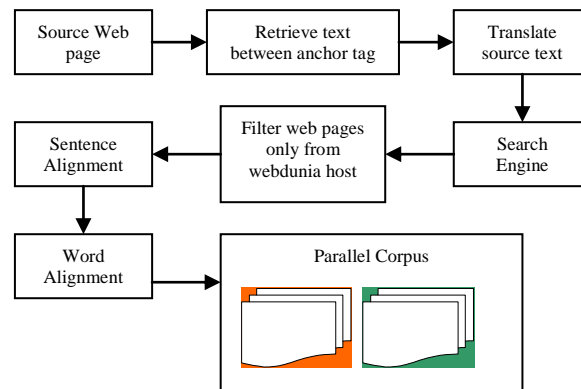


Figure 2 Modules in parallel corpus developer Machine Translation System

Machine translation system plays a pivotal role for collecting parallel corpus. The efficiency of system is limited by the accuracy of MT system. There is also a possibility that an MT system provide different wording for the same source concept. The MT system developed by (Josan and Lehal, 2008) is used for machine translation purpose. The following shows some output of Punjabi-Hindi translation:

Punjabi text: ਪੰਜਾਬੀ ਮੇਰੀ ਮਾਂ ਬੋਲੀ ਏ।

Translated Hindi Text: पंजाबी मेरी मातृभाषा है।

TT: pañjābī mērī māṃ bōlī hai.

G: Punjabi my mother tongue is.

E: Punjabi is my mother tongue.

4. Sentence alignment

There are number of sentence aligning algorithms. Some are based on the sentence lengths like (Brown, 1991; Gale and Church, 1993). Chen (1993) did considerable amount of work on English-French corpus using lexical information. Bharati et.al. 2002, describe an algorithm for aligning sentences with their translations in a bilingual corpus using lexical information of the languages with a precision of 94.3%. Singh and Husain, 2005 has evaluated several algorithms for sentence alignment and suggested some guidelines for English Hindi sentence alignment.

This is quite obvious that alignment algorithms that use lexical information offer a potential for high accuracy on any corpus. We also tried to do sentence alignment using machine translation and document object model. Each element of HTML page is treated as one paragraph. For increasing the algorithm speed, we select only leaf nodes of DOM tree as these nodes contain the data that we are interested in. We found that the website designers use the same class name for the tags in corresponding files that contains parallel data. This helps us to quickly find the parallel text. If class name is not available then for each leaf node Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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tag in source file, the contents are translated and matched with the corresponding tags in the target file.

The possible parallel paragraphs can be identified by using a matching score function. The scores are obtained by matching the tokens of translated text and target language text. Different scoring functions can be used to calculate the score of match. The function used is same as that employed by Bharati et.al. 2002:

$$score(S, T) = \frac{N}{M}$$

Where N=Number of matching tokens
M=Maximum_of(source tokens, target tokens)
S: Source sentence T: Target sentence

The paragraphs are marked parallel if more than 70% of tokens match with the target text.

5. Word Alignment

For each aligned paragraph, the tokens of each sentence are translated and matched with the tokens of target sentence. The matching tokens are marked as aligned words. The tokens whose translated match is not found are marked as candidate tokens for word alignment as shown in following example:

Table 1 Word Alignment example

Punjabi text	ਵਿਅਕਤੀਗਤ	ਸੂਚਨਾਵਾਂ	ਵਿੱਕਰੀ	ਲਈ	ਇੰਟਰਨੈਟ	'ਤੇ
Translated Text	व्यक्तिगत	सूचनाएँ	बिक्री	के लिए	इंटरनेट	पर
Actual Hindi text	व्यक्तिगत	सूचनाएँ	बिक्री	हेतु	इंटरनेट	पर

For the sentence in above example, more than 70% tokens of translated text are matched with actual text. So this sentence is marked as parallel text. The matching tokens are marked as aligned words as shown by arrows in the table. As shown in above table for the word ਲਈ the translation produced is के लिए but target text contains हेतु. So लਈ and हेतु are marked as candidate tokens. Algorithms may be developed further to check whether हेतु can be a target of लਈ or not.

6. Results and Discussion

We manually examine 200 randomly picked pairs. The system gives 96.7% sentence level precision i.e. 96.7% of selected sentence pairs are actually parallel. At word level the figure is 95.5%. To find out the quality of the mined parallel corpus, 2000 sentence pairs were randomly taken from results and evaluated manually by two persons on the scale of three points as follow

Scale	Degree of Parallelness	Example
1	Exact parallel	ਮਾਈਕ੍ਰੋਸੌਫਟ ਨੇ ਆਪਣੇ ਸਭ ਤੋਂ ਲੋਕਪ੍ਰਿਅ ਮੈਸੇਂਜਰ, ਐਮਐਸਐਨ ਮੈਸੇਂਜਰ ਨੂੰ ਬੰਦ ਕਰਨ ਦਾ ਫੈਸਲਾ ਕੀਤਾ ਹੈ। ਮਾਈਕ੍ਰੋਸੌਫਟ ਨੇ ਅਪਣੇ ਸਭ ਤੋਂ ਲੋਕਪ੍ਰਿਅ ਮੈਸੇਂਜਰ, ਐਮਐਸਐਨ ਮੈਸੇਂਜਰ ਨੂੰ ਬੰਦ ਕਰਨ ਦਾ ਫੈਸਲਾ ਕੀਤਾ ਹੈ।
2	Roughly parallel	ਜ਼ਿਆਦਾ ਪਾਣੀ ਪੀਣ ਨਾਲ ਜ਼ਹਿਰੀਲੇ ਤੌਤ ਸਰੀਰ ਵਿਚੋਂ ਬਾਹਰ ਨਿਕਲ ਜਾਂਦੇ ਹਨ। ਪ੍ਰਤੀਕ ਦਿਨ 8-10 ਗਿਲਾਸ ਸਾਫ਼ ਪਾਣੀ ਪੀਣੇ ਤੋਂ ਸ਼ਰੀਰ ਤੋਂ ਰਹਿਣ ਵਾਲੇ ਜ਼ਹਿਰੀਲੇ ਪਦਾਰਥ ਬਾਹਰ ਨਿਕਲ ਜਾਂਦੇ ਹਨ।
3	Not parallel	ਖੂਬ ਪਾਣੀ ਪੀਣ ਨਾਲ ਜਵਾਨ ਅਤੇ ਫੁਰਤੀਲਾ ਦਿਸਿਆ ਜਾ ਸਕਦਾ ਹੈ। ਭੋਜਨ ਦੇ ਤੁਰੰਤ ਬਾਦ ਪਾਣੀ ਪੀਣੇ ਤੋਂ ਸ਼ਰੀਰ ਸੁੱਕਾ ਹੁੰਦਾ ਹੈ।

Table 2 Quality analysis scale

The results are as follow:

	Exact parallel	Roughly parallel	Not parallel
No. of Sentences	1634	258	108

Table 3 Quality Analysis Results

One drawback of our method is that it is dependent upon the quality of translation system. If the translation system produced the wrong translation or the translation considerably different from the text available in Hindi sites then the probable good candidate document may get skipped. E.g. in following sentence

News heading in Punjabi site:

ਜੈਕਸਨ ਦੇ ਡਾਕਟਰ ਦੇ ਕਲੀਨਿਕ 'ਤੇ ਛਾਪਾ
{Raid on clinic of Jackson's doctor}

After Translation:

ਜੈਕਸਨ ਦੇ ਡਾਕਟਰ ਦੇ ਕਲੀਨਿਕ ਪਰ ਛਾਪਾ

Actual Text in Hindi News Site:

ਮਾਈਕਲ ਜੈਕਸਨ ਦੇ ਡਾਕਟਰ ਦੇ ਕਾਰਿਆਲਯ ਪਰ ਛਾਪਾ
{Raid on office of Michael Jackson's doctor}

In this sentence, Punjabi version uses the word **ਕਲੀਨਿਕ** where as English version use the word **कार्यालय** which can never be translated by the machine. Also note that Hindi version contains full name i.e. **माइकल जैक्सन** while Punjabi version contains only last name i.e. **ਜੈਕਸਨ**. This leads to the failure of search engine to get the target document from the internet.

7. Conclusion

Our experiment shows how internet can be helpful to quickly assemble a parallel corpus. In the case of our Punjabi-Hindi corpus, we supplemented the algorithm to perform sentence and word level alignments based on DOM on the fly. We collected 6,129 article pairs in a short time. Although the figure is not much attractive but we are sure to assemble more parallel data in future. The main features of our system are that the data collected is from variety of news and articles making it a heterogeneous collection, has less noise, and we get word level alignment in a short time span. The quality and rate of growth of our system are stable.

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**Paralinguistic and Non-Verbal Props in Second-Language Use:
A Study of *Icheoku* and *Masquerade* in Nigeria**

Diri I. Teilanyo, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper discusses the use of ideophones, gestures and dramatic physical demonstrations in complementing speech by incompetent users of a second language, namely English. The paper demonstrates that while similar instruments are also used by native speakers of a language for emphasis and rhetoric, they are employed by linguistically handicapped users of a target non-native language more often to prop their speech in order to achieve communication since their knowledge of the resources of the target language are insufficient to attain the purpose. Illustrations are drawn from two Nigerian mass media comedies, ***Icheoku*** and ***Masquerade***, which are parodies of the challenges posed by the use of English in societies where it is a foreign or second language.

Keywords: paralanguage, non-verbal language, ideophones, props, gestures, dramatic demonstrations

1. Introduction

A little learning is a dangerous thing. (Alexander Pope 1773: 1863).

This paper studies the role of paralinguistic and non-vocalic devices in the speech of individuals who are incompetent users of their target second or foreign language, where the devices serve the purpose of propping their impaired communication skills in order to attain intelligibility. Illustrations are drawn from two Nigerian electronic mass media comedies, **Icheoku** and **Masquerade**. These are radio and television series which are designed largely to parody the manifestations of these features and other non-standard elements in the use of English by real-life subordinate bilinguals. The characters whose language use is focused upon are the main heroes of the two series, the Court Clerk in **Icheoku** and Chief Zebrudaya Okoroigwe Nwogbo, alias 4.30 of **Masquerade**.

The study of second-language acquisition and learning has been characterized largely by the discussion of sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic issues as well as the identification, description and correction of errors. Not enough attention seems to have been paid to the paralinguistic and non-vocalic aids in attaining communicative competence by non-proficient users of the foreign or second language.

It has been argued that full grammatical competence may not be necessary to achieve communicative competence (Canale and Swain 1979: 11-12). Thus, where users of a language do not have sufficient mastery of the resources of a target language -- and this may apply as much to a first, native language as to a second, non-native language -- they often apply paralinguistic and non-verbal aids to complement their speech. For example, a major stage in a child's development, prior to the acquisition of the vocabulary of even a native language is the use of non-verbal cues (such as producing some sounds that are unrecognizable in any language) or some non-vocalic apparatus (such as pointing to objects and persons).

The devices referred to here are different from those employed by competent native or non-native speakers of a language for emphasis or rhetorical effect. Prosodic devices like pitch, intonation, tone, etc. as well as non-verbal cues like dressing, gesture, facial expression, gesticulation, etc. may all be employed by both native and non-native users of a language for reasons other than incompetence in the use of the language in question. In our case, the devices are employed as aids not only to supplement (as with competent speakers) but to complement language in order to achieve intelligibility at all, or because the user is ignorant of the appropriate words to express the relevant concepts.

In his effort to identify and define a standard for spoken English in Nigeria, Ayo Banjo (1969) identified four varieties of the language. The variety we discuss here would be the first which is a basilectal variety, so distant from internationally standard English that its speakers, to whom English is largely a foreign language (especially in **Icheoku**), often have to resort to these non-verbal aids to express themselves.

The terms 'paralanguage' (with its study 'paralinguistics') and 'non-verbal communication' are used in different ways in linguistics, often with significant overlap in range of reference between them.

Thus, Katie Wales says ‘definitions of paralanguage vary considerably, according to what is included or excluded’ (1985: 334). She regards paralanguage as ‘a non-verbal, but vocalic system, along with prosodic features such as pitch and loudness,’ its characteristic features being ‘noises that do not function as phonemes (i.e. in building words), but nonetheless do communicate a “meaning” or attitude in speech: e.g. giggles, snorts, exclamations of disgust, disapproval, boredom, etc’ (Wales 1989: 334). She notes, however, that ‘other definitions include prosodic features also...and still others non-vocal signs like facial expressions and gestures, hence virtually synonymous with non-verbal communication’ (Wales 1989: 334).

Hadumod Bussmann is more specific in his characterization of paralanguage. From his definition of paralinguistics, we observe that he conceives it in broader terms than Wales does. He considers paralanguage as denoting ‘phonetic signals of non-verbal character (i.e. signals that cannot be linguistically segmented)’ such as ‘particular types of articulation and phonation (breathing, murmuring, whispering, or clearing one’s throat, crying and coughing), individual types of language (pitch, timbre, rhythm of speech) and intonation’ (Bussmann 1996: 347). Like Wales, he admits: ‘many researchers include... non-vocal, non-verbal actions (kinesics)’ (Bussmann 1996: 347).

Both writers also explain ‘non-verbal communication’ in a manner that suggests an overlap with paralanguage. Both divide it into vocal and non-vocalic dimensions: i.e. ‘those means of communication which depend on the voice of utterance...; and those which depend on other parts of the body (facial expression, gestures, kinetic movements, etc.)’ (Wales 1989: 322-323). She adds, however, that ‘non-verbal’ is very frequently used in the sense of ‘non-vocalic’ (Wales 1989: 323).

For the purpose of this paper, we use the term ‘paralinguistic’ in the strict sense to mean those vocalic devices besides ‘words’ that are used to aid verbal communication. The main paralinguistic tool discussed here is the ideophone. On the other hand, we use ‘non-verbal communication’ in the sense of ‘non-vocalic’ means such as kinesics, body motion or action behaviour (Okolo and Ezikeojiaku 1999: 53), that is, human communication that excludes the use of the vocal apparatus. Physical gestures and dramatizations belong here.

The use of non-standard language for creative or artistic purposes in second-language contexts has, until recently, suffered significant neglect among sociolinguists and stylisticians. Thus, Braj B. Kachru, while discussing four functional aspects of non-native ‘Englishes’, has lamented the lack of research into the ‘imaginative / innovative’ function of the ‘pidginized or “broken” variety’ (Kachru 1983a: 41). He adds:

The creative processes displayed in the literatures have been ignored in the linguistic studies, to the detriment of studies on stylistics, contrastive discourse, and language acculturation. This neglect reflects the dichotomy of theories and

methodologies which has traditionally existed between linguists and literary critics. (1983b: 9)

He observes further that ‘this [creative] aspect of non-native English has unfortunately not attracted much attention from linguists, but has now been taken seriously by literary scholars’ (Kachru 1983a: 41).

With specific reference to the language of Chief Zebrudaya in **Masquerade**, Ayo Banjo has suggested that this neglect (or oversight) is probably because some regard this variety as ‘aesthetically inferior’ to World Standard English (Banjo 1979: 11), especially in the face of much concern with ‘literary language.’ Thus, the use of non-standard language in **Icheoku** and **Masquerade** has received little critical attention.

Little is found on the use of language in **Icheoku**. Nengi Ilagha (!995) mentions it in relation to **Masquerade** and other Nigerian soap operas. Banjo has specifically called attention to the English spoken by Zebrudaya, especially in terms of ‘aesthetic considerations’ (Banjo 1979: 11). David Jowitt (1991: 37) has also made reference to the language of Chief Zebrudaya in his discussion of varieties of ‘Nigerian English,’ noting it as ‘severely sub-standard English’ (1991: 51). Elugbe (1995: 297) has also discussed it, especially citing it as an instance of ‘deliberately and exaggeratedly incorrect English’ as distinguished from ‘Broken English.’

Ben Ohi Elugbe and Augusta Phil. Omamor (1991: 61-66) have treated it, comparing its structure to those of standard English and Nigerian Pidgin, concluding that ‘Zebrudaya’s speech is in fact characteristic of the substandard attempts of a large proportion of ill-equipped, illiterate Nigerians to manipulate the English language...obviously deliberately exaggerated for comic effect’ (66). While they cite a few utterances from the texts, they stop short of engaging in any exercise that could be considered analytical, rigorous or systematic.

Ilagha (1985) suggests a nationalistic impetus for Zebrudaya’s variety: ‘Zebrudayans may merely be twisting the poor language so grotesquely so as to make us feel ashamed of it. Just so that in the end, we might decide to vote for an indigenous national language, possibly by the year 2000.’ Ilagha also associates ‘the falling standard of education’ in Nigeria with Zebrudaism which ‘does violence to English grammar.’ He observes that ‘a terrible Zebrudaya plague has been footloose on the country.’

While the language used by these two speakers may appear idiolectal (even idiosyncratic – for Zebrudaya), it must be emphasized that they are sociolinguistic ‘types’; hence ‘the variety of English which is being parodied does exist outside the NTV studios, and in many cases is the only variety its speakers are capable of’ (Banjo 1979: 11).¹ Elugbe and Omamor (1991: 66) also say it is ‘in fact characteristic’ of a significant section of Nigerians.

These works have, however, received, quite some more serious academic attention of recent (Teilanyo 2003a, 2003b).

2. Texts and Methods

The primary texts are randomly selected episodes of the two electronic media comedy series **Icheoku** and **Masquerade**. Neither series is in print (in their published forms), but only available in electronic forms. **Icheoku** is a television series produced by the Nigerian Television Authority (NTA), most of the episodes by the Lagos national headquarters and a few by the Enugu national station. Therefore, the texts are in an audio-visual medium, videotapes. Copies of these videotapes have been secured from the relevant authorities in Lagos, Enugu and Abuja for this research. **Masquerade** is available in both the audio-visual and the audio media (as videotapes and as long-playing records/audiocassettes). These are commercially available.

For the study of **Masquerade**, we have chosen the episodes in the audio medium because this medium presents to us certain linguistic and paralinguistic features which are not as conspicuous or significant in the audio-visual medium where pictorial props tend to reduce their prominence through visual compensation. The combination of the purely oral-aural in **Masquerade** with the visual in **Icheoku** brings a fuller picture of the patterns and issues in second-language use. Fifteen episodes have been randomly chosen from each series (video episodes and LPs/audiocassettes) and faithfully transcribed for the analysis of the different of non-standardness in the language.

The choice of the two series is also significant from the point of their cultural and temporal setting. The main characters in both comedies are subordinate Igbo-English bilinguals, Igbo being their mother tongue. This gives ground for the identification and analysis of similar features in their language use, particularly from the angle of language transfer. But there is also a historical angle in the choice. **Icheoku** is set in the early and middle stages of British colonialism in Nigeria.

Thus, we have an advantage of having a feel of the dynamics of the English language at that time when it was essentially a **foreign** language, serving an instrumental function between a few native bilinguals and an external audience (the British nationals in Nigeria).

The show captures the entire gamut of communication -- speaking, comprehending, reading, writing and translating -- in a foreign language. Hence the name **Icheoku**, meaning 'Parrot,' the bird that is best associated with verbatim, stereotyped reproduction of speech, which is what the Court Clerk does in parroting, that is relating, the utterances of the District Commissioner (Nwa Dishi) or District Officer (henceforth 'D.O') and the local Igbo community, one to another.

Masquerade is set in contemporary Nigeria where English is a **second** language serving an integrative function in a multilingual setting, but it casts a shadow back on the colonial period. Chief Zebrudaya, the hero and main user of the language variety under study, had been to the world wars and had worked as a security guard in a colonial hospital. Thus the combination of the two gives us both diachronic and synchronic dimensions of the dialectics and fortunes of the

English language, as it developed from the status of a foreign language to that of a second language in Nigeria.

A word also needs to be said about the authorship of these texts. Although the scripts of episodes produced as films and radio-television drama are written by individuals, their authorship would best be ascribed to the body producing and presenting them, since the text as produced normally involves much more than what is found in the written script. Accordingly, it is the producing and presenting body that owns the copyright.

Out of the fifteen episodes of **Icheoku** that are studied, all eleven produced by the NTA Headquarters, Lagos were written by Peter Eneh. Two of the four produced by the NTA Enugu were written by Emeka Nwagwu and one by Sarah Ezeudoye, while one has no script writer identified. Therefore, authorship is ascribed to NTA Lagos and NTA Enugu respectively.

Secondly, while all the episodes produced by the Lagos headquarters have titles, those produced by Enugu NTA have no titles. We cite the titles of those produced by the Lagos NTA. For ease of reference to those by the Enugu NTA, we suggest our own titles for them (enclosed in square brackets in the Works Cited) based on the issues dealt with in them.

For **Masquerade** all the texts are named. The LPs and audiocassettes are produced under two troupe names, to which their authorship is ascribed, namely, 'James Iroha and the Masquerades' (henceforth 'Iroha') and 'Zebrudaya and His Concert Party' ('Zebrudaya' henceforth).

The specific episodes cited in this paper, in alphabetical order, are as follows:

Icheoku

'Bride of War'
'Bush Burning'
'The Missing Entrail'
'Sisi Agee'

Masquerade

'Death for Jegede'
'Governor for Sale'
'Senior Sinner'
'Stop the Wedding'
'The Teeth of a Goat'
'Unholy Baptism'
'The Visit of Mr. Bewitch Bankrovitch'
'Woman Contractor'

For **Icheoku** the analysis is aided on some occasions by the English sub-titles provided in the videotapes for utterances rendered in Igbo by the Court Clerk, other court officials (the Court Messenger, CM, and the Police Sergeant), parties in disputes and members of the audience. In a few cases, the English sub-titles have been edited, mainly correcting spelling errors. Where an utterance was produced in Igbo and an English sub-title is supplied, the English sub-title is cited. These sub-title renderings are enclosed in square brackets, to indicate that the original utterance had not been in English. [While stage descriptions are also in square brackets, these are italicized, as is the convention with most drama in print] Giving only the English version serves economy and the interest of the non-Igbo reader, who may find the Igbo unduly distracting. The analysis also benefits from three bilingual dictionaries – Kay Williamson’s Igbo-English Dictionary (1972), H. I. Nnaji’s Modern Igbo-English Dictionary (1995) and Michael Echeruo’s Igbo-English Dictionary (2001).

In addition, Igbo native speakers have also been consulted as informants and resource persons about the meanings and stylistic nuances of unfamiliar lexical items or expressions, including those that involve a fusion of English and non-English items.

In the primary texts, the main characters involved in the dislocations of language are the two principal characters in the two comedies – Chief Zebrudaya Okoroigwe Nwogbo, alias 4.30 (‘Zebi’ hereafter) in **Masquerade** and the Court Clerk (‘the CC’ hereafter) in **Icheoku**.² These two characters are significant in the character of English in their societies. The CC is the only individual in the fictional pre-independent Igbo (Nigerian) society who has any knowledge of English. He is the interpreter to the colonial District Officer (D.O) who acts as a judge among the native population. Similarly, Zebi is one of the few who have been to Europe, during the Second World War, and acquired some English from native speakers. Both claim much knowledge of English, although the dislocations in their use and interpretation of literary usage as well as the general ungrammaticality in their English proclaim their deficiency in the language.³

3. Ideophones

Ideophones, according the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) (1989), are ‘particular classes of onomatopoeia and sound symbolic words found in [Bantu] languages.’ Ideophones obtain predominantly, although probably not exclusively, in African languages. They feature prominently in discourse and are part of the identity of African orature. In addition to sound, different senses are mimicked by ideophones, such as ‘an idea in sound’ (from the etymology *ideo* – ‘idea’ and ‘phone’ – ‘sound’), ‘colour, smell, action, state or intensity’ (OED) as well as texture, silence, condition, gait and posture (Finnegan 1970: 64). Essentially ideophones constitute a paralinguistic device. Ideophones are known to be efficient in heightening the narrative in addition to being an element of drama, giving a lively style or vivid description and

achieving overall rhetorical effect. Finnegan (1970: 64, 66) also quotes Fortune and Junod as having given the following similar reports:

They are used by accomplished speakers with an artistic sense for the right word for the complete situation, or its important aspects, at the right pitch of vividness. To be used skillfully, I have been told, they must correspond to one's inner feeling. Their use indicates a high degree of sensitive impressionability. (Fortune)

[It] expresses a little word, a movement, a sound, an impression of fear, joy or amazement. Sensation is immediate and is immediately translated into a word or a sound, a sound which is so appropriate, so fitting, that one sees the animal moving, hears the sound produced, or feels oneself the very sensation expressed. (Junod)

In structure, ideophones act in different grammatical slots; hence the literature labels them variously as nouns ('mimic noun,' 'intensive noun' – Finnegan 64), adjectives and adverbs ('descriptive or adverb' – OED, 1989), particle ('descriptive or indeclinable verb particle' – Finnegan 1970: 61) or interjection in sometimes expressing some forceful or strong emotion or action and ending in the exclamation mark (Finnegan 1970: 65). Indeed, ideophones function in all these capacities and more. Other structural tendencies of ideophones are reduplication, the occurrence of the same vowel (often phonetically long) in each ideophone to constitute vowel harmony, their clustering in groups and their frequent beginning in initial kp. More properties of African ideophones and the challenge of translating them, particularly into non-African languages, have been discussed elsewhere (Teilanyo 2001).

Ideophones are carried over by Africans into their L₂. Among speakers of non-standard English, they are very prominent and serve two main purposes: that of intensification of an idea already expressed, and that of substitution for lexical items that are unavailable to the incompetent speaker of English as a second language.

In **Masquerade**, where they are most prevalent, most of the ideophones serve the first function of adding descriptive detail and vivid imagery:

1. ...you will be took band to be knock it in the town – '**Gbom-gbom**, money have come; **gbom-gbom**, money have come; **gbom-gbom**, money have come.' (Zebrudaya n.d)
2. ...so that any money they are charge you, you will be run **kati-kati**, **kati-kati**, **kati** to be brought it. (Iroha 1987)
3. Look at osorji which even small childrens are chop without even one chuhai!; ol' man like you was chop it to be cry **chuhai!** **chuhai!** (Iroha n.d,a)

4. (a) Even the bucket one woman was took to carry water from the well of Mgboko; before she are carry the water to reach the market, the bucket was kpaf bottom, and the water -- **iwo-o-o-o** on the ground.
- (b) But to my greatest surprisaton, you was carry me, the whole me, Chief the Honourable Zebrudaya Okoroigwe Nwogbo, alias 4.30 – **iwo-o-o-o!** into the inside of the river. (Iroha n.d,b)
5. She will be talk parrot – **kirikiri-kirikiri-kirikiri-kirikiri!** (Iroha n.d,b)
6. Stood back to be open your mouth of talkative – **choin-choin-choin-choin-choin-choin!** (Iroha n.d,b; also Iroha 1986)
7. **Gbagam, gbagam, gbagam!** – ‘Fear the Lord!’ (Iroha n.d,b)
8. Adamu, Adamu, put your mouth in the permanent condition of **phum!** (Iroha n.d,c; Iroha n.d,d)
9. The other day, Governor was pass to open hotel – **igbua, igbua, igbua, igbua!** (Iroha n.d,c)
10. Then why are you shout **cheihun, cheihun, cheihun!** this morning? [sighing] (Iroha n.d,d)

The ideophones in 7-10 go beyond intensification of sense. The actually perform a lexical function. **Gbagam, gbagam** does the function of ‘They ring their big bells loudly and proclaim...’ **Phum** in 8 stands for ‘silence’ or ‘muteness.’ **Igbua, igbua, igbua** communicates the idea of ‘briskly,’ ‘swiftly.’ But in each case, even if the speaker had access to the English lexical item suggested, it would hardly be able to embody and express the iconicity captured by the ideophones.

In **Icheoku**, and sometimes in **Masquerade**, the ideophone is employed for the second purpose -- to compensate for a lexical item that is beyond the reach of the speakers. We cite two vivid examples:

11. C.C. Day before yesterday in my afsent, my wife kill fowl and eat his, eh, his **belly**...
 D. O. Oh this is -- I have a lot of problem here. First of all, I don’t know what you mean by this belly of a fowl.
 C.C. Is the thing wey dey, wey dey fowl for the bele. When you jus cut-am dey chop am, e dey make **kpri-kpri** for the mouth.
 D. O. I see. I think it’s the **gizzard**. (NTA 1988a)
12. The right leg are long pass the left leg, which are make her to be wakaring in the **ringom, ringom, ringom**. – (Iroha n.d,e)

In 11 the CC lacks the word “gizzard” to convey the idea to the English District Officer; so he resorts to the ideophone **kpri-kpri** mimicking the sound that is produced when one chews this poultry internal organ. In 12, which describes a gait in walking (‘wakaring’), the lexical item ‘limp’ would convey the idea, but only roughly: it cannot ape the sense of it in its full iconic vividness as much as the ideophone has done.

4. Non-Verbal Communication

The two related elements of non-verbal communication considered here are gestures and dramatic demonstrations. These are used to complement or replace verbal communication. Gestures and demonstrations obtain predominantly in **Icheoku**, largely because of its audio-visual nature. The CC often falls back on them to express a meaning for which he lacks the appropriate English word.

4.1 Gestures

In **Icheoku** the C.C, when confronted with concepts for whose correct English equivalents he has no access to, resorts to different physical gestures and gesticulations with different parts of his body, especially his arms.

13. C.C. When he jus **boilding**, take spoon **boild** at the soup... [gesturing the turning of something with a spoon with his hand]
D.O. ‘**Stir.**’ That’s ‘stir.’ (NTA 1988a)
14. C.C. I saw Ochudo with his handbag like a hunter. He put it in his **pushack**... [gesturing with both hands on his shoulder]
D.O. You mean ‘**shoulder.**’
C.C. For the shoulder. Thank you, sir, For Your Worship. (NTA 1992)
15. C.C. E say the first woman, in the morning we want to **pursue** water.
D.O. Pursue water?
C.C. Pursue water.
D.O. What is it?
C.C. [Gesturing the use of a bucket to draw water out from a well] Like going bring water.
D.O. To **fetch** water; to fetch water.
C.C. Yes, sa. (NTA 1988b)
16. C.C. The woman say im no want them to carry their, their, their... [demonstrating the act of pounding with his hands] their, their, em, I mean ikwe .
D.O. What’s ikwe? What is it?
C.C. Calculating by, **mortar** [demonstrating pounding]. Mortar. (NTA 1989)

In all but the last instance, the C.C does not have the appropriate English words for the concepts. He rambles with un-English words (**boild(ing)** and **pushack**) or uses the wrong word (**pursue**). In 16 the C.C uses the Igbo word, lacking its English equivalent, but in this case, after demonstrating the pounding act, he finally redeems himself by remembering the word “mortar.” It is only with the gesticulations that the District Officer deduces the sense and supplies the right words, to the interpreter’s relief.

4.2 Demonstrations

Sometimes in **Icheoku**, simple gestures are insufficient to communicate the desired sense by the C.C to the District Officer, necessitating more elaborate demonstrations, bordering on drama sketches:

17. C.C. He put it for his shoulder, begin to felling all the four corner of the... [gesturing]
 D. O. You mean he **staggered**.
 C.C. Ehn, when he standing. [Kotuma, come and demonstrate to D.O]
 C.M. Chuoi!
 [C.M. staggers in demonstration.]
 C.C. Ehen, for your eye witness.
 D.O. [As the C.M continues staggering in a frenzied manner] OK. OK. Stop him. What’s wrong with you?
 C.C. Yes, sir. Ochudo begin do as the Court Messenger show you now. All the corner. When e go bush, e come out, e fall down. (NTA 1992)
18. C.C. The traditionary: the two men will **rasle**. Anybody who carry the each the other man down, na im go, e don win the **rasle**, sir.
 D.O. Eh. You say **rasle**, **rasle**.
 CC. **Rasle**, sir...
 D.O. What’s **rasle**? Let me understand you very well. Just get it gradually. What is **rasle**?
 C.C. The **rasle**. [To CM] [Show him how to wrestle]
 D.O. What is it?
 C.C. They want to show you, what is call **rastle**. [The CM and one other man come out and wrestle briefly]
 Is OK. Is OK. Is OK.
 D.O. Oh, ‘**wrestling**’ you mean!...[Both the D.O and the CC laugh hysterically] (NTA 1988c)

Observe that in 17, the C.C is not able to catch the right word ‘stagger’ even when the D.O uses it; at least he needed to get it acted out to be sure the D.O’s word is the one appropriate for the sense intended. In 18, the acting out is necessitated not so much by lack of the right word as by the defective pronunciation of this word ‘wrestle.’

5. Conclusion

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Paralinguistic and Non-Verbal Props in Second-Language Use: A Study of *Icheoku* and *Masquerade* in Nigeria

In the above sections it has been demonstrated that in addition to the several non-standard features at the different levels of linguistic organization, the use of language in non-native settings is also often marked by paralinguistic and non-verbal aids, all in an attempt to achieve communication in the target language of which the speaker has inadequate mastery. The specific aids discussed here are ideophones, gestures and drama sketches. It is argued that **Icheoku** and **Masquerade** from which illustrations have been drawn are fictional illustrations of real-life practices. In **Icheoku** communication of the total sense is important in order to ensure justice since the aim of the language is to interpret testimonies to the English District Officer. In quite some cases, however, even these props fail; communication fails and justice is consequently impaired or denied.

The discussion here contributes to understanding more fully the elements that are involved in achieving intelligibility by non-proficient users of foreign or second languages.

Notes

1. These abbreviations feature in the works themselves. 'C.C' is used in the list of cast and dramatis personae in **Icheoku**. 'Zebi' is the pet form that Ovuleria, the chief's wife, uses to call, and refer to, her husband. A graphological variant of it is 'Zebby' (Ikhazuagbe).
2. As will be seen in the excerpts to follow, there are several aspects of 'non-standardness' in the English studied here – phonological, grammatical, lexico-semantic and stylistic. Only the use of paralinguistic and non-vocalic elements are treated here, other aspects having been treated or to be treated elsewhere.
3. In the excerpts below, ideophones as well as the words and expressions resulting in paralanguage, gestures and dramatization are in bold print, in order to mark them off from the rest of the utterances in which they feature.

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Economic Perspectives and Life-style Characteristics of the Aged Population in Tamil Nadu

R. Hariharan, M.A., M.Phil.

N. Malathi, M.Sc., M.Phil., Ph.D.



Introduction

Population aging is one of the consequences of fertility, mortality and health transitions of a region or country over a period of time. The increase in the aged population reflects decrease in child population, which in turn, favours the lower fertility, increase in the labour force and also additional economic burden of the aged population in terms of health, housing and related expenditures.

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Population ageing is emerging as a serious problem in many South Asian Countries. The growth rate of the population aged 60 and above exceeds that of national populations. The elderly in South Asian Countries face many problems such as insolvency, loss of authority, social insecurity, insufficient recreational facilities, lack of overall physical and mental care, problems associated with having arrangements etc.

In India, the life expectancy has gone up from 20 years in the beginning of the 20th Century to 64 years today. Better medical facilities, care and low fertility made the elderly the fastest growing section of the society. The persons above 60 years of age are classified as aged persons in India. It took more than 100 years for the aged population to double in many countries in the world. But in India it has doubled in 25 years, 12 million elderly people in 1901 have been increased to 77 million in the year 2001. It has been estimated that the elderly population will reach 177 million in the year 2025.

Affected by Socio-economic and Health Problems

The aged population is affected by various socio-economic and health problems and lifestyle behaviours, especially in rural areas. These problems result from rural-urban migration, urbanization and industrialization, which pave way for the break-down of joint family system, growing loneliness and other related problems in the rural areas. These factors coupled with the emergence of nuclear family system and modernization increase the number of old-age homes in urban areas.



In many countries of the world, government and non-government organizations strive to safeguard the aged population in terms of their health and economic sustainability. As the government of India is making efforts in controlling population through fertility reduction

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and dissemination of small family norm, there is a possibility of constant increase in the aged population in the coming years.

Study of the socio-economic and lifestyle characteristics of the aged population will help in planning, policy formulation and programme implementation in tackling the problems of the aged to a great extent.

The objective of this paper is to study the socio-economic and lifestyle characteristics of the aged population in Thozhuthalangudi village under Nagappattinam district of Tamil Nadu.

Overview of the Literature

There have been many research efforts in studying the socio-economic and lifestyle characteristics of the aged population both in developed and developing countries in order to improve and sustain the welfare of the aged like other segments of the population. The economic prosperity of the aged population is low compared to the condition in their working age. The economic sources of the aged, thus, emerge from various menial sources with low level.

According to Smeeding and Saunders (1998), economic support in old-age generally comes from several sources: own earnings, social insurance for retirement, private savings, and occupational pensions. As for the trend of population ageing in India, the older population faces a number of problems to which it adjusts in varying degrees. These problems range from the absence of ensured and sufficient income to support them, and the absence of social security. This poor economic support to the aged population is due to poverty condition of the family as such.

Sivaraju (2005) observes that the vast majority of families in India have incomes far below the level that would ensure a reasonable standard of living. It is estimated that 33 percent of the population is below the poverty line. Nearly 90 per cent of the total workforce is employed in the unorganized sector, and older persons retire from gainful employment without any financial security. Older widowed women are one of the most vulnerable groups in India.



In recent past, studies (Kumudini, 1996; Axel, et al., 2001; Cutler, et.al. 2006; Hurd and Rohwedder, 2006; and Deaton, 2007) were carried out on different socio-economic and health dimensions and their relationships between and among each other on the aged including income, expenditure, saving, and health and lifestyle behaviours in relation to the welfare of the aged.

Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the present study are: (1) to study the social differentials of aged population in Thozhuthalangudi village under Nagappattinam district of Tamil Nadu; (2) to study the economic differentials of the aged population in terms of monthly income, savings and expenditure on different purposes of day-to-day needs; and (3) to study the lifestyle characteristics of the aged population.

Data and Method

The present study was based on primary data collected from 120 aged persons, more than one third of the total aged population living in the sample village, comprising 60 males and 60 females. In order to give an equal representation for five-year age groups, viz., 60-64, 65-69 and 70 years and above, the respondents were selected based on the stratified and disproportionate sampling methods. The required data such as age, sex, religion, caste, marital status, completed years of education, type of family, family wealth, income, savings, borrowings, and family expenditures on various items such as food, non-food and medical aspects, lifestyle consumptions such as tea/coffee, betel leaves, smoking, tobacco, and drinks were collected with the help of a well-administered pre-tested interview schedule. The data collection was done during the period of two months, January–February, 2010. The multiple regression analyses are used for the analysis of data.

Profile of the Study Area

The district Nagapattinam district, located on the eastern part of Tamil Nadu, was selected purposely for the present study. It is one of the backward districts in the state and its development mainly depends on agriculture and fishing closely followed by prawn farming.

Within this district, Thozhuthalangudi village, a hamlet of Thozhuthalangudi Panchayat, was selected on simple random sampling method. This village is located near Myladuthurai, a small temple town. As per the records available with office of the Village Administrative Officer (VAO), the study village has 326.28 hectares of total land area with 576 occupied houses.

Data, based on 2001 Census, shows that it has a total population of 3014 persons comprising of 1600 males and 1414 females. The elderly population was 315 comprising of 150 males and 165 females. This village has one middle school, one Primary Health Centre (PHC) with two medical officers and one ANM and service for all the 24 hours. The village has also one private clinic. Fifty percent of population in the village was engaged as agricultural labourers, 30 percent were land owners and remaining 20 per cent were involved in other occupations. Total cultivated land area was 425 acres and 80 percent of it was irrigated. The major crops cultivated in the village were paddy, sugarcane and black-gram.

Results and Discussion

The results are discussed in the sub-headings such as: social differentials of the aged population, economic differentials of the aged population; and lifestyle differentials of the aged population in characteristics of the aged population Thozhuthalangudi village of Nagapattinam district in Tamil Nadu.

Social Characteristics of the aged Population



Table 1 deals with social characteristics of the respondents, viz., sex, religion, community, type of family, marital status and education. The results reveal that among the total respondents (120), majority were males (44) and were under the age group of 65 and above years and in the reverse situation in the female respondents. More than three-fourth of the aged persons belonged to Hindu religion and remaining individuals were Christians. But in the communitywise classification most of them (78) were from the scheduled castes and remaining aged persons were equally distributed in the BC and MBC caste categories. Among SC respondents, majority of the aged were 70 and above years.

As far as the marital status of the total respondents, four-fifth (98) of them were married, only a few of the female respondents were widows. Data on family system of the respondents reveals that majority of the respondents were following joint family system (22) as against a few with nuclear family system (19).

In terms of education, majority of the respondents were illiterates (37) compared to the respondents with primary level education (12) and high school level education.

Table 1
Number of respondents by their Social characteristics

Social characteristics	60 - 64 years	65 - 69 years	70 & above years	Total
	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(N=120)
Sex				
Male	16	22	22	60
Female	24	18	18	60
Religion				

Hindu	32	26	36	54
Christian	8	14	4	26
Community				
BC	16	6	--	22
MBC	8	6	6	20
SC	16	28	34	78
Marital status				
Married	34	34	30	98
Widow	6	6	10	22
Type of family				
Nuclear	10	12	16	38
Joint	30	28	24	82
Education				
Illiterate	22	28	24	74
Up to Primary	8	8	8	24
High School	10	4	8	22

Source: Computed from Primary Data

Economic Characteristics of the Aged Population



Table 2 explains the economic characteristics of the respondents. The economic characteristics are discussed in terms of wealth, income, savings and borrowings of the respondents' households. All the respondents were having household assets. The average value of all the household assets was Rs. 755152. The household assets were classified into

physical assets and financial assets. The physical assets are land, livestock, cycle/moped, radio/TV, fan, furniture and house building, and the financial assets are gold, bank deposits and cash in hand. Among the total respondents, nearly 90 percent were having physical assets and their average value of physical assets was Rs. 39599. The average value (Rs. 42316) seems to be somewhat lower than that of the respondents aged 70 years and above. More than three-fourth of the respondents' households were having financial assets. The overall average value of financial assets was Rs. 146121. This value also seems to be somewhat lower than that of the respondents aged 65-69 age group category.

The income of the respondents' households was classified into aged persons earning income, non-aged persons earning income and other sources of income. The overall average income was Rs. 129216. Among the respondents, the respondents aged 60-64 years earned more income. The average income was higher than that of the respondents of other age-group. The average value of non-aged earning income was also higher for the age group of 60-64 years. Out of the total respondents, the average value of other sources of income was Rs. 33188. This value is lower than that of respondents aged 65-69 years. Out of the total respondents, only 74 respondents had the practice of saving, and their average saving was Rs. 39567. Bank deposits and savings from Life Insurance Corporation of India (LIC) were equally distributed but their average saving entirely varies. The LIC savings of respondents aged 64 years and above was so high compared to overall LIC savings. The respondents used to borrow from LIC and banks only. Among the total respondents, one-sixth had the practice of borrowing. Out of the total borrowers, most of the respondents used to borrow from bank only (14) and the average amount was high among the respondents aged 70 years and above.

Table 2

**Number and mean of wealth, income, savings and borrowings (in rupees)
of the respondents by their age category**

Category	60 – 64 years		65 - 69 years		70 years & above		Total	
	N	Mean	N	Mean	n	Mean	N	Mean
Wealth	40	743868	40	781666	40	747049	120	755152
Physical assets	36	38692	36	37993	34	42316	106	39599
Financial assets	30	144779	30	159241	32	136175	92	146121
Annual Income	40	141150	40	135920	40	110580	120	129216
Aged	22	15818	24	15500	12	14000	58	15310
Non-aged	40	119640	40	117720	38	103389	118	113755
Other sources	18	28466	8	44500	10	32640	36	33188
Savings	22	27336	26	31838	26	32030	74	39567

LIC	14	31428	18	34444	18	34444	50	33600
Post Office	10	4240	8	2975	8	3350	26	3576
Bank deposits	12	9916	20	9200	20	9300	52	9403
Borrowing	8	27750	6	31666	4	32500	18	30111
LIC	--	--	4	12500	4	7500	8	10000
Bank	8	27750	4	35000	2	50000	14	33000

Note: Wealth= Household wealth; Income= Annual household income; Saving & Borrowing= Calculated for the last two years only

The table 3 examines the annual income of the respondents currently and before 60 years by level. The annual income of the respondents was higher (Rs.1,00,800) among respondents aged below 60 years and lower (Rs. 10,800) among respondents aged 70 years and above. But the mean income was higher (Rs. 41,340) among the respondents in the age group 65 to 69 years. The current income was higher (Rs. 30,000) among the respondents aged below 65 years. But the mean income was a little bit high higher among the same respondents. The overall relative mean income of the respondents was 41 percentages. The relative income was higher among the respondents aged below 65 years and lower among aged 70 years and above.

Table 3
Relative Income of the Sample Aged Persons

Category	60 – 64 years	65 - 69 years	70 & above years	Total
Annual income before 60 years				
Minimum	18000	21600	10800	10800
Maximum	60000	72000	100800	100800
Mean	30540	41340	40020	37300
Current annual income years				
Minimum	6000	6000	6000	6000
Maximum	30000	24000	18000	30000
Mean	15818	15500	14000	15310
Relative mean income (%)	51.8	37.5	35.0	41.0

Source: Computed from Primary Data

Note: Relative mean income= (Current year income / Income before 60 years)*100

The Table – 4 explains that the there are three categories of expenditure met out by aged population i.e., food expenditure, non-food expenditure and medical expenditure. It is found that there is a negative relationship between food and non-food expenditures and age of the aged population, higher is the age of the aged population and lower is the food and non-food

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expenditures. The average food and non food expenditures for the respondents in the age-group 60-64 years were Rs.975 and Rs.900, and for the respondents aged 70 years were Rs. 640 and Rs.830 only. Meanwhile, the average medical expenditure was somewhat stable among the respondents age above 60 years. Overall, the food expenditure decreases vice versa with the increase in the medical expenditure. These factors assure that there is an inverse relationship between food and medical expenditure for the respondents above 60 years. The overall average non food expenses are comparatively lower than the food expenses.

Table 4

Average Consumption Expenditure of the Sample Aged Persons (Rs. in Monthly)

Category	60 – 64 years	65 - 69 years	70 & above years	Total
	n = 40	n = 40	n = 40	N = 120
Food Expenditure				
Minimum	500	400	300	300
Maximum	5000	2000	2000	5000
Mean	975	685	640	766
Non-Food Expenditure				
Minimum	500	500	500	500
Maximum	2000	2000	2000	2000
Mean	900	855	830	861
Medical Expenditure				
Minimum	50	100	200	50
Maximum	5000	5000	5000	5000
Mean	975	936	980	953

Source: Computed from Primary Data

Table 5

Sources of Monthly Consumption Expenditure of the Sample Aged Persons

Category	60 – 64 years	65 - 69 years	70 & above years	Total
	n = 40	n = 40	n = 40	N = 120
Food Expenditure				
Self	12	8	12	32
Spouse	8	4	4	16
Son/Daughter	18	26	24	68
Friends	2	2	--	4
Non-Food Expenditure				
Self	8	8	12	28

Spouse	10	8	6	24
Son/Daughter	20	20	22	62
Friends	2	4	--	6
Medical Expenditure				
Self	6	4	6	16
Spouse	6	2	2	10
Son/Daughter	16	22	22	60
Government	8	10	10	28

Source: Computed from Primary Data

Table 5 explains the sources of monthly consumption expenditure of ageing population. There are three categories of expenditure met out by ageing population i.e., food expenditure, non-food expenditure and medical expenditure. Out of the total respondents, more than half of the respondent receives amount from their son and daughter to meet out their food expenditure, non food expenditure and medical expenditure. The food expense by son/daughter of respondents (13) in the age-group 65-69 years was more but non-food expense by them was equal among the respondents of all the age-group categories. The medical expense by son/daughter of the respondents aged 64 years and above was more, which is because of ageing. Out of the total respondents, nearly one-fourth (14) of the respondents received some money from Government to meet their medical expenditure. Among the total respondents, only 3 of them received money from their friends to meet their food and non-food expenditures.

Life-style Characteristics of the Aged Population

Table 6

Distribution of sample Respondents by their life style behavior (Rs. per month)

Lifestyle behavior	Below 66 years		66 - 70 years		Above 70 years		Total	
	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
Tea / Coffee	26	241	28	301	34	188	88	240
Betal leaves	28	250	36	213	38	181	102	211
Smoking	8	250	22	331	14	114	44	247
Tobacco	16	143	26	223	24	106	66	161
Drinking	10	640	18	1033	16	812	44	863
Total	36	666	40	1196	40	761	116	881

Source: Computed from Primary Data

Table -6 reveals that the habitual expenditure of the respondents is concerned, most of them have some personal habits to keep their life enjoyable and comfortable. Respondents in the age group 66-70 years spent more money for their habitual requirements compared to the respondents of other age-group categories. All the respondents spent more money for drinking alcohol and less money for tobacco. Smoking habit is less among the aged compared to other habitual activities. The common habit of the aged population was tea/coffee and betel leaves in which they spent an average of Rs.240 and Rs.211 respectively. While their age increases, the habitual activity reduces due to their health conditions. Out of 60 respondents, only 2 aged do not have any of these habitual activities. These factors demonstrate that most of the aged have at least one habitual activity.

Table 7
H₀ = Economic Independence leads to less demand for food expenditure

Testing of Hypothesis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.817(a)	0.668	0.650	182.29548

a Predictors: (Constant), Economic status, Others income, Personal Income

Results of Multiple Linear Regression Model^a

Predictor Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		t Statistic	P – level Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
(Constant)	389.732	50.520	7.714	.000
PI	.306	.030	10.277	.000
OTHINC	.005	.004	1.319	.193
ECOSTAT	-409.634	59.042	-6.938	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Food expenditure per month (Rs.); Adjusted R² value = .650

Economically independent aged persons have significantly less expenditure on food. It has differential effect of Rs. 409.634 which indicates that economically independent aged person has lower food expenses than economically dependent aged person.

Summary and Conclusions

Majority of the aged persons were residing in joint families, belonged to scheduled castes, were illiterates and were currently not working and/or working as agricultural labourers. The average income of the respondents aged 60-64 years was comparatively higher compared to

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those aged 70 years and above. This indicates that aged persons have greater economic security. Aged persons prefer to save their income in the LIC and other public sector banks, which are more secured than the private sectors like Chit fund companies. The overall average expenditure appears to be comparatively higher among those aged 60-64 years than those belong to other group-group categories. Children are the primary monetary source to the aged for food, non-food and medical requirements, and the aged spend a large amount of money for the purpose of drinking alcohol, irrespective of their age.

Based on these results it is suggested that the existing welfare schemes for the aged persons might be revised to enhance their economic status. Population ageing is expected to have a major impact on many aspects of life in the twenty-first century. So the Government should take various steps related to well-being of the older persons. The steps may be: (1) to raise policy makers' awareness of the multiple issues related to ageing in the country; (2) to promote the traditional Indian values of life and respect for the elderly people to identify and focus on the aged as a vulnerable group; (3) to provide care and support to the elderly people within the community settings, which may be recommended instead of opening more and more old age homes; (4) to promote various schemes of social security for the old age people especially the rural aged, widows and people in urban slums; and (5) to educate the old age people on how to adjust to the changed family and social conditions, how to overcome emotional disturbances, how to face chronic diseases and how to face the last years of life peacefully.

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Redefining Secularism – An Analysis of John Updike's *Terrorist* and Mohsin Hamid's *The Reluctant Fundamentalist* as Post-9/11 Novels

C. Amutha Charu Sheela, M.A., M.Phil., M.B.A.

“The unmentionable odour of death
Offends the September night.”

“September 1, 1939”. W. H. Auden

Effects of Secularism

Secularism implies that life can be best lived by applying ethics, reasoning, non-discrimination among religions as well as guaranteeing the human rights of all citizens, regardless of creed. It is paradoxically believed that the secularization of a society protects it from religious fundamentalism. However, the attempt to marginalize religion through secularism has actually strengthened religious fundamentalism in the world of our times.

It is no secret that in the age of globalization there has been a parochial retreat into religious fundamentalism and fierce anti- internationalist interests. Honor killings in South Asia are due to stern adherence to a traditional code of conduct. Hindu – Muslim strife in India, war torn West Bank and the ethnic cleansing in some parts of the world are caused by reversion to religious customs, conventions and regional sentiments.

Effects of Transnationalism

The dawn of the twenty-first century witnessed the flow of capital, labor, media and ideologies. This marked the beginning of new era, an era of transnationalism. As a result of transnationalism, formations have transgressed national borders producing new social formations, which often lead to cultural and religious fanaticism.

Multiple Identifications

The new global order has led to the politicization of identity in the form of fundamentalism, xenophobia and a fanatical espousal of tradition. There are multiple identifications and contested affiliations in the era of globalization. Fresh infusions from different parts of the world for generations after generations into American life made Americans create a nation with a common identity and objectives, while welcoming and sustaining religious culture and ethnic diversity.

Violent Attack on Secularism

The belief in this state of secularism has been threatened by the attacks on the twin towers on 9/11. The question of belonging has become increasingly territorialized and penalized.

The question of identity which occupies centre stage in the troubled territories of nationalism and citizenship has become even more contested in the 9/11 landscape. Some critics call this century as the post- secular era, the word can denote either the turn to religion or the upsurge of all kinds of fundamentalism.

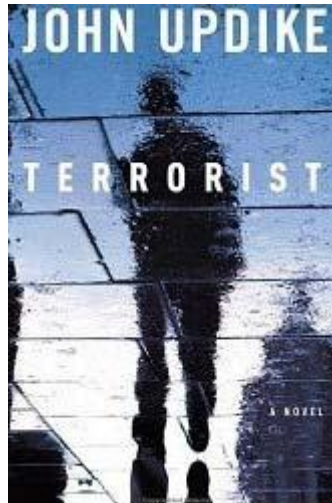
A Portrait of Resurgence

This paper is an attempt to analyze this scenario through a reading of John Updike's twenty-second novel, intriguingly named as the *Terrorist* and Mohsin Hamid's *Reluctant Fundamentalist*.

This study evaluates the extent to which Updike and Hamid are able to portray the resurgence of this sort of religious, social, cultural and political struggles related to it.

These two writers write from different locations: Updike is a mainstream writer, writing in a white Christian/secular mainstream society; while Hamid writes from a mainstream predominantly patriarchal, Muslim Pakistan. Both the novels attempt to grapple with a cataclysmic event in American history, the destruction of the Twin Towers.

Updike's *Terrorist*



Updike's *Terrorist*, is a departure from his usual themes, which include the cultural, socio political and religious history of the United States.

In this novel, he takes the reader into the mind of a *Terrorist* who is a homegrown threat to the security of homeland society. "DEVILS, Ahmed thinks. These devils seek to take away my God." (Updike 2006:1)

This brief monologue of the central character which marks the opening and concluding lines of the novel, explains the crux of the novel, which is the struggle between Ahmed, the hero, with his all powerful god and Jack, a sort of semi-hero, with his secular humanism.

Set against the backdrop of that blue September sky, in post 9/11 New Jersey, Updike charts the development of Ahmed Mulloy, an eighteen year old teenager. When most boys of his age are roaming the streets, he works as a part-time clerk, for whom God is an invisible companion, "a Siamese twin attached in every part, inside and out, and to whom he could turn every moment in prayer" (Updike, 2006: 37).

Through Ahmed, Updike dissects American materialism, decadence and the life styles of the people. Ahmed expresses a deep disgust towards the dissipation he sees around him, girls exposing their soft bodies and bare bellies, teachers who are paid to teach democratic and secular values by the government, his mother's flirtatious character, the radio and television channels which air the lewd and lascivious programs. He has decided to take a straight path, which is very difficult in a country, which has too many paths and full of infidels selling many useless things.

Ahmed is the product of a third generation Irish-American mother who has abandoned her religious faith and an Egyptian exchange student who decamped when Ahmed was three. He idolizes his absent father, yearns for him and so turns to Islamic faith when he was eleven. The Imam at the mosque becomes his surrogate father who waxes eloquent to motivate him to carry out terrorist activities. Though Ahmed knows he is being manipulated, he faithfully listens to his

master who advises him to become a truck driver instead of continuing with his higher studies. He is also afraid that academic studies would expose him to American secular beliefs and weaken his faith. Trucking has become a means to achieve his ends, to be a martyr to wage war and struggle against the infidels.

Ahmed's career guidance counselor Jack Levy is quite perplexed at his student's desire to drive large trucks filled with hazardous materials, especially in the wake of 9/11. Levy, an American Jew is one of the characters in the novel who have abandoned practicing religion. He is the anti thesis of Ahmed. He too is critical of American culture, but unlike Ahmed who feels the American way of life has taken him away from God, he views that as the out come of historical events. He feels happy to live, yet there are significant similarities between the views of the world-weary Jewish teacher and his idealistic Muslim student. The joke he casually shares with his wife about the bombing of neighborhood points out the affinities between the thinking of the teacher and the student.

To Ahmed it is not a joke. Shaik Rashid, his Imam has groomed his young acolyte to be a terrorist and places him at the hands of those manipulators who could instigate violence in the name of religion.

Through Jack, Updike blames the society for not allowing the children to be innocent anymore. The adults can't tell them what to do and no one is there to accept the responsibility. "Kids keep showing up, hoping for some guidance", says Jack, "they are so hopeful, wanting to be good, to amount to something... They want to please society..... They want to be worthy, if we could just tell them what worth is" (Updike, 2006: 202).

In order to prove his loyalty to the religion he follows he drives the lethal truck laden with explosives to cause collateral damage to the Lincoln tunnel under the Hudson river exactly on the anniversary of the 9/11 attack. Jack too accompanies Ahmed to the tunnel to dissuade him from going ahead with his plan. When Ahmed expresses his displeasure about his mother's association with a Jew, Jack asks him to consider him as an American first "Hey come on, we are Americans here. That's the idea; didn't they tell you that at central high? Irish-American, African- American, Jewish Americans, there are even Arab Americans" (Updike 2006:297).

Finally the transformation of a serious minded teenage Muslim boy takes place. In an epiphany moment he realizes that: "God does not want to destroy: it was he who made the world: this was the will of the Beneficient, the merciful, Ar-rehman and Ar-rahim, the living, the patient, the generous\, the perfect, the light, the guide. He does not want us to desecrate His creation by willing death. He wills life". (Updike 2006: 301)

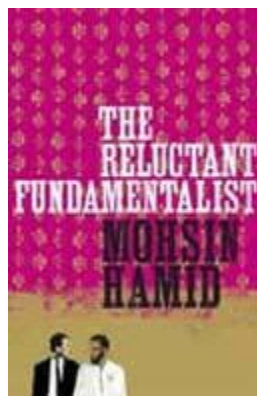
The change of mind at the end is not the last minute transformation. The inner struggle, conflict whether to be a Jihadi or not to be a Jihadi can be traced when he himself confides, "Jihad doesn't have to mean war.... It means striving, along the path of God. It can mean inner struggle" (Updike 2006: 146). He dares to argue with his master "shouldn't God's purpose, as enunciated by the prophet, be to convert the infidels. In any case, shouldn't he show them mercy,

not gloat over their pain (Updike 2006: 74).

This confused innocent soul can be seen when he stumbles over his answer when his master queries him about what he has seen when he delivers in and around the New Prospect “did you not discover that the world in its American portion emits a stench of waste and greed of sensuality and futility? Ahmed hesitates and then answers as best he can “people are pretty nice mostly,” (Updike, 2006:230) hardly an answer Imam would like to hear. Ahmed does not hate all Americans but the American way of living, living as infidels. He has started looking at life through a new veil, a new lens. Apart from Jack, Ahmed’s employer Habib Chehab, also believes America is an honest and friendly country where everyone can live without any problems. He dismisses the allegations leveled against America as propaganda.

This novel can be seen as Updike’s 9/11 novel and the plot to sabotage the tunnel is fixed on 9/11 the anniversary of the 9/11 attacks to convey the message effectively that they will strike whenever they please. The Imam feels triumphant at the fall of twin towers, a symbol of capitalistic oppression. To him 9/11 is a joke. It is a war for them. Fall of the twin towers is a god driven celebratory act. Society’s reaction to Muslims after the attacks has been beautifully brought out when Teresa Mulloy explains that they had to disconnect their landline because it was flooded with hate calls. “Anti – Muslim” (Updike 2006:76) In this novel, Updike substantiates the notion that the belief in American multiculturalism is the only good reason a human being could have for staying alive. “You believe this; I believe that, we all get along” (Updike 2006:36)

Mohsin Hamid’s *Reluctant Fundamentalist*



Pakistani diasporic writer Mohsin Hamid, lived in New York for many years and moved to London just two months before the fall of Twin Towers. His second novel *Reluctant Fundamentalist* is woven around the experiences of sub continental Muslim youth living in the United States after the attack of 11 September 2001, its impact on their sense of belonging in relation to host and home nations and their dissent. *Reluctant fundamentalist* is written by Mohsen Hamid.

Changez's trajectory towards fundamentalism is not a confused one like that of Ahmed who is an immature student. Hamid sculpts and locates his character in such a way that he is not just like any other fundamentalist but a young Pakistani, scion of a prominent Lahore family, who works for major corporate after graduating from Princeton and falls in love with a beautiful American woman named Erica. Hamid delineates the development of this character through his monologue which seems like blood gushing out from a wounded animal; addressed to a mysterious American tourist whom Changez encounters by chance on the streets of his city.

In the beginning Hamid paints him as a person who loves America. His dream comes true when he gets into Princeton. The beautiful campus inspires in him the feeling that everything is possible in life. His company Underwood Sampson has the potential to transform his concerns about money and status things of the distant past. But the idyll is marred by the collapse of the twin towers on 9/11. His multiple allegiances to America are brought into sharp focus when he watches the twin towers being bombarded by the terrorists. He is quite perplexed at his initial reactions "And then I smiled. Yes despicable as it may sound, my initial reaction was to be remarkably pleased" (Hamid 2007: 72). He is happy to see that someone has brought America to her knees.

After the apocalyptic event all the foreigners have become the objects of suspicion. Young American Muslims especially immigrants were the targets of suspicion after 9/11 attacks. Actually the war on terrorism was waged primarily against immigrants. "Pakistani cab drivers were being beaten to within an inch of their twice; the FBI was raiding mosques, shops and even people's houses; Muslim men were disappearing, perhaps into shadowy detention centre for questioning or worse" (Hamid 2007: 95).

Changez too was in the state of paranoia. America's invasion of Afghanistan makes him tremble with fury. It seems to him that America was in the grip of dangerous nostalgia which is similar to that of Erica – pining for her departed sweet heart Chris – resulting in probable suicide. The flag bedecked state following the 9/11 attacks reminds him of a place after Second World War.

This reminds us of W.H.Auden's description of memoirs after Second World War in his poem September 1'1939'. Changez recognizes himself as one of the janissaries, the Christian boys captured by Ottoman, the Muslim empire, who were trained to fight against their own people with utmost loyalty. "I was a modern day Janissary" he observes "a servant of the American empire at a time when it was invading a country with a kinship to mine" (Hamid 2007:152). This recognition induces him to leave his cushy New York job and to take up a teaching position in Lahore where his mission on campus is to advise against Pakistan's total dependence on America.

At the end of the novel – when distrust seems to brew between Changez and listener, he asserts repeatedly, that he will not harm him because he says 'I am believer in non-violence: the spilling of blood is abhorrent to me, save in self defense (Hamid 2007:181) The novel concludes with a confrontation between Changez' who suspects his American listener might be America's under cover assassin and the American listener, perhaps to be murdered by Changez's fundamentalist

disciples.

From the very title till the tense atmosphere at the end between the American and Changez, the reader expects Changez to move towards fundamentalism, though reluctantly. But it can be inferred that real fundamentalism is that of US capitalism which is practiced by his employer Underwood Sampson, whose motto is to “focus on fundamentals. This was Underwood Sampson’s guiding principle drilled into us since our first day at work.” (Hamid2007:98). Changez’s decision to quit this job signals his movement away from financial fundamentals and back to a place whose current economic and sociopolitical situation is in a state of flux.

Central Characters

The central characters in these two novels are juxtaposed. Updike’s teenager hero, high school student is a serious minded person with no interest in life. He also looks at his Imam for guidance whereas Hamid’s hero is a highly educated, corporate executive who approaches life with zeal and zest. He treads his path in a very careful and mature manner. Updike, like all other westerners seems to have stereotyped the notion that all Muslims are terrorists whereas Hamid has given a fitting reply and sends a strong signal to the west through Changez who says “You should not imagine that we Pakistanis are all potential terrorists just as we should not imagine that you Americans are all undercover assassins.” (Hamid 2007:183)

A Study of Strained Relationship

In the aftermath of 9/11 the international political landscape is filled with distrust, **suspicion** and confrontation. Both these novels successfully explore the straining relationship between the east and the west and the continuing cost of ethnic profiling. They deal with American society, morality and terrorism which can be seen as an evidence of the clash of civilizations as observed by Huntington: “Violent conflicts between groups in different civilizations are the most likely and most dangerous source of escalation that could lead to global wars: the paramount axis of world politics will be the relation between the west and the rest”. (www.hks.harvard.edu/fs/pnorris/acrobat/huntington_clash.pdf).

Repose Their Faith in Multi-Culturalism, Secularism and Nonviolence

Though both the characters seem to be a possible threat to the society, towards the end they repose their faith in multi-culturalism, secularism and nonviolence. This is the significant message the writers offer through literature. Political theorist T.N. Srinivasan opined that:

Resort to a single religious identity is self-defeating in a multi-religious society. Secularism is not just the confrontation between religion and the state. It requires new initiatives by the state and by the citizens in relation to the essentials of a secularized society. If citizenship is to be the primary identity, it will have to place other identities of class, caste, religion, gender and language in their appropriate places, and will have to define the identities that go into the making of

citizenship.” (Srinivasan 106: 2007)

Updike and Hamid humanize this theory by emphasizing the value of freedom which is knowledge. Auden’s words at the conclusion of World War II are particularly significant:

There is no such thing as the State
And no one exists alone; ...
To the citizen or the police;
We must love one another or die.

“September 1, 1939”, W.H Auden

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Reduplication in Bengali Language

Md. Sohel Rana, Ph.D.

Introduction

This paper discusses the reduplication process in Bengali language. It also gives examples from other languages, especially Hindi, Urdu and Panjabi.

Bengali is a language, which originated between 900 A.D. to 1000 A.D. It is now spoken by more than 230 million speakers, mostly from West Bengal, Assam. Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, some part of Andaman in India, and in Bangladesh where it is the national language of that country.

Reduplication

Reduplication is the repetition of all or part of the base with or without internal change before or after the base itself. It is of two types:

A) Morphological &

B) Lexical

A) Morphological Reduplication

Morphological reduplication refers to the minimally meaningful and segmentally indivisible morphemes that are a larger number of expressions used in speech where sound and sense seems to be united. These expressions have been termed as Onomatopoeia such as:

1. Some Acoustic Noises

Monkey chattering	U? U?
Cat Chattering	Mu? Mu?

2. Noises of Natural Phenomenon

Rain pattering	tap tap
Thundering Sound	gar gar

3. Noises by Humans

Laughing	Ha! Ha!
	Khick! Khick!

B) Lexical Reduplication

It can be partial or complete at this level. It consists of four types:

a. Echo-Formation

An echo word is defined as a partially repeated form of the base word; partially repeated in the sense that either the initial phoneme which may be either consonant or vowel or the syllable of the base is replaced by another phoneme or another syllable. Here one thing I find that the replacer sound sequences are more or less fixed and rigid.

In Bengali repetition starts with –T, Punjabi –S and Hindi –V. The echo word has neither any individual occurrence nor any meaning of its own in the language. It acquires the status of a meaningful element only after it is attached to a word.

Here are some examples from Bengali. These are also compared with other languages like Hindi and Urdu.

Example of Echo- Formation

Bengali	Hindi	Gloss
nam - tam	nam – wam	Name
rokto – tokto	khun – Vun	Blood
sohoj - tohoj	asan – vasan	Easy
fol – tol	Phal – val	Fruit
prem – tem	pyar – vyar	Love
gan – tan	gana- -vana	Song

Echo Formation Used in Sentences:

1. nam – tam: nam – tam jene ki hobe? (Bengali)
nam - vam: nam – vam pata karke kya karoge? (Hindi)
2. rokto - tokto: rokto –tokto pore na jeno (Bengali)
khun -vun: khun - vun nikle ki nehi? (Hindi)
3. sohoj - tohoj : sohoj - tohoj prosner uttar age dio (Bengali)
asan -vasan : asan - vasan question mat kya karo (Hindi)
4. fol-tol : fol -tol khele energy bare (Bengali)
phal -val : phal - val khared kar wo ghar chala gaya (Hindi)
5. prem -tem : prem -tem koro na porasuna koro (Bengali)
pyar -vyar : pyar -vyar sab bekar ki cheej hai (Hindi)
6. gan -tan : gan- tan korle mon bhalo thake (Bengali)
gana-vana: gana -vana gaya karo (Hindi)

(b) Compounds

Compounds refer to the paired constitution in which the second word is not an exact repetition of the first but has some similarity or relationship to the first word either on the semantic or on the phonetic level. A compound may be used independently in a sentence. Here, the paired construction does not have a new meaning.

Example of Compound Words

Bengali	Hindi	Gloss
utha-bosa	uthna-bathna	Rise - Sitting
sukhi-dukhi	sukh-duk	Happy-Sorrow
taka-paisa	dhan-daulat	Money

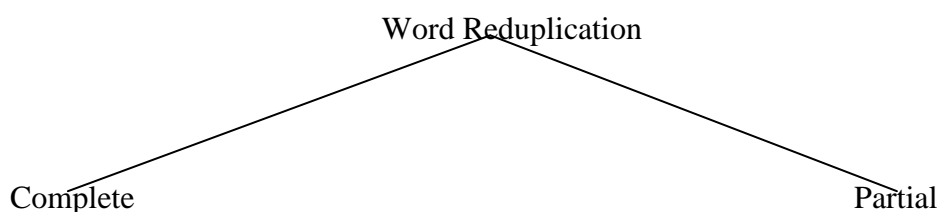
Compounds Used in Sentences

- | | | |
|-----------------|---|-----------|
| 1. utha-bosa: | roj sokale utha- bosa kora bhalo | (Bengali) |
| uthna-bathna: | unke sathmera uthna bathna hai | (Hindi) |
| 2. sukhi-dukhi: | kokhono sukhi kokhono dukhi etai jibon | (Bengali) |
| sukh-duk: | kiske jindegai mai sukh dukh nehi hai? | (Hindi) |
| 3. taka-paisa: | taka paisa na thakle songsar chalano kothin | (Bengali) |
| dhan-daulat: | dhaun daulat se kuch nehi hota achche insan | |
| | banne ki kousis karo | (Hindi) |

However, some linguists do not wish to include these under reduplication.

(c) Word Reduplication

Word reduplication refers to those paired constructions when a single word or a clause is repeated once in the same sentence without any phonological or morphological variation. This word reduplication is of two types:



i. Complete Reduplication

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When both the parts have meanings and are meaningful, then the reduplication is called a complete reduplication.

Examples of Complete Reduplication:

Bengali	Hindi	Gloss
cholte – cholte	chalte – chalte	Running
aste – aste	dhire – dhire	Slowly
bhalo – bhalo	achche – achche	Good
sada – sada	safed – safed	White
chhoto – chhoto	chhote – chhote	Little

Compounds Used in Sentences

- | | | | |
|----|-------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|
| 1. | cholte – cholte : | cholte cholte hafie gelam | (Bengali) |
| | chalte – chalte : | bas chalte chalte ho gaya | (Hindi) |
| 2. | aste – aste : | aste aste cholle kobe pouchobe? | (Bengali) |
| | dhire – dhire : | bus bohut dhire dhire chal raha hai. | (Hindi) |
| 3. | bhalo – bhalo : | aj canteene bhalo bhalo khabar achhe | (Bengali) |
| | achche – achche: | Sufia achche achche Pakora banati hai | (Hindi) |
| 4. | sada – sada : | sada sada kagoje likho | (Bengali) |
| | safed – safed: | safed safed kapra pahna karo | (Hindi) |
| 5. | chhoto – chhoto : | chhoto chhoto mach gulo amake dao | (Bengali) |
| | chhote – chhote : | chhote chhote alu le lo | (Hindi) |

These examples are called complete reduplication because here single word or a clause is repeated once in the same sentence without any phonological and morphological change.

(ii) Partial Reduplication

- | | | |
|------------------|--|-----------|
| 1. criss –cross: | karor songe criss-cross khela thik na | (Bengali) |
| criss-cross: | kisike sath criss-cross mat khela karo | (Hindi) |
| 2. zig-zag: | rastata khub zig-zag lagchhe | (Bengali) |
| zig-zag: | ye rasta zig-zag hai | (Hindi) |
| 3. tip-top: | tip-top thakle loke bhalo bole | (Bengali) |
| tip-top: | hamesha tip-top raha karo | (Hindi) |

Conclusion

Now, a question arises in our mind whether reduplication structures are arbitrary or not? Actually, there are no inherent relationships between the linguistic or non-linguistic sign and the real world. So, reduplications are arbitrary.

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Colophon

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Development of Time-Compressed Speech Test for Children between 8 - 12 Years of Age in Telugu

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1.0. Introduction

Some children have normal hearing ability but have difficulty using information they hear in academic and social situations. These children may have a Central Auditory Processing Disorder. Myklebust (1954) was one of the first person, stated that "central hearing loss" contributes to children's language learning deficits. The term central auditory Processing disorder (CAPD) is used to describe functional impairment of the auditory system with respect to different skills. Central auditory processing (CAP) problems may underlie or interact with other difficulties including speech language impairment, attention disorder, learning disability or developmental disabilities (Tallal & Piercy 1974; Willeford 1980; Jerger, Martin & Jerger 1987).

Auditory Processing Disorder (APD) is deficits in information processing of audible stimuli but without hearing or intelligence deficits. It is the inability to attend to, discriminate, recognize or comprehend what is heard. Auditory processing deficits interfere directly with speech and language as well as all areas of learning, especially reading and spelling. Instruction in schools relay primarily on spoken language, so students with APD may have serious difficulty. APD often coexists with other disabilities, including speech and language disorders or delays, learning

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disabilities, dyslexia, attention deficit disorders, and social and/or emotional problems. APD are more pronounced when listening to distorted speech, or in poor acoustic environments such as listening in the presence of competing background noise (Bellis 1996).

Diagnosis of APD is essential for the implementation of appropriate therapeutic and/or remedial strategies. Formal diagnosis is accomplished through administration of a battery of tests. Each of these tests is designed to evaluate various behavioral processes required to process auditory information. Though information can be obtained as early as 5.5 to 6.5 years of age, the administration of the comprehensive central auditory pathway test battery is not performed until the age of 6.5 to 7 years or later to minimize any bias introduced by limited vocabulary and / or attention. In younger children, informal diagnosis is made utilizing behavioral information in conjunction with speech language measures (Willeford & Burleigh 1985; Bellis 1996).

The audiologist assesses the peripheral and central auditory systems using a test battery approach, which may include both behavioral and electrophysiological tests. Peripheral hearing tests determine if the child has a hearing loss and if so, the degree to which the loss is a factor in the child's learning problems. Assessment of the central auditory system determines the child's ability to respond under different conditions of auditory signal distortion and competition. It is based on the assumption that a child with an intact auditory system can tolerate mild distortions of speech and still understand it, while a child with an APD will encounter difficulty when the auditory system is stressed by signal distortion and competing messages (Keith 1995).

No single test of APD can be expected to challenge the variety of functions required by the central auditory nervous system (CANS) in different listening situations. Therefore, it is necessary to use a test battery approach (Dempsey 1983). Using a test battery approach, audiologist can determine if CAPD is present and, if so, the specific nature of these difficulties as well as the likely ramifications. They can then use this information to provide individualized management strategies as well as measure the success of interventions by post testing. APD is assessed through the use of special tests designed to assess the various auditory functions of the brain. However, before this type of testing begins, it is important that each person being tested receives a routine hearing test (Chermak & Musiek 1997). Tests of central auditory function have been categorized in a variety of ways. Baran & Musiek (1991) categorize behavioral central tests in the following sub-categories:

- Dichotic Tests (Musiek & Pinheiro 1985)
- Monaural Low-Redundancy Speech (Jerger & Jerger 1971)
- Temporal Processing Tests (Pinheiro 1977)
- Binaural Interaction Tests (Matzker 1959)

Children being assessed for APD would not necessarily be given a test from each of these categories. Rather, the audiologist would select a battery of tests which would depend upon a number of factors, including the age of the child, the specific auditory difficulties the child displays, the child's native language and cognitive status, and so forth (Willeford & Burleigh

1985). Due to the richness of the neural pathways in the auditory system and the redundancy of acoustic information in spoken language, a normal listener is able to recognize speech even when parts of the signal are missing. However, this ability is often compromised in the individual with APD.

Dichotic Tests

Various dichotic speech listening tests are sensitive to central auditory nervous system dysfunction, and wide ranges of tasks are included in this category (Musiek & Pinheiro 1985). Clinically, two main types of dichotic speech tasks have emerged: binaural separation and binaural integration. In binaural separation, the subject is directed to listen to a target stimulus within the dichotic task. While in the binaural integration task, both signals in the dichotic paradigm must be recognized. Competing sentences and synthetic sentence identification with contra-lateral competing message (SSI-CCM) are commonly used binaural separation tests (Musiek & Pinheiro 1985). Dichotic digits, staggered spondaic words (SSW), dichotic consonant-vowels and dichotic sentence identification (DSI) are commonly used (binaural integration) dichotic tests (Bellis 1996; Musiek & Pinheiro 1985).

Monaural Low-Redundancy Speech (MLRS) Tests

In this speech signals have been degraded or are presented in some type of acoustic competition. Filtered, compressed, expanded, interrupted, and reverberated speech signals have all been used as central tests (Musiek & Baran 1987; Rintelmann 1985). In addition, speech signals that are in competition with other speech signals, noise, or are altered in intensity have been used in central assessment. Time compressed speech test is one such test, originally designed by Beasley, Schwimmer & Rintelmann (1972a) to evaluate monaural low redundancy. Time-compressed speech is generally described in terms of the percentage of temporal reduction, i.e. 30% time compressed speech means that the speech in which 30% of the signal has been removed in small units (Muller & Bright 1994). The test evaluates temporal processing which is critical to the perception of speech and music. Other frequently used low-redundancy monaural speech tests are low pass filtered speech test (Rintelmann 1985), the synthetic sentence identification with ipsilateral competing message (Jerger & Jerger 1971), the compressed speech with reverberation test (Bornstein & Musiek 1992) and the pediatric speech intelligibility test (Jerger, Jerger & Abrams 1983).

Temporal Processing Tests

Temporal processing tests measure the listener's ability to recognize the order or pattern of nonverbal auditory signals. Tones are presented to each ear using different time or pitch patterns, and the listener must either "hum" or verbally describe the pattern (Tallal 1985). There are three tests of temporal ordering used clinically: Frequency patterns or Pitch pattern sequence test (PPST) by Pinheiro & Ptacek (1971); Duration pattern test (DPT) by Pinheiro & Musiek (1985); and the Gap detection test (GDT) by Keith (2000).

Binaural Interaction Tests

This category includes a variety of tests. Their commonality is that the two ears (auditory systems) must interact (Chermak & Musiek 1997). Binaural interaction tests include Masking Level Difference (Schoeny & Talbott 1994), Interaural Timing Tasks (Levine, Gardner, Stuttlebeam & Fulterton 1993), Rapidly Alternating Speech Perception (Willeford 1977) and Binaural Fusion Test (Matzker 1959). Binaural interaction tests assess binaural fusion; the listener's ability to take incomplete information presented to each ear and fuses the information into an understandable signal.

1.1. Time-Compressed Speech Test as a Measure of CAPD

History of the development of time compressed speech test

One way to reduce the redundancy of a speech signal is to alter the temporal characteristics of the signal. The speaker can simply talk faster or recorded materials can be played back at a higher speed (Fletcher 1929). In order to overcome the problem of the frequency shifts associated with the fast or slow playback technique, a chop-splice procedure was employed. In this procedure, certain segments of the recorded signal were manually cut from the recording and the retained samples were spliced back together. This method permitted the experimenter to vary the temporal nature of the signal without undue distortion of the frequency characteristics of the signal as originally recorded. This method was laborious and time-consuming and hence, has been replaced by more efficient and technically advanced procedures. In order to overcome the problems associated with both the fast / slow playback and chop-splice techniques, an electro-mechanical time compressor or expander was developed (Fairbanks & Jaeger 1954).

Using this device, investigators were able to record a signal and subsequently delete and retain samples of the signal automatically. Further, the retained samples were electro-mechanically "spliced" back together, such that the end procedure was a recorded version of the original recording, which was to some specific percentage shorter (compressed) or longer (expanded) than the original. Lee (1972) developed Varispeech device, a modification of the Fairbanks instrument, contained a small tape recorder and minicomputer and was the one most widely used for time-compressed speech. A drawback of both the Fairbanks and Lee devices was that the sampling was random so samples discarded could be with as well as between linguistic sections. Beasley & Freeman (1977) reported the use of software that could compress or expand the speech signal and currently several such soft wares are available.

Development of Time-compressed speech for clinical purposes

In the evaluation of central auditory dysfunction, the use of time-compressed speech has gained recognition as a simple, sensitive and valid clinical tool. Time-compressed /expanded speech has been used to detect subtle neurological lesions that may go unnoticed by use of standard pure tone and word identification measure of audition. Temporal alteration of speech stimuli in the

form of time compression reduces the extrinsic temporal redundancy of the speech signal (Beasley & Maki 1976), thereby increasing the processing load on the temporal aspect of the auditory perceptual processor (DiSimoni 1974; Calero & Lazzaroni 1957; Dequiros 1964) consequently employed time-compressed speech signals as a measure for evaluating lesions in the central auditory nervous system. They pointed out that the time compression reduced the external temporal redundancy of the normal speech signal, thereby increasing the difficulty of the processing task by the internally redundant central nervous system.

Beasley, Maki & Orchik (1976) were the first to report the clinical use of time-compressed speech with children. Normative data were provided for young children using two measures of speech discrimination, the PBK-50 (Haskins 1949) and the WIPI (Lerman, Ross & Mc Laughlin 1965). Subsequent investigation with the PBK-50 (Manning, Johnston & Beasley 1977) indicated reduced performance on a time-compressed speech discrimination task by children displaying auditory perceptual deficits when compared to previously published data with normally hearing children (Beasley, Maki & Orchik 1976). The data suggested that measures employing time-compressed speech might be useful in the study of auditory processing in children exhibiting various speech and language disorders. Luteran, Welsh & Melrose (1966); Sticht & Gray (1969) used time-compressed CID W-22 word lists and revealed differential results for young adult listeners compared to geriatric listeners, and sensorineural hearing-impaired listeners compared to normal listeners. This study showed a gradual decrease in the intelligibility of monosyllables corresponding to progressively greater percentages of time compression over the range of 30% to 60% with a dramatic reduction of intelligibility occurring at 70% time-compression.

A comparison of speech discrimination scores obtained with the Audited Versions of the NU-6 and the CID W-22 test materials indicated that these two measures yielded different results, particularly at the 30% and 60% levels of time compression. It is also commonly used in clinical application of time-compressed speech (Beasley & Freeman 1977). The difference between the discrimination scores obtained in this study indicated that the effect of the talker was also a significant variable in a time-altered speech discrimination task. May, Rastatter & Simmons (1984) used 30 tape-recorded sentences taken from the Carrow Auditory Visual Abilities Test, which were time-compressed by the Lexicon Varispeech II to 50%. Age related changes in auditory discrimination were investigated using this material. Each sentence offered one or more phonemic contrasts (manner or place of articulation, voicing frequency or some combination). It was found that the overall group mean performance was not different between 6 year olds (N: 14) and 8 year olds (N: 20) or, between 10 year olds (N: 16) and young adults (N: 15), but the two older groups were each significantly better than each of the two younger groups.

Gordon-Salant & Fitzgibbons (1999) investigated age related performance differences on a range of speech and non-speech measures involving temporal manipulation of acoustic signals and variations of stimulus complexity. The goal was to identify a subset of temporally mediated, measures that effectively distinguished the performance patterns of 10 younger (18-40 years) and 10 older (65-76 years) listeners with normal hearing sensitivity and with sensorineural hearing

loss. The speech stimuli were undistorted speech, time compressed speech (50% and 60%), reverberant speech and combined time compressed (40%) and reverberant speech. All speech stimuli were presented both in quiet and in noise. Age related deficits were observed for all time-compressed speech conditions and some reverberant speech conditions, in both quiet and noise. Older participants exhibited poorer performance than younger participants on all conditions. The robust nature of the age effect with time compressed speech strongly indicates that aging imposes a limitation on the ability to process rapid speech segments.

1.2. The Effect of Time-Compressed Speech Scores on Clinical Population

There are some indications that the intelligibility of time-compressed words is severely attenuated in elderly persons having a sensorineural hearing loss, in persons with temporal lobe lesions, and in persons with diffuse cerebral pathology (Bocca & Calero 1963). Time-compression has been used on different clinical population for diagnostic purposes. These include brain damage, auditory processing disorders, learning disability, and specific language impairment.

Baran, et al. (1985) evaluated the performance of twenty-seven subjects with surgically, radiologically or neurologically confirmed lesions of the central nervous system on time-compressed speech test. The subjects ranged in age from 12 to 59 years. Twenty-four subjects had normal hearing (25 dB HL or better) bilaterally at 500 to 4000 Hz. Three subjects demonstrated a mild hearing loss at a single frequency in one ear. Test stimuli were presented at 40 dB SPL with reference to their speech reception thresholds. The subjects were administered the NU-6 word list at 60% time-compression. Percent correct scores were derived for each ear and compared to norms previously established by Beasley, Schwimmer & Rintleman (1972b). Results revealed that in 67% of the subjects tested, performance in at least one ear fell below established norms. For subjects with abnormal thresholds, performance was abnormal in the 'better' ear, or in both ears in all three cases. These results suggested that the time-compressed speech test might be moderately useful in the identification of CNS lesions.

Watson, Stewart, Krause & Rastaller (1990) measured the ability of eight good and eight poor readers in grade 1 (age ranging from 6.7 to 7.4 years) to discriminate phonemic contrasts presented in 50% time-compressed sentential stimuli. Good readers exhibited a significantly higher overall mean performance than poor readers on the time compressed task. Effects of time compression on the perception of manner, place, voicing and frequency contrasts showed a similar pattern of errors for both groups of readers. Many people with developmental dyslexia have difficulty perceiving stop consonant contrast as effectively as other people and it has been suggested that this may be due to perceptual limitations of a temporal nature.

Stollman, Kapteyn & Slesswijk (1994) measured the effect of time compression and expansion of speech on speech perception in noise for a group of hearing impaired and a group of language impaired children relative to control groups of normal children and normal adults. The children's age ranged from 9-12 years, for all time scale modified conditions (37% expansion, 27%, 35%

and 48% compression), both hearing impaired and language impaired children had significantly higher speech recognition thresholds in noise than their normal peers, who performed almost equally as the adult control group. Time-expansion was shown to have a negligible effect on recognition for all groups when compared to the control condition i.e., 0% time compression. The difference in speech recognition between the control and the impaired groups was in general not significantly altered by the degree of time compression or expansion of speech, although a clear trend towards greater differences for increasing time compression was observed.

Karlsson & Rosehall (1995) evaluated the clinical validity of four different low-redundant speech tests using four groups of 83 patients with retro-cochlear or central auditory lesion. The speech tests used were interrupted speech (7 and 10 interruption/s), time-compressed speech (message compressed to 290 words/min) and filtered speech. A comparison between patients and age matched normal-hearing controls showed that the patients had significantly lower speech recognition score. The speech tests with the highest sensitivity were 7 interruptions / sec and time-compressed speech. Time-compressed speech was found to have the following sensitivity levels for different lesions: 67% (cerebellopontine angle tumors), 64% (brainstem lesions), 47% (vascular brainstem lesions) and 80% (temporal lobe lesions).

Anally, Hansen, Cornelisson & Stein (1997) predicted that perception of time compressed stimuli by listener with dyslexia might be improved by stretching them in time equivalent to speaking slowly. Conversely, their perception of the same stimuli thought to be made even worse by compressing them in time equivalent to speaking quickly. They tested 15-children with dyslexia on their ability to correctly identify consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) stimuli that had been stretched or, compressed in the time domain. They also tested their perception of the same CVC stimuli after the formant transitions had been stretched or compressed in the frequency domain. The performance reduced with increase in compression but contrary to their prediction, they failed to find any systematic improvement in their performance with expansion. They concluded that simple manipulations in the time and frequency domains are unlikely to benefit the ability of people with dyslexia to discriminate between CVC containing stop consonants. Thus, time compressed words are found to be highly sensitive in identifying children with dyslexia.

The overall review of literature shows a time compressed speech perception test provides information about auditory closure (refers to the ability of the normal listener to utilize intrinsic and extrinsic redundancy to fill in missing or distorted portions of auditory signal and recognize the whole message) and is sensitive to the cortical and sub-cortical regions. There is a need to develop the test in different language for the utility of the test in diagnosing auditory processing problems. In the pediatric population, research accelerated in the 1980s. Several tests have been developed for children to help identify the normal functioning of the auditory system (Keith & Jerger 1991). More commonly, central auditory testing in children is used to determine the functional auditory ability. It has been found that the test that was developed in the west cannot be directly used in India due to variation in accent. Hence, there is a need to develop tests appropriate for the Indian context.

1.3. Need for the Study

The time-compressed speech perception test is one test used for central auditory dysfunction evaluation. Norms for this test have been reported for the western population by Beasley, Schwimmer & Rintelmann (1972a) and Beasley, Forman & Rintelmann (1972b). Norms for this test were developed in India in English for children by Sujitha (2005) and in Kannada for children by Kumar (2006). No such study has been developed in Telugu language. Therefore, the present study has been taken up to develop and establish normative data for a time-compressed test in Telugu. This will help in the diagnosis of children with auditory perceptual problems, in children who speak this language.

1.4. Aims of the Study

The present study aimed to develop a time-compressed speech perception test for children between 8 – 12 years of age in Telugu with following objectives.

- To develop a time-compressed speech perception test in Telugu, for native speaker of the language.
- To investigate whether there is any ear difference on the scores of time-compressed words.
- To investigate whether the scores are different across gender.
- To investigate whether the scores are different across different ages.
- To develop normative data for the different age groups.
- To investigate whether the level of compression affects the scores obtained.

2.0. Method

2.1. Subjects

A total of forty children in the age range of 8 years to 9 years were taken to ensure that the test material was familiar to the children. Eighty normal children in the age range of 8 years to 12 years were taken for collecting normative data. These children were grouped into four different age groups; each group consists of 20 children (10 males and 10 females). The age groups were: 8 years to 9 years, 9 years to 10 years, 10 years to 11 years and 11 years to 12 years. All the children are native Telugu speakers, hearing thresholds within normal limits, good/average performers in school and having normal IQ.

2.2. Procedure

Stage I: Development of Material

A total of 100 phonetically balanced words divided into four lists were used as stimulus. Recording was done using a female speaker. The words were recorded in a Pentium 4 computer by using the PRAAT software with a 44100 Hz sampling frequency. Scaling of the words was done using the same software to ensure that the intensity of all words was brought to the same level. A four seconds inter-word interval was maintained. These words were time compressed using PRAAT software.

- List 1 is compressed to 0%
- List 2 is compressed to 20%
- List 3 is compressed to 40%
- List 4 is compressed to 60%

Stage II: Obtaining Normative Data

The stimuli were played on the CD player, the output of which was routed to the audiometer (Orbiter 922). The subjects heard the stimuli through headphones (TDH-39). The stimulus was presented at 40 dB SL monaurally. The subjects were instructed to repeat what they heard. Each subject heard all four lists at 0% compression (no compression) as well as at 20 %, 40% and 60% compression. The lists were randomized so that any sequence effect of the compression level did not contaminate the findings. Testing was done in a sound treated double room, with the ambient noise levels within permissible limits as recommended by ANSI (1989).

Stage III: Scoring

Each correct response was assigned a score of one, while a wrong response was given a score of zero. The scoring was done separate for the different levels of compression and for each ear separately. The raw scores were statistically analyzed. The responses were scored in terms of number of correct responses for different compression levels. The data obtained was subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS (version 10.0) software. The analysis was done to obtain information on the following:

1. Ear effect
2. Gender effect
3. Effect of level of compression with reference to age
4. Effect of compression across the ages.

The above effects were analyzed using descriptive statistics, as well as three-way ANOVA. Post hoc analysis was carried out using Duncan's test, when required.

3.0. Results and Discussion

This study was carried out to develop time compressed speech test in Telugu for normal hearing children between the ages 8-12 years, and also to obtain norms of the perceptual scores of bi-

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Development of Time-Compressed Speech Test for Children between 8 - 12 Years of Age in Telugu

syllabic phonetically balanced words for children in different age groups using the test with four compression levels (0%, 20%, 40%, and 60%).

3.1. Ear Effect

Table 1 shows mean and standard deviation values of the right ear and left ear at different compression levels. The ANOVA results indicated that there was no significant difference between left and right ear scores for all four age groups [$F(1, 40) = 0.136, p > 0.05$].

Age Group	Ear		Effect of Compression 0 %	Effect of Compression 20 %	Effect of Compression 40 %	Effect of Compression 60 %
8-9 Years	Right	Mean	22.80	21.70	18.70	16.60
		SD	0.632	0.675	1.337	0.699
	Left	Mean	22.60	21.70	18.70	16.70
		SD	0.516	0.675	1.337	0.675
9-10 Years	Right	Mean	23.30	21.10	18.80	16.90
		SD	0.483	1.101	0.789	0.738
	Left	Mean	23.40	21.10	18.80	17.00
		SD	0.516	1.101	0.789	0.816
10-11 Years	Right	Mean	24.80	22.60	19.90	17.60
		SD	0.422	0.516	0.568	0.699
	Left	Mean	24.70	22.90	19.80	17.80
		SD	0.483	0.568	0.632	0.789
11-12 Years	Right	Mean	24.80	23.80	21.70	19.10
		SD	0.422	0.632	0.823	0.738
	Left	Mean	24.70	23.50	21.00	19.00
		SD	0.675	0.707	0.667	0.816

Table 1 Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) for right and left ears across age groups for different levels of compression

It was observed that as the compression ratio's increases the performance in both the ears was reduced and as the age progresses performance in both the ears was improved. As there was no significant difference in both ears across the age groups and compression levels hence the hypotheses, there is no significant difference in right and left ears in eight to twelve years at 0%, 20%, 40% and 60% compression levels were accepted.

The results obtained from the present study are in agreement with the results of a study conducted on the western population by Beasley, Schwimmer & Rintleman (1972a), on Indian non-native English speakers by Sujitha (2005), and Kannada speaking children by Kumar (2007). They reported that there existed no difference between the right and left ear scores at

different levels of time-compression. Beasley, Schwimmer & Rintleman (1972 a) postulated that in order to validly use the same test for both the right and left ears, performance of normal subjects would warrant that test results between ears be essentially equal.

3.2. Gender Effect

Table 2 shows mean and SD values of males and females at each compression level. The MANOVA results indicated that there was no significant difference between males and females for all four age groups at different compression ratio's [$F(1, 40) = 0.154, p > 0.05$].

Age Group	Sex		Effect of Compression 0 %	Effect of Compression 20 %	Effect of Compression 40 %	Effect of Compression 60 %
8-9 Years	Male	Mean	22.80	22.00	19.40	16.90
		SD	0.422	0.667	1.075	0.738
	Female	Mean	22.60	21.40	18.00	16.40
		SD	0.699	0.516	1.155	0.516
9-10 Years	Male	Mean	23.30	22.00	18.80	16.80
		SD	0.483	0.667	0.789	0.789
	Female	Mean	23.40	20.20	18.80	17.10
		SD	0.516	0.422	0.789	0.738
10-11 Years	Male	Mean	24.70	22.70	19.90	17.80
		SD	0.483	0.483	0.568	0.919
	Female	Mean	24.80	22.80	19.80	17.60
		SD	0.422	0.632	0.632	0.516
11-12 Years	Male	Mean	24.70	23.50	21.30	18.80
		SD	0.675	0.707	0.823	0.789
	Female	Mean	24.80	23.80	21.40	19.30
		SD	0.422	0.632	0.843	0.675

Table 2 Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) in male and female, across age groups for different levels of compression

It was observed that as the compression ratio increases performance in both the males and females were reduced and as the age progresses performance in both the ears were improved. As there was no significant difference in both males and females across the age groups and compression levels, the hypotheses stating that there is no significant difference in males and females in eight to twelve years at 0%, 20%, 40% and 60% compression levels were accepted.

Similar findings have been reported in a study conducted by Konkle, Beasley & Bess (1977). They found that within age groups there were essentially no differences between the performance of male and female subjects under the different time compression and sensation level conditions. This proved that the central aging process took place equally in both males and

females. Sujitha (2005) & Kumar (2006) also reported that there was no difference in gender at different compression levels in children aged 7-12 years while evaluated the subjects using compression levels of 0%, 40%, 50% and 60%. Thus, the results of the present study are in agreement with earlier studies, indicating that there exists no significant difference between the performance of males and females across ages at different levels of compression. Hence, separate norms are not required for males and females.

3.3. Effect of Level of Compression with Reference to Age

Table 3 shows mean and SD values across age groups for different levels of compression and Table 4 shows values of significance difference for different compression within age groups.

Age Group		Effect of Compression 0 %	Effect of Compression 20 %	Effect of Compression 40 %	Effect of Compression 60 %
8-9 Yrs	Mean	22.70	21.70	18.70	16.65
	SD	0.571	0.657	1.302	0.671
9-10 Yrs	Mean	23.35	21.10	18.80	16.95
	S D	0.489	1.071	0.768	0.759
10-11 Yrs	Mean	24.75	22.75	19.85	17.70
	SD	0.444	0.550	0.587	0.733
11-12 Yrs	Mean	24.75	23.65	21.35	19.05
	SD	0.550	0.671	0.813	0.759

Table 3 Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) across age groups for different levels of compression

It can be observed that the performance for time-compressed words reduced with increase in the level of compression for all the age groups. In order to find out if there was a significant difference for different levels of compression in a particular age group, repeated measures of ANOVA was done (Table 4). At all the ages, there was a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) across the compression levels. Hence there was a significant difference between across the age groups and across the compression levels, hypotheses there is no significant difference between the age groups across the compression levels were rejected.

Age	F (df) Value	Significance (p-value)
8-9 Years	F (3,33) = 8.306	<0.001
9-10 Years	F (3, 33) = 8.582	<0.001
10-11 Years	F (3, 33) = 7.923	<0.001
11-12 Years	F (3, 33) = 2.073	<0.001

Table 4 Significance difference for different compression within age groups

The data indicated that for individual clients, there was generally increase in scores with age, as the age progresses performance also increased. Sujitha (2005) also reported that there was significant difference in performance across the age groups. As the age increases from eight to twelve scores were also improved.

3.4. Effect of Compression Across Ages

Table 5 shows mean and SD values across ages with increase in the level of compression and Figure 1 shows 95% confidence interval (CI) mean scores for different compression ratio's across the age groups.

Age Group		Effect of Compression 0 %	Effect of Compression 20 %	Effect of Compression 40 %	Effect of Compression 60 %
8-9 Yrs	Mean	22.70	21.70	18.70	16.65
	SD	0.571	0.657	1.302	0.671
9-10 Yrs	Mean	23.35	21.10	18.80	16.95
	SD	0.489	1.071	0.768	0.759
10-11 Yrs	Mean	24.75	22.75	19.85	17.70
	SD	0.444	0.550	0.587	0.733
11-12 Yrs	Mean	24.75	23.65	21.35	19.05
	SD	0.550	0.671	0.813	0.759

Table 5 Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) across age groups for different levels of compression

It is observed that there is significant difference between the compression ratio's within an age group and it is also clear that as the age progresses there is improvement in performance. Research by Beasley, Bratt & Rintelmann 1980) has also shown that in young adults, with increase in compression levels, the scores varied very marginally up to 60% compression. De Chicchis, Orchik & Tecca (1981) also noted that significant variations in scores are obtained in time-compression tests depending on the material used. They noticed the variation at 30% and 60% compression levels.

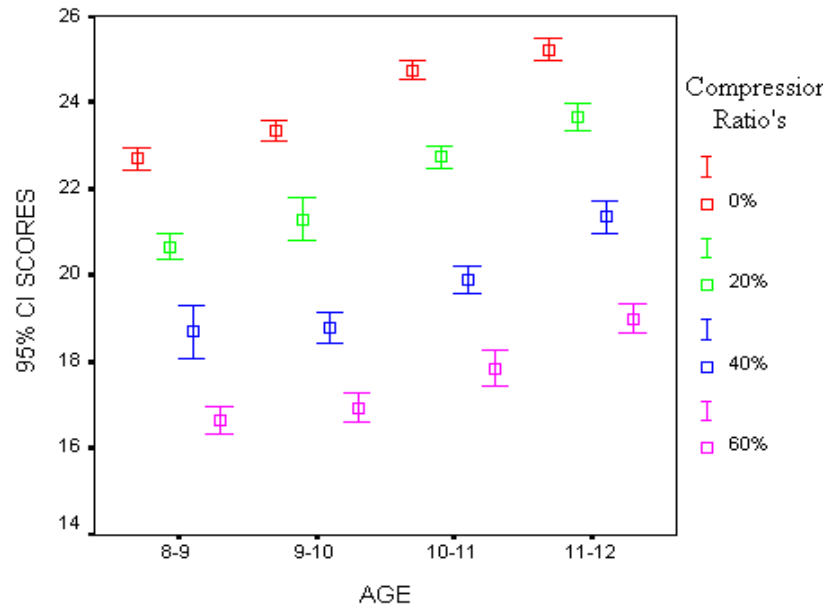


Figure 1: 95% confidence interval (CI) mean scores for different compression ratio's across the age groups

It is observed that there is significant difference between the compression ratio's within an age group and it is also clear that as the age progresses there is improvement in performance. Research by Beasley, Bratt & Rintelmann (1980) has also shown that in young adults, with increase in compression levels, the scores varied very marginally up to 60% compression. De Chicchis, Orchik & Tecca (1981) also noted that significant variations in scores are obtained in time-compression tests depending on the material used. They noticed the variation at 30% and 60% compression levels.

4.0. Summary and Conclusion

Time compressed speech test is a test for assessing APD, which is a monaural low redundancy speech test. This test provides information about auditory closure and is sensitive to cortical and sub-cortical regions. In literature it has been found that the test that was developed in West cannot be directly used in India due to variation in accent. Hence there is a need to develop tests appropriate for the Indian context. The present study aimed at developing a time compressed speech test in Telugu for normal hearing Telugu speaking children. The study also aimed at obtaining perceptual norms of bi-syllabic phonetically balanced words in different age groups of 8-12 years using the test with four compression levels (0%, 20%, 40% and 60%). The results revealed as follows.

- There was no significant difference in right and left ear scores for the monotically presented time compressed Telugu speech stimuli.
- There was no significant difference in the performance scores of males and females across the ages at different levels of compression.

- With increase in compression level the scores generally dropped. However, the effect of compression at each of the age groups was not identical.
- There was a significant decrease in performance observed with increase in the level of compression.

The findings of the present study on Indian population are consistent with findings obtained on Western population and similar to non-native speakers English speakers and Kannada speaking children.

5.0. Clinical Implications of the Study

- The test can be used for clinical purposes for assessing Telugu speaking children with the complaint of temporal processing.
- The obtained scores can be compared with the norms with reference to age groups to find out deviation in the perceptual abilities.
- When there is lack of time, test can be administered at 0% and 60% compression levels as a quick screening.

6.0. Future Research

- Study can be carried out on children with learning disabilities to evaluate the efficacy of the developed test material.
- Study can be carried out on children with the complaint of temporal processing to evaluate the perceptual abilities.

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Bridging the Gap - The Potential of Contrastive Rhetoric in Teaching L2 Writing

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Abstract

Teachers of L2 classes are well- aware of students' struggle with the rhetorical patterns and they try a number of methods and strategies to acquaint their students with the expectations of native readers in terms of those rhetorical patterns. Contrastive Rhetoric was initially thought of as a mighty way out to this struggle of L2 writers. The insights gained from the studies on Contrastive Rhetoric, however, have remained underutilized or unutilized. This paper weighs the possibility of using contrastive rhetoric in teaching L2 writing and argues that Contrastive Rhetoric can be used in teaching L2 writing.

Introduction – Contrastive Rhetoric

Writing in the target language has always remained a challenge for second language writers. Their incompetence in writing is often attributed to the negative transfer from their first languages (Kaplan, 1972).

Contrastive Rhetoric over the past thirty years has strived to find out the influence of first language and culture on second language writing. Researchers (e.g., Connor 1987; Hinds 1997; Clyne 1987; Kaplan 1966, 1988) have studied differences of rhetorical patterns

across cultures and have come up with findings that have potential pedagogical implications for teaching second language writing.

However, despite the initial pedagogical aim of contrastive rhetoric, the insights gained by research have not been effectively translated into the practice of teaching organizational structures (Leki 1997; Matsuda 1997). Kaplan (1988) says, “contrastive rhetoric is not a *methodology* for teaching, though some of its findings can be (and indeed have been) applied to the teaching process since its inception” (p.289). In this paper, on the basis of the findings of text analysis and expert opinion, I will argue that contrastive rhetoric can facilitate L2 writing.

What is Contrastive Rhetoric?

According to Connor (1996), “contrastive rhetoric is an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them” (p.5).

This field of study began with the publication of the article “Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-cultural Education” in 1966 by Robert Kaplan. Kaplan’s basic assumption was that rhetorical aspects of each language are unique to each language and culture. This assumption implies that second language writers’ writing proves inefficient in the eyes of native readers of the target language as the skills acquired from their first language interfere.

The aim of contrastive rhetoric is to help second language writers understand the rhetorical conventions and reader expectations in the target language by examining the differences and similarities of writing in their first and second languages.

Differences in ESL and NES Writing

Research which has been carried out on the differences between the writing of ESL and NES writers show that the ESL writing across cultures differ from NES writing in various aspects. Most of these differences have been analyzed through the use of text analysis, which is the most widely used approach of contrastive rhetoric to compare texts across languages, cultures, and disciplines.

Kaplan (1988) says “despite the fact that it arose from a pedagogical motive, contrastive rhetoric belongs to the tradition of text analysis” (p. 278).

Scholars (e.g., Connor, Casanave and so forth) believe that by comparing and analyzing the texts produced by English as a Second Language (ESL) and Native English Speaking (NES) writers, L2 writing teachers as well as students can gain insights about the

similarities and differences in text patterns in English and other languages. I would like to summarize the findings of some of the most important studies in various aspects of text organization which, I do believe, will help L2 writing teachers as well as students to understand writing across languages and cultures.

(a) General Organizational Patterns

Studies have found that there are differences in general organizational pattern across languages. Norment (cited in Silva, 1997) found distinct linear organizational patterns in native speakers of English, centrifugal patterns in those of Chinese, and linear patterns with tangential breaks in native Spanish writers.

Chinese

Kaplan (cited in Connor, 1996), argues that Chinese as well as other “oriental” writing is indirect. A subject is not discussed directly in Chinese writing but is approached from a variety of indirectly related views. Kaplan (1972) mentions that this “indirectness” is due to the influence of “eight-legged essay”, a traditional standard essay form also recognized in China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore for expository and persuasive writing.

Arabic

Kaplan and Ostler (cited in Connor, 1996) have claimed that Arabic writing has a series of parallel constructions which often interferes with ESL writing. It has been suggested that this style is influenced by the forms of classical Arabic, as found in the Koran.

In Arabic, coordination is preferred to subordination. In stead of developing paragraphs in the manner of English (a general statement followed by a series of specific examples), Arabic develops paragraph through a series of negative and positive parallel constructions.

Ostler also finds a significantly higher number of coordinated sentences and more discourse units; often begun with a superordinate, universal statement, and ended with some type of formulaic or proverbial statement.

Japanese

Hinds has conducted an extensive research on Japanese-English contrasts. Hinds (cited in Connor, 1996) found that the Japanese compositions had *ki-shoo-ten-ketsu* or four unit pattern. The introduction of *ten* part is connected but not directly associated to the rest of the text. It leads the English reader to consider Japanese expository prose incoherent.

Hinds (1990) claimed that writing in Japanese, Chinese, Thai, and Korean follows an organizational pattern which he termed “quasi-inductive” as opposed to the deductive pattern followed by English speaking writers.

Burtoff (cited in Silva, 1997) reports distinct patterns of logical relations in the text of native speakers of English, Arabic and Japanese. Her study shows that NES subjects use specific details and organize information in a text to form a ‘theme-rheme’ pattern what Kaplan has termed linear pattern. The native Japanese speaking subjects repeat facts or ideas for emphasis, and include only logically related information. They end texts or segments of texts with generalizations, and use adversative relations in clauses.

Some Contrasts

Burtoff finds that her native Arabic-speaking subjects prefer to “explain by example and organizing information in arguments of equal weight” (p.211). They structure organization horizontally rather than vertically.

Eggington (1987) has studied the Korean text and has found that Korean texts are featured by indirectness and nonlinear development.

In the German- English contrast, Clyne (1983) found that the German writers were more digressive and were less likely than the English writers to place topic sentences early in a paragraph or to define terms.

Connor (1996) summarizes the studies of English-Spanish contrastive rhetoric by Santiago, and Santana-Seda. The studies suggest that the native Spanish speaking writers prefer elaborate and ornate language, with perhaps a leaning toward the loose association of clauses.

Cmejroková (cited in Connor 1996) reports that Czech writing is featured by a large number of nominalizations, overloaded phrases, delayed purpose, baroque, associativeness, and multiplicity of standpoints.

In terms of overall text organization of Finnish writers, Mauranen (1993) found that they tended to place their main points towards the end of the text, as opposed to Anglo-Americans. Finns had also a tendency to leave the main point implicit whereas Anglo-Americans seemed to repeat it rather than leave it unsaid.

(b) Argument Structure

Argumentative writing is what the ESL writers feel most uneasy with. Studies show that different argument structures exist between NES and NNEs as well as among NES. Quite a few researchers have studied the differences in argument structure in NES and ESL

writers. Studies by Choi, Connor, Connor and Lauer, Mahmoud, Oi, Ouaouicha, Matalene (cited in Silva, 1997) are summarized below:

In a functional analysis of arguments written by NES and Arabic, Mahmoud reports that the native Arabic speakers did “less stating of conditions, less defining, and less identifying, and less exemplifying but used more warning and phatic communion”(p.212). Arabic speakers do not state and support their positions fully and tend to develop their arguments by restating their positions. The Arabic speakers’ texts are also reported to exhibit less paragraphing, less rhetorical connectedness, a looser segmental structure, less variety, and less explicit formal closure.

Oi finds her native-Japanese speaking subjects using more “mixed arguments (arguing both for and against) and argument alterations (between arguing for and arguing against)” (p.212). Their ending is found to be different from the beginning positions. Her Japanese subjects use more hedges and fewer superlatives and they are found to be ‘more tentative and less hyperbolic than their NES peers.

In his comparative study between NES and Arabic argumentative writing, Ouaouicha, reports that the native speakers of Arabic provide more data but “fewer claims, warrants, backings, and rebuttals than their NES counterparts” (p.212). He also reports that the Arabic speakers less often fulfill the task, use fewer ethos in their arguments, address the audience less often, and express more pathos.

Choi’ in his two studies between Korean and English reports that some elements like claim, justification, and conclusion were missing in some of the Koreans’ texts. He finds the Korean text inductive. In the second study, Choi notes differences in argument structure between the two groups—the NES subjects prefer a claim-justification-conclusion pattern; the native Korean speakers, a situation-problem-solution-conclusion pattern.

Connor and Lauer (1988) studied argumentative essays of fifty English speaking students each from England, New Zealand and the United States. No significant difference in the use of the superstructure of arguments was found but there was a significant difference, on other persuasive variables tested (setting-problem- solution-evaluation) among the groups. In the Toulmin analysis of reasoning (claim-data-warrant), the U.S. compositions as one group were significantly lower than the English and New Zealand compositions. Furthermore, the U.S. compositions were significantly lower on use of persuasive appeals.

Matalene (cited in Connor, 1996), observes that Chinese ESL students’ writing arguments are often delayed, include narration, and use statements that seem unconnected in the eyes of the Western reader.

All these studies indicate that argument structures differ across cultures. Even among the NES argument structures differ.

(c) Coherence

It appears from studies that ESL writing lacks coherence as defined by western writing practices. According to Connor (1996), cohesion does not create coherence, instead, to be coherent; texts need to make sense to the reader. Two theories for the definition of coherence have emerged among which the one that emphasizes the interaction between the reader and the text have prevailed. Connor (1996) suggests that the application of coherence theories can improve writing instructions. One particularly promising attempt to describe discourse-based coherence, which is applicable directly to writing instruction, is topical structure analysis.

Williams (cited in Connor, 1996) provides a contrastive analysis of English and Arabic theme-rheme progression in the development in the coherence of texts. According to him, Arabic texts contain exact coreference of the theme in sentence after sentence as well as repetition of lexical items for esthetic or cohesive reasons. Matalene, (cited in Connor, 1996) is of the opinion that Chinese rhetoric lacks argumentative coherence because of its reliance on appeals of history, tradition and authority and its frequent reference to historical and religious texts as well as proverbs. Connor's study on coherence (cited in Silva, 1997) reports that her ESL subjects' texts had less adequate justification of claims and were less likely to link concluding inductive statements to the preceding subtopics of the problem.

(d) Textual Structures

In terms of communication goals, different textual structures have different effect on reader. In other words, different text structures may be more or less effective for different communication goals. Study by Carrell, 1984; Meyer et al, 1980 (cited in Carrell, 1987) on reading comprehension have found that the *descriptive* type of organization was the least effective while text organized with a *comparison*, *problem/solution*, or *causation* type was more effective in communicating with the reader. Another study by Meyer (cited in Carrell, 1987) shows that when writers use express signaling devices, there is a facilitating effect on reading comprehension.

(e) Audience

Readers' involvement with the text is not the same across languages and cultures. If ESL writers lack clear idea about what their readers expect, their writing in all probability, will fail to communicate. Contrastive rhetoricians (e.g., Leki, 1991; Hinds, 1987;) strongly believe that different reader expectations are the primary reason for cross-cultural

differences in writing styles and that students should be made aware of these differences by their teachers.

According to Leki (1991), it is important for ESL teachers to make their students aware of the following: English speaking readers are convinced by facts, statistics, and illustrations in argument; they move from generalizations to specific examples and expect explicit links between main topics and subtopics; and they value originality.

In English, the person primarily responsible for communication is the writer, while in other languages such as Japanese, Korean, the responsibility lies with the reader (Hinds, 1987). ESL writers from a Japanese language background might need to be taught that they should not necessarily assume that there is a “sympathetic reader who believes that a reader’s task is to ferret out whatever meaning the author has intended” (Hinds, 1987: 152).

According to Casanave (2004), readers of academic English do not wish to struggle to understand a writer’s message, they want to get through the material fast and yet still have their thinking provoked. They prefer clearly introduced and structurally coherent writing. For English readers, organizational unity is important because readers expect, and require, landmarks along the way. Transition statements are important as well. It is the writer’s task to provide appropriate transition statements so that the reader can piece together the thread of the writer’s logic which binds the composition together. Hinds(1990) says that English readers are familiar with ‘strictly’ deductive organizational pattern.

ESL students display a tremendous lack of analytical skills in their academic writing. We find an excellent description of the characteristics of a ‘good analytical writing’ in the eyes of the English reader in Fox (1994).

In her study, Fox finds that a ‘good analytical writing’ is featured by an array of activities on the part of the writer. It includes setting down a clear, step-by step, transparently logical progression of ideas, examining a variety of ideas and opinion critically and creating an original interpretation that shows, very explicitly and directly, the writer’s point of view. It wants the writer to use reference materials to add evidence and authority to his/her own argument, and to weave together material from a variety of sources into a pattern that “make sense” to the reader. The writer should “attribute ideas to individual author with meticulous care” (p. 18). In an analytical writing the writer is expected to speak with a voice of authority and to come to specific “reasoned conclusion” through judgments and recommendations. A writer should write sparsely and directly and should avoid digressions and embellishments. A paragraph or section should begin with a general, analytical statement and be followed by pertinent example.

A reader comprehends a text on the basis of his background knowledge which has been called schemata. According to Carrell & Eisterhold (1983), a good writing provides sufficient clues in the text for the reader “to effectively utilize a bottom-up processing mode to activate schemata the reader may already possess” (p.)

(f) Criteria of Good Writing

The criteria of good writing in the eyes of evaluators differ across languages. Li (1996) in her study compared the responses of four U.S. and mainland Chinese teachers to six students’ essays. The U.S. teachers appreciated logic and a clear opening while their Chinese counterparts appreciated an essay that expressed sentiment, natural scenes, and a moral message. As to writer’s responsibility in English, Ramanathan & Kaplan (1996) say that the writer should present relevant information regarding the topic in question in order to communicate effectively.

English readers want to hear the writer’s voice. They expect the writer to take a position on the basis of a critical analysis of what the author says. Ramanathan & Kaplan (1996) talk about the implication of audience and voice in L2 writing. According to them, knowing for whom students write will create a clear sense of audience and enable them to present clearer and strongly individualized voices. They identify a number of features of a “good” argumentative writing in relation to audience and voice.

A good essay has a focus and other points are subordinate to this larger focus. A strong argument deals with an issue that divides an audience. A strong argument’s persuasive quality depends on how writers “borrow and stitch together bits of “old” texts to create a “new” text” (p.26). A strong argument shows the evidence of critical thinking and “incorporates values”.

Writing involves rethinking one’s beliefs/ values and this process is a necessary component of developing one’s voice. A sound argument weighs audience’s needs. An effective argument recognizes counter positions and alternative viewpoints. Ramanathan & Kaplan (1996: 27)

(g) The Role of Voice

Regarding the importance of voice, Shen (1989) says, “rule number one in English composition is: Be yourself.” (p.460). While sharing his experiences on adapting to the writing conventions and reader expectations in English, Shen tells us that more than one of his composition instructor told him “Just write what *you* think”(p.461). The importance of voice is more clearly conveyed when Shen says—

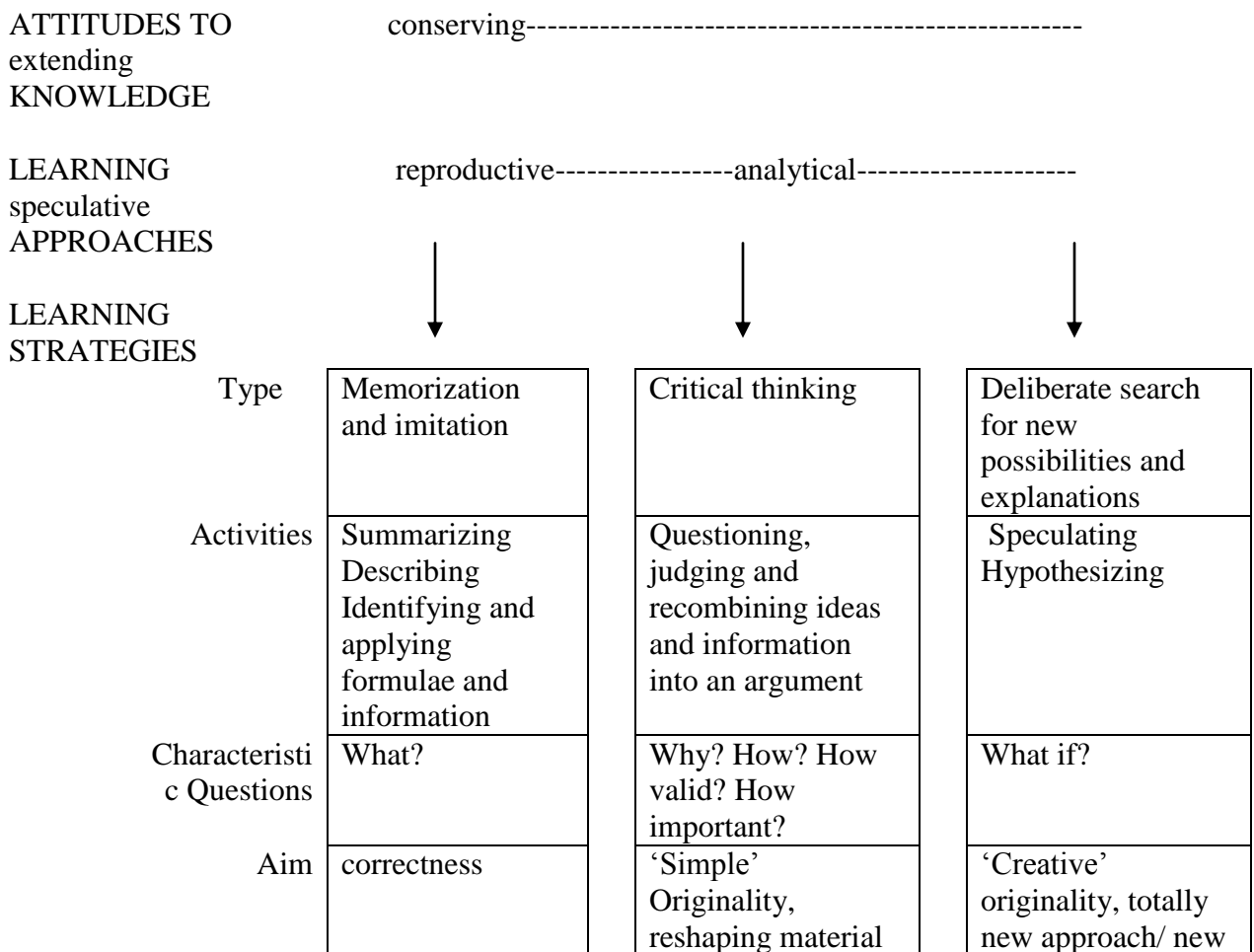
Now, in America, I had to learn to accept the words “I” and “self” as something glorious (as Whitman did), or at least something not to be

ashamed or embarrassed about. It was the first and probably the biggest step I took into English composition and critical writing (p.460).

Tic, the subject of John's (1992) study, also corroborates the importance of voice – "I could write about what I wanted to. The teacher liked to hear *my* stories" (p.188)

Cultural Attitude towards Knowledge

Some researchers are of the opinion that Cultural background of the writer strongly influences, if not determines, the organizational structures. The major proponents of this view are Ballard and Clanchy. According to Ballard and Clanchy (1991), the attitude towards knowledge differs from culture to culture and it has a profound impact on students' writing. Ballard and Clanchy (1991) talked about a continuum of attitudes to knowledge ranging from "conserving" to "extending knowledge". In the following diagram Ballard and Clanchy (1991) explain this continuum of attitudes and the approaches for learning:



	into a different pattern.	knowledge
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The Reproductive Approach

Some parts of the world, especially Asia, adopt what Ballard and Clanchy claim, the reproductive approach to learning that favors strategies of memorization and imitation.

Critical questioning of either the teacher or text is “strongly discouraged” in those parts of the world (p.23). In the Western part of the world, however, students are required “to analyze, to criticize, to question, to evaluate” (p.23). Apart from this, the Western teachers want their students “to adopt critical stance not merely to the issues, points of view, and evidence raised in the course of lectures and class discussions, but equally to the theories, data and conclusions offered by the foremost scholars in the field” (p.23).

Ballard and Clanchy claim that in the Western academia, students are told that it is not “presumptuous to raise questions about the wisdom of respected scholars— it is “mandatory” (p.23). They also claim that in “many Asian traditions there is a strong resistance to critical analysis and there is no pressure on students to evaluate or reach conclusions about serious matters of controversy” (p.33).

Overgeneralization

In the East, knowledge is treated as wisdom and there is no scope for questioning or analysis. This attitude to knowledge, according to Ballard and Clanchy (1991), is largely responsible for the differences between Eastern and Western writing.

It appears that Ballard and Clanchy’s claim about the oriental attitude towards knowledge is overgeneralized and oversimplified. It is not clear on what basis Ballard and Clanchy made the claim that Asian students are “strongly discouraged” from critical questioning of either the teacher or the text. This kind of generalization is simplistic and reductionist and creates an ethnocentric barrier between people of different cultures and languages. Leki (1997), comments that this kind of explanation for behavioral differences “risks turning ESL students into cardboard characters whose behavior is simply determined by cultural norms and who has no individual differences or subtleties obscured by these behaviors” (p. 239).

Ballard and Clanchy seem to imply that, since Asian students do not criticize publicly in their first culture, they are devoid of the ability to criticize. Leki (1997) suggests that one has only to become closer with these students to find that they “most certainly can and do criticize not only teachers but also institutions and other authorities.” (p.239). She refers

to the Chinese revolution of 1949 and demonstration at Tiananmen Square in 1989 to show that these students have the ability and willingness to criticize.

Ballard and Clanchy's view neglects the agency of the writer in the discourse construction. Matsuda (1997) is critical of this view. Under this view, says Matsuda, "the writer is seen as a "writing machine", as it were, that creates text by reproducing the pattern provided by his or her linguistic, cultural or educational background" (p.51).

Organization of Written Documents

Teaching of organization would be difficult, if not impossible; if Ballard and Clancy's view that the writing is determined wholly by the writer's background, which constitutes his or her linguistic and cultural identity, is accepted. Organization of written discourse is not determined solely by who the writer is.

Writers have their own intention and by claiming that they are limited by their culture, the active role of the writer is overlooked. It also overlooks the diversity within the culture itself.

It has been corroborated by the study of Connor and Lauer (1988), where they found differences in writing styles among the NES writers. Zamel (1997) suggests that, such an attitude tends to lead us to think the ESL students as less capable of thinking or analyzing critically which ultimately limit "our expectations of students, underconceptualize the reading and writing we ask students to do, and reduce instruction to what Fox (1994) herself recognizes is a "caricature" (p.26) of genuine academic work" (p.343). Raimes (1998) asserts that this kind of view stereotypes students of the same linguistic background regardless of the contexts and prior experiences.

More on Western Students' Skills

Ballard and Clanchy claim that Western students are good at critical thinking as they are required to "to criticize" "to question" "to evaluate" in their academic life. However this does not seem to be the fact. Currie (1999) observes that in some undergraduate courses, teachers are not very "enthusiastic" about critical thinking. Currie found that "the emphasis is not on analytic thinking but rather on information retrieval and recognizing the correct answer" (p.342). Ballard and Clanchy's claim indirectly indicates that Asian students are not as good as their Western counterparts in terms of critical thinking. However, study (e.g., Johns, 1992) shows that Asian students are capable of critical thinking. Tic, the subject of Johns' study demonstrates a sophisticated capability of critical analysis.

Ballard and Clanchy blame the reproductive attitude towards knowledge for memorization and imitation. It is possible that memorization and imitation are prevalent

in oriental countries not because of attitude but because of the types of evaluation. Evaluation in many oriental countries is featured by 100% final examination. If evaluation scheme is modified by incorporating in-class presentation, journal writing, temp paper and so forth, the students might get rid of rote memorization and imitation.

How Contrastive Rhetoric Can Be Helpful in L2 Writing

Scholars (e.g., Connor, Grabe, Hinds, Kaplan, Leki, Matsuda, Purves, Silva) maintain that contrastive rhetoric has tremendous utility for L2 writing. According to Kaplan (1988), different composing conventions do exist in different cultures and these conventions need to be taken into account in teaching L2 writing. A student's ability to compose in one language does not mean the student can compose in other language. Difference in reader/writer responsibility across cultures affects assumption about audience and about shared knowledge. Kaplan (1988) acknowledges that contrastive rhetoric is constrained "by the absence of a rigorous paradigm" and by other considerations like the emic /etic problem, the difficulty of comparing text forms and so on. (p.297).

Nevertheless, the realities of teaching can not be put aside until all the problems are solved. Kaplan strongly believes that contrastive rhetoric can "influence" the teaching of L2 writing. Kaplan (2001) asserts that contrastive rhetoric can facilitate writing in English, creative use of the L2, and the ability to express one's ideas in text in the L2.

Implications of Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric has implication for any population that, for whatever reasons, brings deviant rhetorical practices to texts written in English for English readers. It is conceived as a means of understanding English rhetoric, creating English discourse, and thereby achieving communication with the target audiences. Kaplan (2001) holds that understanding the rhetorical deviations apparent in languages would "bridge the gap between cultural encoding and decoding" (p.4). ESL teachers often attribute the writing difficulties of ESL writers to cognitive inability. Purves, (cited in Panetta, 2001), believes that contrastive rhetoric will enable ESL writing instructors to understand that "differences among rhetorical patterns do not represent differences in cognitive ability, but differences in cognitive style. (p.4)"

Matsuda (1997) says that the need for ESL writers to learn how to organize English written discourse still exists. The findings of contrastive rhetoric research have provided teachers with some insights that can "guide their decisions in developing curriculum and in responding to ESL students' needs" (p.47).

According to Leki (1997), contrastive rhetoric is a liberating concept. She is of the opinion that without contrastive rhetoric "mismatches in L2 student writing and teacher

expectations impugn the students, ability to write or the teachers' ability to read" (p.234). Leki believes that contrastive rhetoric allows ESL teachers to accept differences between their expectations and L2 students' writing by recognizing that the choices L2 students make in their writing originate in different and legitimate rhetorical histories. In stead of interpreting these differences as errors and looking for what is wrong with L2 students' writing, the teachers can "matter-of-factly" note their different expectations and "get down to the business of exchanging" what they want or need from one another (p.234).

Leki (1997) holds that with contrastive rhetoric, ESL writing instructors can come to see that *their* truth is not *the* truth and that, in reality, truth is a relative concept across cultures and languages. . Contrastive rhetorical analyses have greater potential for EFL writing teachers, particularly if the students have consciously learned contrasting text forms in their native languages. (Leki, 1991).

Apart from improving various aspects of writing, contrastive rhetoric might be of tremendous help in raising the self confidence and self-respect of ESL students. Leki (1991) suggests that contrastive rhetoric helps students get out of the inferiority complex by enabling them to understand that preferences in writing styles are culturally influenced. In the same vein, Purves, cited in Penetta (2001) believes that contrastive rhetoric can boost the confidence of ESL students by conveying the simple fact that they do not know about the rhetorical structures in the new culture , but they have the capability to learn the new convention if given ample opportunity.

Contrastive rhetoric findings support the view that the organizational structure of written discourse is a cultural phenomenon. Leki (1992) writes, for example "cultures evolve writing styles appropriate to their own histories and the needs of their societies" (p.90). The pedagogical application of this view involves the teaching of organizational structures that fit the cultural conventions shared by the audience of the target language. Matsuda (1997).Pointing out and realizing differences between rhetorics might help instructors and students analyze what represents successful communication among cultures.

Contrastive rhetoric helps explain why and how teachers should teach the expectations of the English-speaking audience to ESL writers. Hinds 1987; Ramanathan & Kaplan 1996; stress the need for building awareness of reader expectations across cultures. He claims that English is a writer responsible language whereas Japanese is a reader responsible language. Connor (1996; 1997; 2002) believes that cultural differences need to be explicitly taught in order to acculturate EFL writers to the target discourse community.

With the extensive globalization of business and professional communication, writing in such genres as letters, resumes and job application is becoming a reality for more and more people. Contrastive rhetoric findings might help people communicate more

effectively across cultures around the globe. Connor (1996) also recommends the use of contrastive rhetoric in teaching of business and technical writing.

Textual Structure Analysis

Findings of textual structure analysis might help ESL students to recognize that there is a hierarchy in the content of texts which can be achieved through the use of outlines and signaling. Carrell (1987) opines that if L2 writing teachers help students with effective outlining, it may enable the students organize the content in a hierarchical structure within which the reader is able to make sense of the entire text.

In terms of communication goals, different textual structures have different effect on reader- they may be more or less effective. The success of a text involves comprehension of the reader. It is important to recognize and utilize text structures that help to achieve this goal better. Findings of text analysis can assist ESL writers in this regard. On the basis of her study, Carrell (1987) asserts that, L2 writers should be taught the various types of structures so that they learn how to structure the texts to offer readers a better comprehension. As she puts it,

“giving writers explicit instruction in how to structure texts differently according to the goals of a particular communication ought to lead to more effective written communication; i.e., writers ought to be able to achieve their goals” (p53).

Carroll and Eisterhold (1983) have also talked about the organization that might ensure a better reader comprehension in the target language.

Contrastive Rhetoric and Differences in Writing Across Disciplines

Contrastive rhetoric might benefit ESL writers by identifying the differences in writing across disciplines. For example, the sciences and social sciences restrict the use of personal pronouns, active-voice verbs, and stylish prose, while the humanities writers are often allowed or even encouraged. Also, there is a difference in the presentation of information across disciplines as they use different genres and writing conventions.

Ramanathan & Kaplan believe that this insight might “reduce the problems faced by nonnative English speaking students who currently must write in an unfamiliar essay genre for a vaguely defined general audience” (p.30).

Research (e.g., Stotsky, 1983) indicates that good readers are good writers. Being a good reader involves recognizing, interpreting and examining the linguistic and rhetorical features of the text that the writer may have chosen to facilitate the readers’ process of

making meaning. Johns (1993) cited in Sengupta 1999) has also called for an awareness of real readers in the in the ESL writing classroom. Contrastive rhetoric might help ESL students raise rhetorical consciousness.

According to Sengupta (1999), such consciousness allows students to see how writers “write for their readers and the kinds of rhetorical and linguistic devices that typically make a text accessible to a reader” (p.293). Contrastive rhetoric can enhance learners’ understanding of a “reader-friendly “ text and influence their own writing and their “self-perception of writing abilities” (Sengupta, 1999:295).

Criticisms of Contrastive Rhetoric

Despite the views of Kaplan and others, there have been studies which challenge the findings from contrastive rhetoric and criticize its value in teaching L2 writing. Some second language writing scholars (e.g., Zamel 1997) criticize contrastive rhetoric for its excessive bias for contrasts or differences in writing styles across cultures and voice doubts about the suitability of the findings of the studies for teaching second language writing. Mohan and Lo (1985) disagree with Kaplan’s (1972) thesis of ‘negative transfer’. Leki (1991) criticizes Kaplan’s (1966) claim about the linearity of English writing; the validity of the selection of texts for comparison, and so forth.

Kaplan’s (1972) claim that second language learners writing expository prose in English will show organizational patterns different from those of native speakers because of the fact that the learner is transferring rhetorical organization from the mother tongue and culture has been challenged by Mohan and Lo (1985). On the basis of their findings Mohan and Lo (1985) argue that “transfer of rhetorical organization is more likely to help than to interfere” and that “negative transfer should be rejected as the sole explanation for student difficulty”. They claim that native language plays some positive role which should not be ignored and it should also be studied whether a good at writing skill in the first language has an effect on writing in the second language.

Mohan and Lo in their study articulated that in stead of comparing and contrasting the influence of culture on rhetorical pattern, we should rather take into consideration the background education of the learners. In their study they found a huge difference in their Hong Kong and British Columbia subjects’ learning experiences. While organization at the discourse level was stressed in the text books used in British Columbia schools, Hong Kong teachers were more concerned about sentence-level accuracy (e.g. grammatical correctness). Mohan and Lo hold students’ lack of exposure to expository and argumentative writing as a cause of trouble in L2 writing. When they compared composition instruction in Vancouver and Hong Kong, they found that Hong Kong teachers emphasized the teaching of grammar, especially verb forms, but teachers in Vancouver were more concerned with teaching units larger than the sentence as well as with explaining and discussing organization and aspects of style.

Mohan and Lo suggest that if there are differences in the ability of Chinese and Western students in terms of organization of essays, the source of the differences does not lie in a preference for “indirectness” in the language and culture in Chinese. Rather it lies in the emphasis of the English language instruction. They also suggest that rhetorical abilities take some times to develop and previous education quickens or prolongs this acquisition process. As Mohan and Lo say,

“ability in rhetorical organization develops late, even among writers who are native speakers, and because this ability is derived especially from formal education, previous educational experiences may facilitate or retard the development of academic writing ability. In other words we should be aware of the late development of composition ability across the board and pay particular attention to students’ previous educational experience” (p.528)

Mohan and Lo seems to suggest that ESL writers will be able to acquire the conventions of writing in the target language if they are allowed time. The fact, however, is L2 writers are not able to catch up with the conventions of target discourse even after being in an ESL environment for quite some time. Mohan and Lo are of the opinion that previous education experience facilitated the writing of the Vancouver students as their teachers “were more concerned with teaching units larger than the sentence” Learning units larger than the sentence does not anyway guarantee composing in the target language. For example, a good many students from my home country (Bangladesh) suffer with their writing in western universities despite their having an English medium education background where they received the kind of language instruction what Mohan and Lo believe facilitate writing in the target language.

Leki’s Arguments

Leki (1991) questions the very basis of Kaplan’s assertion that English writing is linear. She asserts that in stead of looking at actual English writing, Kaplan relied on style manuals from the 1960s. She refers to the research of Braddock (1974) who has asserted that writing of professional native speaker English writers is not necessarily linear. They do not always begin with a topic sentence and move directly to support, and so on.

As to the reason why contrastive rhetoric is not favored by process advocates, Leki says that contrastive rhetoric research examines the product only, it does not take into account the processes the L2 writers go through to produce a text. Thus the findings applied for L2 writing become ‘almost by definition’ prescriptive.

According to Leki, the findings of modern contrastive rhetoric are “much less immediately importable into the ESL writing classroom than they once seemed.” She holds that rhetorical

cultures are more complex, dynamic, and protean than they were once thought to be. If this aspect of contrastive rhetoric is acknowledged, the prospect of contrastive rhetoric being used in the writing classroom becomes much less likely.

The second issue raised by Leki (1991) as to the applicability of contrastive rhetoric is the validity of rhetorical contexts from which the texts studied are drawn. Because it is not only difficult to select appropriate texts across cultures for comparison but also to ensure similarity in terms of textual types, purposes, readers, places of publication and other specifics of contexts from which their texts are drawn.. Dissimilarity between the two contexts compared will render the findings of contrastive rhetoric inapplicable to ESL classroom.

The other issue Leki (1991) draws attention to is the ‘little pedagogical purpose’ of contrastive rhetoric. The learners will not be benefited by learning about the particular style of writing in, for example, Japanese magazine articles if students are not writing Japanese magazine articles.

Leki admits that contrastive rhetoric studies have a great deal to offer in teaching writing in EFL contexts. However, the immediate practical uses of the findings of contrastive rhetoric, says Leki, are not clear. She thinks that ESL writing teachers will not be able to put the information that cultures approach writing differently, to good use. The teachers having no training in the specific rhetoric across cultures will eventually end up imposing typical English forms on all non native speakers regardless of their first language.

Leki argues that the findings of contrastive rhetoric may produce instant enlightenment for the students as the students suddenly become conscious of the implicit assumption in the target language but this sudden enlightenment does not guarantee sudden improvement. She refers to the study of Schlumberger and Mangelsdorf (1989). They directly lectured on some of the findings of contrastive rhetoric studies to one group of students, but this attention focused on contrastive rhetoric seemed to have no effect of the students subsequent writing compared with that of a control group. Leki refers to another study conducted by Quick, (1983) with native speakers. Quick found that even a profound cognitive awareness of rhetorical strategies does not necessarily translate into the ability to use that knowledge in actual writing.

Any Insistence on Particular Strategies?

Johns (1992) is concerned about insisting students that they adopt strategies that are characteristic of NES writers. She raises objections to ESL teachers’ attempt to “make students into clones of successful native speakers” (p. 197). John suggests that instead of imposing native speaker “rules”, the teachers should encourage ESL students “to do what works for them, whether it is theoretically correct at this point in time or not” (p. 197).

Johns also states that the most important task for ESL teachers is to scaffold diverse students in their pursuits in the Western academia, and encourage their personal development. She stresses the need for ESL teachers to assist them in letting their voices be heard, since it is through them that we can better understand how individuals successfully adapt to new cultures. Johns has rather a lenient view in terms of ESL writing teachers' attempt to improve their students' writing. She thinks that ESL teachers' principal responsibility is to assist their students in recognizing and enhancing their abilities by adopting whatever ways the students think suit them.

Contrastive Rhetoric for Writing

Leki has reservations about the suitability of contrastive rhetoric for being used in L2 writing classes on the ground that rhetorical cultures are "more complex, dynamic, and protean than they were once thought to be" (P.). However, if contrastive rhetoric continues to expose the facets of the complex cultures, L2 writing teachers might be able to identify the similarities and differences in writing in the students' first culture and target culture, and it might help to scaffold the students.

Leki's second concern is that contrastive rhetoric deals only with product. However, since the product arises out of the process, the study of the product is bound to include the process as well. Leki's third reservation is about the validity of the rhetorical contexts. Rhetoricians admit that it is difficult to ensure similarity of rhetorical contexts. By being more careful about the selection of contexts researchers might overcome this limitation.

Leki says that she is not clear about the immediate practical uses of the findings of contrastive rhetoric. However, certain findings, for example, the preferred argument structure in English (i.e. deductive); sharing the responsibility for meaning, referred to as "writer responsible" and "reader responsible" (Hinds, 1987) might have important implication for educational practices. (Silva, 1997).

Leki fears that teachers having no training in the specific rhetoric across cultures will not be able to put the contrastive rhetoric findings to good use. However, if teacher training programs involve the study of the findings from contrastive rhetoric, and if teachers are made explicitly aware of the rhetorical differences across cultures, they may perhaps be able to use the findings of contrastive rhetoric to good use in teaching ESL writing. While they may not have the knowledge to the extent of a native speaker of that language or culture, they will, perhaps, gain some insight to scaffold their students to the target rhetoric.

Leki's claim that the "sudden enlightenment" that students get from contrastive rhetoric does not necessarily result in the improvement of writing is perhaps right. However, it is often the case that, what students learn in lectures needs to be strengthened through practice and implementation of that knowledge. If students are "enlightened" on the

rhetorical conventions in the target language and at the same time made to practice those conventions in writing, it is quite possible that improvement is likely to follow.

Making Students Clones?

Johns' concern about ESL teachers' attempt to make students into clones of successful native speakers can be mitigated if ESL teachers do not attempt to teach the contrastive research findings in prescriptive way. If teachers just raise the consciousness of the student writers about the preferred conventions of writing in the target language and the expectations of the audience, and encourage them to incorporate those conventions into their writing, students will be benefited.

Implication for Research and Pedagogy

Silva (1997) is of the opinion that findings of the studies in contrastive rhetoric have important pedagogical implication for educational practices, placement, staffing and developing instructional procedures and strategies for ESL writers. The findings suggest that ESL writers requires a different kind of scaffolding and in stead of forcing them into mainstream, NES dominated writing classes, they should be provided with "credit-bearing, requirement fulfilling writing classes designed especially for them" (pp. 217).

The findings justify the notion that ESL writing teachers should be aware of, sympathetic to their students' socio-cultural, rhetorical and linguistic differences. Contrastive rhetoric has shown that ESL writers have different world views and approaches to writing which set their writing wide apart from their NES counterparts. Therefore, it has made it seem unreasonable on the part of the ESL evaluators to expect the same level of competency from their ESL students. As the studies demonstrate a lack of planning and generation of ideas in ESL students', they should be instructed how to include more work on planning and generation of ideas. NES writers do a number of drafts before they come to the finished product whereas ESL students' composing process is not featured by draft (Dennett; Silva, cited in Silva, 1997). ESL teachers can encourage their students to follow this writing procedure.

However, prior to applying the findings of contrastive rhetoric for teaching L2 writing, ESL teachers should take into consideration that the studies in contrastive rhetoric have some common limitations like small samples, inadequate descriptions of subjects or writing conditions, and a lack of reliability estimates or significance tests.(Silva ,1997).

Coherence continues to be difficult concepts for ESL students (Lee, 2002). Studies have found that ESL writing lacks coherence. Contrastive rhetoric findings can be used to teach coherence-creating devices used by writers in texts (Lee 2002).According to Lee, Knowledge of coherence in writing is particularly important for ESL learners since the concept of coherence may be different in L1 writing. Since the readers play an important

role in the construction of coherence, it was felt important to take into account reader-based factors like purpose, audience, and context. Matsuda also is of the opinion that contrastive rhetoric can contribute to the teaching of ESL writing by exposing the possible sources of the apparent lack of coherence in ESL texts.

Kaplan (1988), however, suggests that teachers be cautious in their implementation of the findings of contrastive rhetoric. They should be sensitive to the cultures of their students and ensure that they do not create anxiety or impose a sense of obligation to adopt the target culture which might be counterproductive. Kaplan (1988) cautions,

but remember, please, that at this stage you are not merely teaching the student to manipulate language –you are actually teaching him to see the world through English colored glasses. In doing so you are running the very serious risk of being legitimately accused of brainwashing (p.16).

Future Research

There should be more research to validate the findings of the studies conducted till date. Researchers should be more cautious in ensuring the similarity of the comparing contexts. Greater focus should be given in the area of NES and ESL composing process as there may be cross-cultural differences, Leki (1997). According to Silva (1997), there is a need for more and better research comparing ESL and NES writing. Silva wants future researchers to “do a better job of reporting subject variables, especially language proficiency and writing ability, make writing tasks and conditions more realistic, and analyze data more rigorously particularly –in coding reliability estimates and statistical significance testing.

More studies could be conducted to find out whether explicit classroom teaching of the findings of contrastive rhetoric leads to better writing. Researchers should go beyond English text; they should compare the L2 text with NES writing in other disciplines.

According to Leki (1997), the findings of contrastive rhetoric might be more directly useful to ESL writing teachers if “researchers broadened their scope by looking beyond texts written for English classes, by investigating possible contrasts in L2 and NES students’ writing across the disciplines” (p.237)

Conclusion

From what has been seen from the above discussion, contrastive rhetoric may be of immense help for teaching L2 writing. It is evident from research that L2 writers transfer a lot of organizational skills from their first language. If L2 writing teachers take into consideration that the organizational patterns are different across languages and cultures,

it becomes easier on their part to scaffold their students to the discourse pattern in the target language.

More often than not, teachers do not consider the language and cultural background of the students. They have a tendency to attribute the failures of the student writers to incompetence or lack of critical thinking. Teachers have to be aware of the fact that the lacking ESL students are displaying in their writing is due to the influence of the rhetorical patterns in their first culture and language.

The absence of this very awareness often causes teachers to misunderstand their students' writings. If the teachers apply the insights gained from contrastive rhetoric, they might be able to find that the actual problem with their students' writing lies with the misunderstanding of the rhetorical conventions in the target language. If teachers first focus on the rhetorical conventions in the target language, it might quicken the pace of learning of the students to write in the target language.

If students are made explicitly aware of the fact that there are differences in the organizational patterns between their first and second language, it might relieve, as Leki (1991) has pointed out, the students of the inferiority complex they often suffer from. . Indeed, the classroom research has demonstrated that coherence need not be a fuzzy and elusive concept; it can be understood, taught, learnt, and practiced in the classroom.

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ELT in Yemen and India - The Need for Remedial Measures

Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal, Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

This paper attempts to investigate the ELT scenario in both Yemen and India at the school level with an aim to project /highlight the problems of both the situations and present some suggestions that, once carried out, can improve the teachers' performance and thereby enhance the standard of teaching of English in the said contexts.

Key words: ELT problems; remedial measures; teachers' performance

Introduction

Yemen is a monolingual country with Arabic as the mother tongue of most of its nationals. English is a foreign language in Yemen. It is taught for three years in preparatory schools (classes 7-9) and for three years more at the secondary stage (classes 10-12) in government schools. Thus, most of the students will have studied English for six years before they enter the tertiary stage.

Like learners in many other countries where English is taught as a foreign language, Yemeni learners of English are exposed to English in the classroom, but communicate in their own language outside. Therefore, they cannot communicate well in English either inside or outside the classroom even after completing the tertiary stage of education. They also find it difficult to cope with lectures given in English in the college.

On the other hand, India is a multilingual country with English as the second language of most of its nationals. English is taught for three years at the upper primary stage (classes 6-8) , and for four more years at the secondary stage (classes 9-10 and +1- +2) in government schools (the National Curriculum Framework for School Education 2000, quoted in Aslam 2003). Thus, most of the students will have studied English for seven years before they come to the tertiary stage.

Unlike Yemeni students, Indian students are exposed to English outside the classroom as well. There are many occasions when an Indian student communicates with a shopkeeper, for example, in English. However, students do also communicate among themselves in their mother tongue/ native language outside the classroom.

One problem common to both the situations is that teachers of English teach it in a traditional way, i.e., they just focus on teaching grammatical items in a graded manner. The learners receive knowledge alone of English usage, thus they fail to communicate/ speak fluently in English outside the classroom. The poor linguistic ability of school leavers necessitates a thorough change / improvement in the teaching techniques, among other things at the pre-tertiary stage of education. Concrete efforts for improving the English teaching situation in India have been made.

In the preface of his book *Teaching English in Changing India*, K.P. Thakur states that a “Study group on the teaching of English was appointed by the Ministry of Education, Government of India in 1967 under the chairmanship of Prof. V.K. Gokak to suggest the extent of the knowledge of English which a student should have at the end of the secondary stage with a view to maintaining standards”. However, no committee has been formed /appointed for such a purpose in Yemen. This shows that English is given greater attention in India than in Yemen.

Brief History of English Teaching in Yemen

Yemen: A Historical Overview

The northern part of Yemen was ruled by the Ottomans for four centuries or so. Their rule came to an end in 1914 when the Turks were defeated in the First World War. The Imam's reign of the northern part of the country continued for 44 years (1918-1962). During that time, people were deprived of basic education. A good number of them were illiterate. On the other hand, the southern part of Yemen came under British control in 1839. The British set up some schools to educate the people and teach them English. A good number of Yemenis acquired the language and served as interpreters as well as clerks in the British offices opened in Aden then.

The northern and southern parts of the country were declared republics after the revolutions that broke out on September 26, 1962 and October 14, 1963 in the northern and southern parts respectively. The two parts i.e. "Yemen Arab Republic" (YAR) or North Yemen, and "People's Democratic Republic of Yemen" (PDROY) or South Yemen, were united on May 22, 1990, which is a historical day for all Yemenis.

Whereas the British introduced the use of English through direct contact and by establishing government schools during their rule of South Yemen, in North Yemen, English was introduced as a school subject only during the school year 1963-1964. Following this, the Yemeni government started hiring teachers from countries like Egypt and Sudan to teach English in both the urban and rural schools.

The Importance of English in Yemen

English is the most widely used medium of communication in higher education, business and medicine at the international level. No developing country can ignore the role of English in improving its international profile and prominence. Yemen is no exception. "From the 80s onwards, the Yemeni government made it a point to provide equal educational opportunities to all Yemenis irrespective of their sex and age" (Al-Ahdal, 2008, p. 3). It established the policy of sending students abroad (Arabic and English-speaking countries). It also experienced the expansion of its business transactions with other countries in the world.

With the advancement in business, science and technology, English has become very important and the number of foreign visitors, teachers and workers in Yemen has kept increasing steadily. Yemenis need English not only when they go abroad for academic and business purposes, but also when they have to interact with non-Arabic speaking visitors for various purposes.

There is, indeed, a dire need for teaching and learning English in Yemen for many reasons. Given below are some of these reasons as stated by Bose (2001):

- 1 Yemen with its rich, ancient culture is becoming a major attraction for tourists from all over the world. English will help boost the country's tourism industry.
- 2 Higher Education in Yemen is expanding and there is a need for offering advanced courses in the field of science and technology. This entails the increasing use of English in higher education.
- 3 The number of Yemeni students going to countries like UK, USA, Malaysia and India for higher studies is increasing and they need proficiency in English.
- 4 The trade relations of Yemen with other countries are increasing and there is a

growing need for English in international trade (pp. 15-16).

It is also a fact that the world's most widely surfed or cited journals are either published in English or translated into English. Thus Yemenis, be they inside or outside Yemen, need to access these English sources of knowledge to pursue their self-development.

Problems of Education in Yemen

Sahu (2008) identifies seven components of education; viz., pupils, teachers, parents, classroom, curriculum, textbook and educational institutions. The success of a country's education system depends on how well these components perform together and the degree of integration among them. These concepts provide the frame for this analysis of the educational situation in Yemen.

The economy and education are intimately interlinked. A country's economy, if unstable, will negatively affect various aspects of its education system. This is exactly the case in Yemen. The infrastructure of Yemeni schools and higher academic institutions leaves a lot to be desired. There are no laboratories for scientific experiments in the schools. There are even schools without enough teachers and the teachers available do not have enough teaching aids. Besides, they are low-paid.

All these factors extremely demotivate the teachers. Furthermore, students do not get the necessary encouragement from schools, teachers and parents/ relatives. In most cases, there is no contact between schools and homes. That is, parents do not bother about monitoring the academic progress of their wards. Nor do teachers or school administrators take care to inform parents about the improvement or otherwise of their children. Parents and teachers have to come together and establish a strong bond for the education system to be effective in Yemen.

Other sections of the system, viz., students and parents are also demotivated. The lack of responsiveness of the system to the social and psychological realities of the country is mainly responsible for the increase in cases of drop outs from schools. We see this in many forms:

- 1 Families cannot afford to finance the education of all their children. Some parents cannot afford to give daily pocket money to their children.
- 2 When parents see the phenomenon of the educated unemployed, they start questioning the value of education itself. If spending more than 10 years at school and four years in college does not ensure employment, why not withdraw the child from school?

The mushrooming of expensive private schools in the country too has had a negative impact on the education system. These schools are well-funded and have much better physical infrastructure than government schools. The problem with them is that they are viewed by their

owners only as money spinners not as centres of educational excellence. They extract maximum amounts of money from the parents, but spend a bare minimum on teachers and modern educational equipment. There are even allegations that they encourage corruption in their bid to ensure good results.

Problems of English Education in Yemen

ELT in Yemen has never been a priority item in the educational scheme of things. This is so because of the lack of effective pre-service education (PRESET) and the near non-existence of in-service training of teachers (INSET). In other words, English education at almost all levels in Yemen is facing many problems. The lack of need-based curricula and materials, the shortage of qualified teachers, and the large size and heterogeneity of classes are only some of these. Another problem is the teachers' frequent resort to the students' mother tongue, Arabic, in the English classes.

Lack of Appropriate Instructional Materials

One of the major problems Yemeni teachers and learners of English face at the school level is the non-availability of appropriate materials. Materials in the conventional format like textbooks, supplementary readers, and workbooks are either inadequate or inappropriate. Modern materials like audio-video cassettes, and educational software, the order of the day in advanced countries are not even heard of.

Therefore the teaching and learning of English in Yemen is still at an elementary stage of evolution. English prescribed teaching and learning in Yemen is bound to suffer.

The Crescent English Course

Moreover, the present English textbooks prescribed for Yemeni schools at present, viz., Crescent English Course for Yemen (CECFY), are not exactly altered for the socio-cultural and pedagogic situation in Yemen. Though attractive and well laid-out, the Crescent materials appear to have assumed a level of competence higher than that of the students and teachers. This is because the students' proficiency level continues to be low and the teachers are not trained well enough to adapt the materials at the actual level.

Sahu (2005) points out the following problems with the CECFY:

The books have many shortcomings, which render them unsuitable for most Yemeni learners of English. They are not properly graded for teaching vocabulary and structures; do not take into cognizance the entry behavior (EB) or the 'schema' (background knowledge) of the learners for whom they are intended. There are not enough communicative activities to encourage the learners to participate in

language games involving productive and receptive language skills. The books abound in words like 'air-hostess,' 'otter' and 'emergency' which most learners are not likely to encounter in their immediate environment. This is sure to hinder their ability to make profitable use of the teaching materials and achieve an effective transfer of language skills.

There are also cases of cultural incomprehensibility and inappropriateness in the content of some materials.

Inadequacy of Teachers

Most teachers of English with relevant qualifications enter the profession without adequate training. They are not aware of current trends in ELT. In very many cases, they lack not only the teaching skills, but even basic English language proficiency. Thus, they fail to help their students to speak good English. “Yemeni teachers of English at preparatory and secondary schools face serious problems in Spoken English and therefore they may not be able to teach this skill to their students effectively” (Bernard (1988), cited in Al-Shamiry (2000, p.19).

The teaching profession is at the lower end of career choice in Yemen. Teachers are not given incentives like awards for the “Best Teacher”. A teacher’s salary is just enough to pay rent for a flat, so a teacher’s concern/ priority will be to find an additional job to pay for their living. Education for a higher qualification or training for better on-job performance is not likely to appear important in such a situation. Thus, going to school every day turns to be a chore to be performed. They do not look forward to the class, do not enjoy teaching, nor reflect with pleasure on the class after it is over. Teachers in such a frame of mind will hardly be able to shape the minds and lives of young pupils.

The teacher plays a pivotal role in any system of education. The destiny of any country is largely shaped in its classrooms. Prof. Humayun Kabir rightly observes, “Without good teachers even the best of systems is bound to fail but with good teachers, the defects of the system can largely be overcome.” Hence the need for conducting need-based CPD programmes on a regular basis.

Large and Heterogeneous Classes

What makes the matter worse is that the number of students in a typical class is about 80 or more. The teacher finds it extremely difficult to pay individual attention to students in such a heterogeneous class. Nor does any student get the opportunity to use the language for communication. Below are some of the challenges usually posed by large classes:

- It is extremely difficult if not impossible to remember the names of all students.
- A teacher, if untrained for the situation, may fail to communicate to students or make himself or herself clear to them.

- Marking students' attendance can be very time-consuming and therefore teachers tend to skip it; this can encourage students to escape classes.
- Marking assignments and answer-scripts is usually time –taking.
- Large classes can be hard to control and a teacher may feel more like a bystander than a classroom manager. It is equally hard to give individual attention to students.
- Textbooks and other supplementary materials may not be available in sufficient quantities.

Excessive Resort to the Mother Tongue (MT)

In a situation where teachers are ill-trained, unmotivated, resources are inadequate, and classes are very large, teachers tend to use the MT in the English classroom as it is an option for students' comprehension of teacher talk.

Defective Examination System

There is little interest in base testing and evaluation on a firm scientific foundation in Yemen. For example, the four-year Under-graduate Course of the Faculty of Education, Hodeidah University offers only one paper on “Testing and Evaluation”. No in-service training on Testing and Evaluation has been conducted for teachers. Thus, teachers depend only on their experience and intuitive knowledge of testing and evaluation in developing tests or preparing question-papers.

The tests developed by the teachers are often a reflection of the methods of testing of their teachers. The question-papers they prepare usually test the students' ability to reproduce memorized information. Thus, testing encourages rote-learning.

According to a report submitted by the Cambridge University Local Examination Syndicate (CULES) in 1985, the English examination papers in Yemen are “seriously restricted in the range of skills tested, concentrating mainly on the factual recall of textbook information and sometimes encouraging the repetition of learned model answers based on textbook exercises” (Al-Hamzi ,1999, p.15).

The questions turn out to be quite predictable as well, so the students scour old question papers, prepare answers to them and learn the answers by heart. There is nothing that engages or stimulates the students' mind.

Policy makers should take urgent steps to improve the Yemeni education system. Education is an investment for the progress of future generations, and laying a sound foundation for education in English language is a pressing practical requirement for Yemen's national development. One of the first steps in this direction is to lower the age at which children are introduced to English.

At present, children in government schools start learning English at about the age of 13. There are neurological and psychological reasons why it is advantageous to start FL/SL education much before that age. Standard 3, at which the children will be around 8-years of age seems to be both pedagogically desirable and practically feasible as a starting point for learning EFL/ESL.

Brief History of English Education in India

India: A Historical Overview

When the British arrived in India in the eighteenth century, there were two systems of education, viz., the Tols and the Madrasas. The former was meant for the learning and teaching of the Sanskrit language and the latter for the learning and teaching of Arabic and Persian.

There was a shortage of teachers then. One teacher would teach all the classes in a school, as almost all schools were single-teacher schools. It was in 1813 when English education was first introduced in India. Bose (2005: 2) states that “a section of the British pleaded for English education for various reasons viz. propagating Christianity, regenerating the Hindu society and the introduction of art and sciences of Europe in India”.

The Need for English in India

Due to globalization, the world is becoming narrow and different countries of the world are coming nearer and nearer to each other in many aspects. There is so much scientific and technological advancement in today's world and new technology is coming out in the field of education, science, communication, etc. Literature concerning new innovations and discoveries in all branches of human knowledge is abundantly available in English. In the present scenario, if scientists, engineers, educationists, etc., wish to easily access the various developments taking place in different countries, they have to be proficient in English. Hence, the need for English in India and elsewhere.

English is also the language of opportunity in India. People with good communication skills in India are more welcome to join any sector than those who are not proficient in the language. In other words, proficiency in English has become a prerequisite for employment in any organisation. This is felt by many job seekers /applicants. There is also a high demand for English-knowing people in the Indian market.

Gupta, in her article *ELT in India: A Brief Historical and Current View*, speaks of the need for English and the avenues where ELT is required. To cite her, “There are now call centres that need trainers to equip their employees with communication skills, there are multinationals who have been recruiting marketing staff who needed to be taught Spoken English, there are medical transcription centres which need efficient translators and reporters. Those desirous of immigration to the west need professional help for clearing tests like the IELTS.”

English in India does also serve a very important social purpose. As India is a multi-lingual country, it is not uncommon / unusual to come across two non- English speaking people from different parts of the country communicating with each other using gestures or body language. In a funny situation like this, English would play a vital role as a link language; thus it is an effective means of social communication.

Chandra (1992) states the following reasons for the continuance of English in India:

1. English is the Lingua Franca of the world;
2. English is the only link language with different parts within the country;
3. English has been declared the State Language in some of the states like Nagaland, Mizoram in the North-East India;
4. English is preferred for inter-state communication particularly in the southern India where linguistic diversities are greater than in any other part of the country;
5. Knowledge of advancements in the fields of Science and Technology made by the western countries is available in English;
6. It is the only language of Trade and Commerce within and without the country ;
7. The west has passed through various revolutions, upheavals and crises whereas the East has remained comparatively static and stagnant, hence backward;
8. English links the Western Thought and Ideas with the East-it is an intellectual link with the West;
9. Knowledge of English enhances status and prospects;
10. India's historical association with England;
11. English-speaking countries' activities and programmes for the promotion of the cause of English in India;
12. A section of Indians, although very small, committed to the cause of English in India;
13. Development of Indian English and the availability of a sizeable literature written in English by Indians. (p 83).]

Problems of English Education in India

Since the Independence Day of India, English has become the official language of the country. Therefore, there has been a lot of expansion of education at all levels. Yet, there are so many problems in the methods of teaching English, among other things, which have resulted in an obvious decline in the standard of teaching English in schools.

Aslam (2003) identifies six problems in effective teaching of English in India, viz.:

- 1- Large classes: The size of our classes at the secondary level (it is true of lower levels also) has now become quite unmanageable. The number of students admitted to class XI and XII ranges from 60 to 100. It becomes very difficult to manage such a class in terms of discipline and teaching.
- 2- Classrooms: The physical condition of the classrooms poses a serious problem. It is closely related to 1 above. Accommodating a huge number of students in a small room does not in any way motivate students to learn. Often they are huddled up together with very little space to sit. At the lower level, the condition is even worse. There are single room schools with a single teacher but five classes (I to V primary). Learning in such situations is highly de-motivating for students; it is equally frustrating for the teacher.
- 3- Lack of facilities: Most of our schools (secondary as well as lower) are terribly ill-equipped in terms of necessary teaching aids-audio and video.
- 4- Trained teachers: There are no or very little opportunities for teachers' in-service training except for occasional seminars and workshops which virtually serve no purpose in their professional development.
- 5- Outdated methods of teaching: This is related to point 4. A large number of teachers are still using traditional methods of teaching. Especially, Grammar-Translation Method is present in one form or the other in schools. Grammar teaching takes much of school timing and the four language skills receive little attention. Oral work is ignored and the whole session is devoted to preparing students for the annual examination. By and large, teachers refuse to change; they resent it, too.
- 6- Textbooks: Until recently majority of schools used unsuitable textbooks. Most of these textbooks contained prose texts, stories and poems written by native speakers of English. They were linguistically difficult and culturally alien. (pp 20-22).]

Based on the researcher's observation of the Indian ELT situation and his informal discussion with some Indian ELT professionals, below are four other problems in the said ELT scenario.

Teachers' Unawareness of ELT Aims

The researcher has had an informal discussion with 5 teachers of English working in a government school in Chandigarh. They all stated that their aim of teaching English is to enable their pupils to get through the final-year examination.

This brings us back to the point of methodology. From the teachers' responses, it is clear that the teachers teach English as a content subject and not as a skill subject. Sharma (2005) rightly observed "The teachers of English should better realise the need and significance of English in the new perspective and should devise means to teach it most effectively within a short time". Teachers should teach English as communicatively as possible and try to improve their students' language skills. They should also keep their students' needs in mind while teaching and not act as examination coaches only.

Defective Examination System

This point is related to the preceding one. In many cases, it is observed that a student can pass the examination without having practical command over the language. Students also ascertain that they need not even read the prescribed textbooks to be able to qualify/ clear the exams. With a faulty examination system, the examination questions are easily predictable and students are in a relaxed state of mind during the examination. Such a "student-friendly" examination system must change if the standard of teaching English in India is to improve. An examination should contain questions that test the students' proficiency in using English and their comprehension of the prescribed topics; less attention should be given to examining the students' content knowledge of the prescribed texts.

School Leavers' Low Proficiency in English.

School leavers in many EFL and ESL countries, and India is no exception, are unable to speak English fluently. The standard of Spoken English of school leavers is deplorably low; this is because no oral tests are conducted in schools, and students are not encouraged to practise English or make oral presentations, nor do teachers involve them in group discussion activities in class.

Teachers' Neglect of Correction Work

When asked about the reason why they pay little attention to the correction of students' work, teachers put the blame on the huge number of students in a class. In fact, this is a very big problem. When students' mistakes remain unchecked/ uncorrected, students continue to be

unaware of these language-related mistakes even after moving to the next standard. Teachers should devote some time for the correction of their students' work. Whenever possible, teachers can give model answers to students to check each others' work. This, in turn, can motivate the students and help them learn from their mistakes. It can also enhance the spirit of peer correction and competition in them.

Conclusion

There are certain measures that ought to be considered for improving the effectiveness of ELT in both Yemen and India. These are:

- I. sensitizing teachers to the harsh realities of the educational environment through appropriate Pre-service training (PRESET) and In-service training (INSET) programmes for aspiring and practicing teachers respectively,
- II. quality control at the recruitment level of English teachers through rigorous proficiency testing,
- III. augmenting physical infrastructure and pedagogic resources in the form of books, cassettes , computers, etc.
- IV. encouraging non-formal means of teacher development through voluntary teacher organisations and , most importantly providing for continuing education and qualification improvement programmes for practicing teachers,
- V. the stage at which English is first introduced in schools should be lowered. English can thus be introduced in class 3 i.e. when the student is at the age of 7 or 8.
- VI. schools should adopt the streaming system .That is , above-average students should be put in one group and average as well as below-average students in another. This can solve the problem of large and mixed-ability classes.
- VII. teachers should be familiarized with action research so that they can , on their own, solve the problems that might crop up in the class in the course of their teaching,
- VIII. teachers must correct the homework and class-work of the students on a regular basis,
- IX. for classroom teaching to improve, good and suitable methods should be devised. Teachers should be trained to adopt learner-centredness through the use of pair work and group work activities,

- X. examination system should be improved and not only be theory-based. Examinations should not enhance rote-learning.
- XI. to improve the students' language skills, teachers and whenever possible parents should be encouraged to speak to their students /children in English,
- XII. existing textbooks should be revised from time to time in such a way that they remain linguistically tackleable and culturally suitable to the learners.

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Relationship between Multiple Intelligence Categories and Learning Styles of Students in Pakistan

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Abstract

The study designed to build on foundations laid down by other investigators particularly Gardner (1993), Linda & Campbell (1999), Chen, Krechevsky & Viens (1998). This was co relational in nature, and used survey format. The study conducted in six girls' secondary schools of Islamabad. 354 students of grade X participated in the study. The modified version of multiple intelligence assessment scale and modified Version of VAK learning styles inventory used as instrument. The finding revealed that different learners have different type of intelligence learning styles. The study did not found any relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligence.

The results showed that mostly students have auditory and kinesthetic learning style and it has relationship with multiple intelligence categories. The study recommended that curriculum may be designed keeping in view students' intelligence categories and learning styles.

Key words: Multiple intelligence; learning styles; VAK learning inventory; multiple intelligence inventory

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Khush Bakht Hina, Muhammad Ajmal, Ph.D., Fazalur Rahman and Nabi Bux Jumani, Ph.D.
Relationship between Multiple Intelligence Categories and Learning Styles of Students in Pakistan

INTRODUCTION

The theory of multiple intelligences was developed in 1983 by Dr. Howard Gardner, professor of education at Harvard University. It suggests that the traditional notion of intelligence, based on I.Q. testing, is far too limited. Instead, Dr. Gardner proposed eight different intelligences to account for a broader range of human potential in children and adults (Armstrong, 2009).

In Pakistani context, schools and culture focus most of their attention on linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligence. However, the theory of multiple intelligence says that we should also place equal attention on individuals who show contributions in the other intelligences: the artists, architects, musicians, naturalists, designers, dancers, therapists, entrepreneurs, and others who enrich the world in which we live.

Unfortunately, many children who have these contributions don't receive much support for them in school. Many of these kids, in fact, end up being labeled underachievers, when their unique ways of thinking and learning aren't addressed by a heavily linguistic or logical-mathematical classroom.

The theory of multiple intelligences proposes a major transformation in the way our schools are run. It suggests that teachers be trained to present their lessons in a wide variety of ways using music, cooperative learning, art activities, role play, multimedia, field trips, inner reflection, and much more.

Theoretical Framework of Multiple Intelligences

Multiple Intelligence are tools for learning and problem solving Creating opportunities for all students, by enriching the classroom through multiple techniques and assessment forms, develops students and brings out their strengths. Gardner (1993, 1998) uses eight different criteria to judge whether candidate ability can be counted as intelligence. The criteria consist of each of the following:

- a. Potential isolation by brain damage.
- b. Existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals.
- c. An identifiable core set of operations—basic kind of information-processing operations or mechanisms that deal with one specific kind of input
- d. A distinctive developmental history, along with a definite set of “end-state” performances.
- e. An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility.
- f. Support from experimental and psychological tasks.
- g. Support form psychometric findings.
- h. Susceptibility to encoding from a symbol system.

Multiple Intelligence Domains

There are three basic domains of intelligence:

- (a) The Interactive Domain. The interactive domain consists of the linguistic, interpersonal, and kinesthetic intelligences. These are the intelligences that learners typically employ to express them and explore environment.
- (b) The Introspective Domain. The introspective domain consists of the existential, intrapersonal and visual intelligences. These are the intelligences that have a distinctly effective component to them.

Guild and Gardner (1998) described multiple intelligence as under:

1. Linguistic intelligence, in which language and words come easily to a person. The person has sophisticated accessibility to language.
2. Logical-mathematical intelligence, in which a person can easily perceive quantitative relationships, particularly related to computations and scientific areas.
3. Spatial intelligence, in which a person has awareness of their own and others' position in space.
4. Bodily kinesthetic intelligence, in which a person has graceful body movements and awareness of positions in space.
5. Musical intelligence, in which a person is particularly sensitive to sound and has an ability to create and communicate through rhythmic patterns.
6. Interpersonal intelligence, in which a person understands and enjoys people, and relates to others easily.
7. Intrapersonal intelligence, in which a person is self-reflective and perceptive about personal abilities.
8. Naturalistic intelligence, in which a person interested in and knowledgeable about the natural world.
9. Existentialist intelligence can be defined as the ability to be sensitive to, or have the capacity for, conceptualizing or tackling deeper or larger questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why are we born, why do we die, what is consciousness, or how did we get here.

However, Gardner has identified eight intelligences. In Gardner's theory the word intelligence is used two senses.

- a. Intelligence can denote a species-specific characteristic; homo-sapiens is that species which can exercise these eight intelligences.
- b. Intelligence can also denote an individual difference. While all humans possess those eight intelligences, each person has his/her own particular blend or amalgam of the intelligences.

The details of eight categories of intelligence are as follows:

i. Linguistic Intelligence

Linguistic Intelligence is the intelligence that is usually tested that most by educators. The writer's ability to effectively communicate to the reader, in this instance, is an example of Linguistic intelligence. Learners who have a high level of linguistics intelligence have the ability to communicate effectively. Thus, oral presentations, writing assignments, foreign languages, and vocabulary learning are some examples of how educators and learners can improve their linguistic intelligence.

Checkely (1997) states that linguistic Intelligence is the capacity to use language, your native language, and perhaps other languages, to express to express what's on your mind and to understand other people (p. 12).

Gardner, 1995 states that linguistic intelligence allows individuals to communicate and make sense of the world through language. Poets exemplify this intelligence in its mature form. Students who enjoy playing with rhymes, who pun, who always have a story to tell, who quickly acquires other languages, including sign language, all exhibit linguistic intelligence.

Lazaer, (2002) agree with the Gardner and states that linguistic Intelligence also known as ("word smart") The "word smart" people learn best through language including speaking, writing, reading, and listening. They use language to express what is on their minds and to understand other people. They are able to explain, convince, and express themselves verbally or in writing. They enjoy writing and creating with words.

Gardner (1999) presents the core features of Linguistic intelligence include the ability to use words effectively for reading, writing and speaking. Linguistic skill is important for providing explanations, descriptions and expressiveness. Gardner describes the poet as the epitome of Linguistic ability. Other career fields requiring skill in this area include teaching, journalism, and psychology. Convergent aspects of Linguistic intelligence assess by standard intelligence tests include vocabulary and reading comprehension. Activities requiring divergent thinking include story telling, persuasive speech, and creative writing.

ii. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

Logical-mathematical intelligence enables individuals to use and appreciate abstract relations. Scientists, mathematicians, and philosophers all rely on this intelligence. So do the students who "Live" baseball statistics or who carefully analyze the components of problems—either personal or school-related—before systematically testing solutions.

Checkely (1999) states that people with a highly developed logical-mathematical intelligence understand the underlying principals of some kind of a casual system, the way a scientist or a logician does; or can manipulate numbers, quantities, and operations, the way a mathematician does (p.12).

A student with a high logical-mathematical intelligence can understand the method that how to solve any formula, not only how to apply any method, side by side learner also know how it works. The learner who has a high logical-mathematical intelligence most likely be a person who can see the next logical step in instruction.

Lazaer (2002) expanded Grader views about logical-mathematical intelligence are also know as (“number/reasoning smart”) The “number smart” people learn best through numbers, reasoning, and problem solving. They are able to create and manipulate visuals and mental pictures form various perspectives. They like to weigh, measure, calculate, and organize data. They are good at making an analogy or debating an issue.

iii. Musical Intelligence

Gardner (1999) describe that musical intelligence allows people to create, communicate, and understand meanings made out of sound. While composers and instrumentalists clearly exhibit this intelligence, so do the students who seem particularly attracted by the birds singing outside the classroom window or who constantly tap out intricate rhythms on the desk with their pencils.

Checkely (1999) states that musical intelligence is the capacity to think in music, to be able to hear patterns, recognize them, remember them, and perhaps manipulate them” (p.12). While Campbell (1992) suggests that educators who want to enhance musical intelligence can sing a rap or a song that explains the topic (p.18). Lazaer (2002) describes that musical intelligence as “music smart” people think in music, hearing patterns, recognizing, remembering, and manipulating them. They learn best through sounds including listening and making sounds such as songs, rhythms, patterns, and other types of auditory expression. They are able to use inductive and deductive reasoning and identify relationships in data.

iv. Spatial Intelligence

Checkley (1999) states that spatial Intelligence refers to the ability to represent the spatial world internally in your mind – the way a sailor or airplane pilot navigates the large spatial world (p.12).

On the other hand, Gardner (1999) describes the Spatial intelligence includes the ability to perceive the visual world accurately and to perform transformations and modifications upon one’s own initial perceptions via mental imagery.

Functional aspects of spatial intelligence include artistic design, map reading, and working with objects. Visual artists and interior designers exemplify creative spatial thinking, and a successful architect will need both the creative abilities as well as technical accomplishment. An automobile mechanic or engineer, on the other hand, does not need creative and artistic abilities to find the solution to a malfunctioning engine.

Lazaer (2002) observed that because of spatial intelligence the “picture smart” people have the ability to represent the spatial world in their minds. So, they learn best visually and tend to organize their thinking spatially. They like to think and create pictures. They are also drawn to information that is presented in a visual form.

In education spatial intelligence has great importance because it makes possible for people to perceive visual or spatial information, to transform this information, and to recreate visual images from memory. Architects, sculptors, and engineer’s are needed well-developed spatial capacities for the work. The students who turn first to the graphs, charts, and pictures in their textbooks, who like to “web” their ideas before writing a paper, and who fill the blank space around their notes with intricate patterns are also using their spatial intelligence.

v. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence

Gardner (1999) describes that bodily-kinesthetic intelligence allows individuals to use all or part of the body to create products or solve problems. Athletes, surgeons, dancers, choreographers, and crafts people all use bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. The capacity is also evident in students who relish gym class and school dances, who prefer to carry out class projects by making models rather than writing reports, and who toss crumbled paper with frequency and accuracy into wastebaskets across the room. Checkley (1999) states that bodily Kinesthetic intelligence is the capacity to use your whole body or parts of your body hand, fingers, arms to solve a problem, make something, or put on some kind of production (p.12).

Lazaer (2000) highlights the kinesthetic intelligence ability to use one’s body in differentiated ways for both expressible (e.g., dance, acting) and goal-directed activities (e.g., athletics, working with one’s hands). Well-developed kinesthetic ability for innovative movement is required for success in professions such as choreography, acting, and directing movies or plays. Precision, control, and agility are the hallmarks of athletes such as karate masters, professional soccer players, and gymnasts.

vi. Interpersonal Intelligence

Gardner (1999) Interpersonal intelligence enables individuals to recognize and make distinctions about others’ feelings and intentions. Teachers, parents, politicians, psychologists and sales people rely on interpersonal intelligence. Students exhibit this intelligence when they thrive on small-group work, when they notice and react to the moods of their friends and classmates, and

when they tactfully convince the teacher of their need for extra time to complete the homework assignment.

Checkley (1999) stated that interpersonal intelligence understands other people. It's an ability we all need, but is at a premium if you are a teacher, clinician, salesperson, or politician. Anyone who deals with other people has to be skilled in the interpersonal sphere (p.12).

Students who have a high intrapersonal intelligence have the ability to reflect on past experiences, in order to manipulate future experiences. A learner who has a high intrapersonal intelligence would be a good at writing fiction stories. People who are intrapersonal tend to be very imaginative.

Lazaer (2002) observed that in interpersonal intelligence the “social smart” people learn best through interaction with other people through discussions, cooperative work, or social activities. They are able to create synergy in a room by being aware of the feelings and motives of others. They can be excellent leaders because they enjoy being a part of group.

vii. Intrapersonal Intelligence

Gardner (1999) says that intrapersonal intelligence helps individuals to distinguish among their own fallings, to build accurate mental models of themselves, and to draw on these moles to make decisions about their lives. Although it is difficult to assess who has this capacity and to what degree, evidence can be sought in students' uses of their other intelligences—how well they seem to be capitalizing on their strengths, how cognizant they are of their weaknesses, and how thoughtful they are about the decisions and choices they make.

Checkley (1999) states that intrapersonal intelligence refers to having an understanding of yourself, of knowing who you are, what you can do, what you want to do, how your react to things, which things to avoid, and which things to gravitate toward (p.12)

Lazaer (2002) observes that the “self smart” people have a good understanding of themselves. Because they know who they are, what they can do, and what they want to do, they tend not to screw up. They learn best through meta-cognitive practices such as getting in touch with their feelings and self-motivation. They are able to concentrate and be mindful. They prefer solitary activities.

It may be concluded that intrapersonal intelligence includes accurate self-appraisal, goal setting, self-monitoring/correction, and emotional self-management.

viii. Naturalist Intelligence

Gardner (1999) Found that naturalist intelligence includes the “nature” people have sensitivity to other features of the natural world. So, they learn best through the interactions with the

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environment including outdoor activities, field trips, and involvement with plants and animals. They see the subtle meanings and patterns in nature and the world around them.

Naturalist intelligence allows people to distinguish among, classify, and use features of the environment. Farmers, gardeners, botanists, geologists, florists, and archaeologists all exhibit this intelligence, as do students who can name and describe the features of every make of car around them.

Checkley (1999) states that naturalist intelligence designates the human ability to discriminate among living things (plants, animals) as well as sensitivity to other features of the natural world.

Recently Gardner (2003) added the two new intelligence categories, spiritual intelligence and Existential intelligence. He was of the view that human beings make efforts to understand the ultimate questions and meaning of life: who am I? Where do I come from? Do I exist? Etc.

Spirituality is the sphere of life in which to attain an ultimate truth, rather than intelligence to solve or produce something.

The next one is Existentialist. These “wondering” people question about “ultimate issues,” such as the significance of human life, the meaning of death, love of other people, the fate of human beings, etc (Gardner, 1999; p.60). This intelligence can be a cognitive strand of the spiritual. They learn best through seeing the “big picture” of human existence by asking philosophical questions about the world.

Multiple Intelligences and Role of Teacher

Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligence has several implications for teachers in terms of classroom instruction. The theory states that all seven intelligences are needed for productively function in society. Teachers, therefore, should think of all intelligences as equally important. This is in great contrast to traditional education system that typically places a strong emphasis on the development and the use of verbal and mathematical intelligences.

Armstrong (2001) while exploring another implication for teachers concluded that teachers should structure the presentation of material in a style, which engages most or all of the intelligence. Visual presentation and students involvement not only excites students about learning, but it also allows a teacher to reinforce the same material in a variety of ways. By activating a wide assortment of intelligences, teaching in this manner can facilitate a deeper understanding of the subject material.

Gardner (1999) emphasizes on diversity of students’ intelligence; thus, it promotes diverse approaches to learning. Every child possesses inborn creativity, but many children lose interests in learning due to rigid educational curriculum that is only focused on verbal/Linguistic and

logical/mathematical intelligence. In order to develop each child's uniqueness, educators should be able to look at the inner-world of children. Teachers need to be aware of these differences.

Lazaer (2002) & Armstrong (2003) concluded that understanding the theory of multiple intelligence will help teachers to understand the differences of each student and develop each one's talents. Therefore Teachers' commitment would make difference in students' learning, and multiple intelligence would provide opportunity to know their learning style. Bouton (1997) recommended that educators should learn to apply MI theory to today's learners and it will enhance team building; assessment, productivity, and knowledge about learners of all ages.

Multiple Intelligence and Learning Styles

Hoerr, T. (2004) describes the learning style as "a student in terms of those educational conditions under which he is most likely to learn" (p.27). Dunn (2001) concluded that Multiple Intelligence addresses about what is taught on the other hand, Learning Style is about how a concept is taught. Research literature described the importance of multiple intelligence and learning style. It further indicated that individuals who incorporate multiple intelligences in their teaching and learning practice are more effective in knowledge transfer. Gardner (1999) identified seven different intelligences or seven different ways that a person can learn as opposed to the three learning styles discussed above. Each person is born with certain preferences toward particular styles, but culture, experience, and development influence these preferences.

VAK (Visual-Auditory-Kinesthetic) Learning Style Categories

Keller, (2003) Visual-Auditory-Kinesthetic learning styles model or 'inventory', usually abbreviated to VAK. Alternatively the model is referred to Visual-Auditory-Tactile/Kinesthetic.

VAK learning styles scale first time developed by psychologists and teaching specialists such as Fernald, Keller, Orton, Gillingham, Stillman and Montessori, beginning in the 1920's.

The VAK concept was originally concerned with teaching of early grades children. The early VAK specialists recognized that people learn in different ways: as a very simple example, a child who could not easily learn words and letters by reading (visually) might for instance learn more easily by tracing letter shapes with their finger kinesthetic.

The VAK learning styles model provides a very easy and quick reference inventory to assess people's preferred learning styles, and then most importantly, to design learning methods and experiences that match people's preferences.

i. Visual Learning Style

Visual learning style involves the use of seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, flip-chart, etc. Visual learners process information

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most effectively when the information is seen. Charts, graphs, flow charts, all the symbolic arrows, circles, hierarchies and other devices that instructors can use to represent what could have been presented in worlds.

Perkins (2005) describes that these learners think in pictures and have vivid imaginations. According to him, most people are classified as visual learners. If students are visual learner then they focus on the use of visual aids to increase information processing.

Silver (2000) suggested that visual learners have two sub channels – linguistic and spatial. Learners, who are visual-linguistic, like to learn through written language such as reading and writing tasks. They remember what has been written down, even if they do not read it more than once. They like to write down directions and pay better attention to lectures if they watch them.

Learners who are visual spatial usually have difficulty with written language and do better with charts, demonstrations, videos, and other visual materials. They easily visualize faces and places by using their imagination and seldom get lost in new surroundings. To integrate this style into the learning environment teacher can use following strategies:

- (a) Use graphs, charts, illustrations, etc.
- (b) Include outlines, agendas, handouts, etc. for reading and taking notes on.
- (c) Emphasize key points to cue when to take notes.

ii. Auditory Learning Style

Auditory learning style involves the transfer of information through listening: to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises. Aural learners process information most effectively when spoken or heard. These learners respond well to lectures and discussions and are excellent listeners. They also like to talk and enjoy music and dramas. When trying to recall information aural learners can often “hear” the way someone told them the information. If students are an aural learners, their focuses on discusses the new improvements points to the benefits of obtaining information in an oral language format. Homan (2005) describes that auditory learners usually talk to themselves a lot. They also may move their lips and read out loud. They may have difficulty with reading and writing tasks. They often do better talking to a colleague or a tape recorder and hearing what was said.

- (a) Begin new material with a brief explanation of what is coming. Conclude with a summary of what has been covered. This is the old adage of “tell them what they are going to learn, teach them, and tell them what they have learned.”
- (b) Use the Socratic method of lecturing by questioning learners to draw as much information from them as possible and then fill in the gaps with your own expertise.
- (c) Include auditory activities, such as brainstorming, buzz groups, etc.

iii. Kinesthetic Learning Style

The word ‘kinesthetic’ describes the sense of using muscular movement – physical sense in other words. Kinesthesia and kinesthesia derived from the Greek word kineo meaning move, and aesthesis meaning sensation. Kinesthetic therefore describes a learning style, which involves the stimulation of nerves in the body’s muscles, joints and tendons. This relates to the colloquial expression “touchy-feely”. Kinesthetic/Tactile learners process information actively through physical means. Kinesthetic learning refers to whole body movement while tactile learning refers only to sense of touch.

Homan (2005) found that these learners use gesture when speaking, are poor listeners, and lose interest in long speeches. Most students that do not perform well in school are kinesthetic/tactile learners. The crux of this learning style is that the learner is connected to situations through experience, example, practice, or simulation. If student is a kinesthetic/tactile learner, learner utilizes “hands on” demonstrations and field experiences.

Table 1 VAK Learning Style

Seeing – Visual	Hearing - Auditory	Doing - Kinesthetic
Mind sometimes strays during verbal activities	Talks to self aloud	In motion most of the time/fidgety
Observes, rather than talks or acts; may be quiet by nature	Outgoing by nature	Outgoing by nature; expresses emotions by physical means.
Organized in approach to tasks	Whispers to self while reading, many hum or sing while working	Taps pencil or foot/fiddles with objects while studying
Likes to read	Likes to be read to	Reading is not a priority
Usually a good speller	May be particular about the exact choice of words	May find spelling difficult
Memorizes by creating mental images	Memories by steps in a sequence	Likes to solve problems by physically working through them
Thinks in pictures	Very aware of rhythm	Very good body control, good timing and reflexes
Easily put off by visual distractions	Easily distracted by noises	Is affected by touch or lack of it
Finds verbal instructions difficult	May have difficulty with written instructions	Likes physical rewards
Remembers faces	Remembers names	Remembers what they have done rather than seen/heard
Strong on first impressions	May assess people by the sound of their voice	May assess people and situations by what ‘feels right’
Likes drawing and	Enjoys music and the	Enjoys handling objects

doodling, may have good handwriting	sounds of words	
Enjoys using colour	Enjoys talking and listening	Enjoys doing activities
Notices details	Can remember – and often mimic – speech by picking up rhythm of the sentence	Likes to use gestures and touch people while talking to them
Often a quick thinker	May need time to think (ie discuss it with myself)	May need time to think (ie process the actions involved)
May focus on the ‘big picture’ and use advanced planning	May assess a situation on ‘how it sounds’ to them	Will try new things – likes to get involved

Homan, Perkins, Pirkle, and Traylor (2005) Kinesthetic learners do best while touching and moving. It also has two sub channels – kinesthetic (movement) and tactile (touch) they tend to lose concentration if there is little or no external stimulation or movement. When listening to lectures they may want to take notes. When reading, they like to scan the material first, and then focus in on the details (get the big picture first). They typically use color highlighters and take notes by drawing pictures, diagrams, or doodling. To integrate this style into the learning environment:

- (a) Use activities that get the learners up and moving.
- (b) Use colored markers to emphasize key points on flipcharts or white boards.
- (c) Play music, when appropriate, during activities.

Learning Styles and Different Categories of Learners

Lazaer (1999) recommends that as children do not learn in the same way, they cannot be assessed in a uniform fashion. Therefore, it is important that a teacher create an “intelligence profiles” for each student. Knowing how each student learns will allow the teacher to properly assess the child’s progress this individualized evaluation practice will allow a teacher to make ore informed decisions on what to teach and how to present information.

Felder-Silverman (1999) gives types of learner, he states that learning styles and strategies can help to explore the multiple intelligence and the learning styles of the learners. Therefore there are different types of learners.

- (a) Active And Reflective Learners
- (b) Sensing And Intuitive Learners
- (c) Visual And Verbal Learners
- (d) Sequential And Global Learners

Objectives of the Study

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The main objective of the present study was to investigate the relationship between multiple intelligence categories and learning styles of secondary school students.

Methodology and Procedure

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between multiple intelligence categories and learning styles of secondary school students. This study was co relational in nature, and used survey format. For collection of information survey method was used to explore the interrelationship between two or more variables.

Participants

For this study simple random sampling technique was used. The study was conducted in 6 girls' secondary schools of Islamabad. 354 students of grade X participated in the study.

Instruments for Study

Instruments used to collect data for this study were:

1. Modified version of multiple intelligence assessment scale (Adam, 2004)
2. Modified Version VAK learning styles scale (Pride Company 2002).

1. Multiple Intelligence Assessment Scale (MIAS)

Multiple intelligence scale was measured by the MI of the secondary schools learners developed by Adam (2004) This scale contained 100 items, measuring nine intelligence levels of secondary schools students, these Linguistic intelligence, Logical-mathematical intelligence, Musical intelligence, Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, Spatial intelligence, Interpersonal intelligence, Intrapersonal intelligence, Naturalist intelligence, Spiritual intelligence.

Respondents answered items in this scale according to five-point scale with response choices ranging from (very much like, considerably like somewhat like, not much like, nothing like). The responses were scored as 1,2,3,4,5, for (very much like, considerably like somewhat like, not much like, nothing like) consecutively.

Sub-Scale of MIAS

1. Linguistic Intelligence
2. Logical-mathematical Intelligence
3. Musical Intelligence
4. Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence
5. Spatial Intelligence

6. Interpersonal Intelligence
7. Intrapersonal Intelligence
8. Naturalist Intelligence
9. Existentialist Intelligence

2. VAK Learning Styles Scale (VAK)

VAK learning style scale was developed by Ld. Pride Company (2004). VAK learning styles scale consists of 30 items. Each question has four possible options that are:

(Very little like me, Little like me, Like me, A little like me).

The 30 items scale represented the following categories:

- a. Visual Learning style
Visual learning style involves the use of seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, flip-chart, etc.
- b. Aural/Auditory Learning Style
Auditory learning style involves the transfer of information through listening: to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises.
- c. Kinesthetic Learning
Kinesthetic learning involves physical experience, touching, feeling, holding, doing, and practical hands-on experiences.

Data Analysis

Table 2 Alpha reliability of MIAS Inventory (N=354)

Subscales of MI	No of Items	Reliability Coefficient
Linguistic Intelligence	13	.84
Logical-mathematical intelligence	13	.90
Musical Intelligence,	10	.80
Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence,	10	.75
Spatial Intelligence,	11	.72
Interpersonal Intelligence,	11	.82
Intrapersonal Intelligence	11	.92
Naturalist Intelligence,	10	.79
Existentialist Intelligence	11	.80

The reliability analysis of the multiple intelligence scales of categories and the total scale shows that alpha coefficient of the Multiple Intelligence categories ranges between 0.72 to 0.92.

Table 3 Distribution of sample according to type of Multiple Intelligence

Multiple Intelligence Categories	No of Students
Linguistic Intelligence	55
Logical-mathematical Intelligence	70
Musical Intelligence	28
Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence	20
Spatial Intelligence	32
Interpersonal Intelligence	43
Intrapersonal Intelligence	24
Naturalist Intelligence	22
Existentialist Intelligence	52
Total: 354	346

This table presents the summary of students Multiple Intelligence categories results. Results showing how many students' fall indifferent type of Multiple Intelligence Categories. However 8 students did not fall in any kind of intelligence category that indicated that these students did not fulfill the criteria given by Adam (2002). The table 3 further showed that greater number of students fall in the category of logical mathematical. Further less number for students fall in bodily kinesthetic intelligence category.

Table 4 Alpha reliability of VAK subscales (N=354)

Subscales of VAK	No of Items	Reliability Coefficient
Visual Learning Style	10	.54
Aural Learning Style	10	.66
Kinesthetic Learning Style	10	.57

The reliability analysis of the VAK learning styles categories ranges between 0.54 to 0.66, which shows that its internal consistency was preferably higher.

Table 5 Learning style of the students (N=354)

Learning Style Categories	No of Students
Visual Learning Style	30
Auditory Learning Style	189
Kinesthetic Learning Style	135

Table 5 revealed that majority of the students fall in auditory learning style category.

Conclusions/Discussion

This study was designed to build on the foundations laid down by other investigators particularly Gardner (1993), Linda & Campbell (1999), Chen, Krechevsky & Viens (1998). The finding of the study shows that different learners have different type of intelligence like multiple intelligence. These findings supports the Gardner's theory of the multiple intelligences that is a departure from the view that intelligence is a single, measurable unit (Gardner, 1999). Gardner's theory focuses on eight intelligences, while highlighting the need for problem solving (Campbell, & Dickinson, 1999).

As for as relationship between multiple intelligence and learning styles was concerned, the findings of the study show that visual leaning style does not found any relationship with Multiple Intelligence. This finding confirms the finding of Adam (2000) that if teachers do not use the aids in the classrooms the students preferred learning style will change and it is not linked with the existing intelligence of the students.

The findings from this study indicate that students have different learning styles. This study support that new evidence emerges regularly to support premise that not all children learn in same way (Davis, 1991). It is apparent that an awareness of different learning styles is a significant tool to understand differences and assist with student development (Strong, Silver, & Perini, 2001). In this study results show that students who have aural learning style have a significant relationship with multiple intelligence categories.

In Pakistani context, teachers gave lot of emphasis on speaking and aural learning and this may be the reason why mostly students have aural learning style. This confirmed Gardner (1983) claim that culture plays an important role in the development of intelligence and learning styles. Another finding of the study shows that mostly students have auditory and kinesthetic learning style and it has relationship with multiple intelligence categories. In our culture students having tactile learning style are considered hyper active in the class and mostly teachers discourage them. This relationship with intelligence challenges the popular belief that mental and physical actives are not interrelated (Busato, 1996).

The findings of this study further revealed that there is a significant relationship between tactile learning styles and multiple intelligence categories. In this study the results show highly

significant relationship with logical mathematical intelligence and naturalist intelligence with oral learning style. It shows that students have great interest in math's and naturalist intelligence.

Findings of the study further showed that fewer students have naturalistic Intelligence. This is the type of intelligence for students who learn best through nature. For these students, most learning takes place in outdoor settings. Gardner, 1999 indicated that these students enjoy doing nature projects, such as bird watching, butterfly or insect collecting, tree study, or raising animals. Armstrong (2000) also supported that argued that it is very beneficial for these students to have greater access to developing their naturalistic intelligence inside the school building. So the school's task is to bring the natural world into the classroom and other areas. But our curriculum developers ignore this fact.

However, the study did not show any significant relation between demographic variables, social status and multiple intelligence of students. Same results indicated by Vermunt & White, (1982, 1996).

Recommendations

- Curriculum may be designed keeping in view students' intelligence categories (linguistic, logical/mathematical, bodily/kinesthetic, spatial, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal) and learning styles.
- The concept of multiple intelligence and learning style may be included in pre-service and in-service teacher training programs.
- In classrooms, environments conducive to active pursuit of learning may be created so the students can adopt their own learning style.
- Awareness program for parents may be arranged.

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Internet as an Educational Resource in Vocabulary Instruction

A. Joycilin Shermila, Ph.D.

Importance of the Internet in Vocabulary Learning and Using a Second Language

Vocabulary knowledge is an important element in second language learning. By learning new words students can increase their language skills. Mastering a vocabulary is more than memorizing the denotative meaning of a word.

Internet resources in the classroom environment can promote vocabulary learning in the natural process of communicative activity. A wide variety of techniques can be used in the web to practice and learn both vocabulary and grammar. The web is a source of teaching vocabulary and grammar effectively and interestingly.

Learning Styles and the Internet

The various functions of the Internet appeal to different learning style. When a student is bored by books he may become excited by interactive games in the Internet. When using the Internet for vocabulary learning students become empowered since they develop self learning and confidence through increased responsibility for their own learning processes.

Variety Required

Improving vocabulary skills require constant attention. There are a number of strategies and exercises designed especially to help students increase their vocabulary. Language experts have invented word games that students can play as a warmer or as relaxation in the lessons and at home with their friends. Using the Internet for this purpose is a relatively new invention, and is becoming increasingly popular.

The real advantage of using the World Wide Web in language teaching is that it expands the possibilities for teaching and learning. It catches students' imagination and they learn new things unconsciously. The World Wide Web offers an extraordinary variety of language games.

Vocabulary Notebooks

Vocabulary notebook should contain at least ten entries for a week. This assignment will be much easier and much more beneficial if we write one or two entries every day instead of doing all of them on one day.

Each entry in the notebook should include all of the following:

1. The word, spelt correctly
2. Where it is found
3. The sentence or phrase where it is used
4. What part of speech it is (countable noun, uncountable noun, transitive verb, intransitive verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, or preposition).
5. The one correct definition from a dictionary for the word.
6. Our own original example sentence using the word.

Vocabulary notebook should not contain words which we study in class. These words should be words we learn outside. Following are the places where we can find new words –

- newspapers and magazines
- books
- signs and advertisements
- mail
- the Internet
- food packages in the supermarket--anywhere you see words written in English

<http://www.ipl.org/div/news/>

For sheer variety and timeliness, it's hard to find a better source of teaching material than the newspaper, and on-line newspapers have made access to the news easier than ever. Such access is a great advantage, but finding articles appropriate to learners' reading level is a challenge.

The website listed above provides learning and teaching environment. It has a reading room where books, magazines and newspapers of all the countries are available. ipl2 is a public service organization and a learning/teaching environment.

Online Dictionaries

Online dictionaries, such as those of Longman, Cambridge and Collins Cobuild run sites called 'Word of the Week' or 'Word of the Day', where new words or phrases are offered on

a regular basis. They provide the reader with a short explanation of the words and highlight how they are used in context.

http://www.longman.com/ldoce/word_wk/index.html

The site provides a new word from the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. It helps keeping language fresh. The site is devoted to upper-intermediate to advanced learners and teachers of English. The page is very attractive. The explanation of words is illustrated by suggestive pictures.

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/wordoftheday.asp>

The site provides words taken from *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Words are chosen according to topics. The page is easy to survey. Its structure is similar to that in written dictionaries. Phonetic symbols can be seen after clicking on the link. The meaning of the word is highlighted in context. Previous days' words can be seen after clicking on the link.

<http://www.cobuild.collins.co.uk/pages/idiom.aspx>

The site automatically displays a random entry from the *Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms*. The site is written for upper-intermediate to advanced learners and teachers of English. The page is not very attractive, but easy to survey. Beside the explanation, some sentences are given to introduce the words' usage. Moreover, their origin is also highlighted in most cases.

<http://www.esltower.com>

ESLTower.com is a free ESL, EFL & ELT site that offers top quality printable and interactive English grammar and vocabulary exercises for teachers and students. These grammar and vocabulary resources will save English teachers lesson planning time and offer students free opportunity for online self-study. There are grammar and vocabulary quizzes, crosswords, word search and several fun puzzles that make the learning and teaching of English easy and fun.

<http://esl.about.com/blvocab.htm>

This website offers online lessons in vocabulary. Words and phrases are presented in context. The target audience of the site consists of older adolescents and adults. Vocabulary areas are arranged in an easy to survey table. There is a menu in the left of each page, where other services of English as 2nd Language are accessible. In addition, users can move to related pages or return to the collection of vocabulary items by clicking on the appropriate link at the bottom of the pages.

<http://www.manythings.org>

The website contains exercises for people who study English as a second or foreign language. The exercises are intended for young adolescents and adults, although this largely depends on

the task. There are some quizzes that can be also done by younger children, which is indicated on the relevant pages.

‘Manythings’ offers a large variety of Hangman games. Words are chosen from a wide range of vocabulary. If a letter appears in the answer, it is written down in the correct position or positions. If a letter is chosen that does not appear in the answer an extra line is drawn in a simple picture of a man being hanged. It is also possible to guess the whole word at any stage, but if it is wrong the man is hanged. Players win if the word is guessed right before the picture has been completed.

<http://a4esl.org>

There are three categories, such as grammar quizzes, vocabulary quizzes and crossword puzzles, each of which contains easy, medium and difficult exercises. Most of the vocabulary quizzes are multiple-choice exercises. A great number of them are self-assessment tests, where right answers are given in a pull-down menu under each question. Originally, ‘Answer’ can be seen in the menu, and after clicking on the button the right letter is pulled down in the list. This is very practical, as students can do the exercise in any order, and it does not matter if they return to a question several times.

www.vocabulary.co.il

Vocabulary.co.il is a great vocabulary builder. Vocabulary.co.il is a fun site dedicated to helping you build reading, phonics, or English language skills. Vocabulary.co.il can also help build vocabulary skills for other high-stakes, vocabulary-rich exams such as the GRE, the SAT, and PSAT.

Crosswords

Crosswords build skills in vocabulary, reasoning, spelling, word attack and differentiating between similar terms.

Word Search

Searching for words hidden in a grid of letters requires careful attention to correct spelling, and improves eye tracking.

Match Game

This is an introductory reading level game that allows new readers to match pictures and words. Similar to games such as “Concentration”, Match Game builds both reading and visual memory skills. The words can also be clicked to be heard aloud.

HangMouse

This is a “Hang-man” style game where the object is to guess the word by choosing random letters. If the correct letters are picked, they will light up in their proper places, and the mouse will be a little closer to stealing the cheese. But look out! By making incorrect

choices, you come closer and closer to waking up the sleeping cat at watch. Hangmouse requires several educational skills such as sequential reasoning, phonetic order, and word attack.

Accessibility The games on Vocabulary.co.il are accessible from any computer with an internet connection. There are no login codes to remember, and no subscription fees to pay.

Ease of Use There are no instruction manuals for the games on the site, because they aren't needed. Each of the games is self-explanatory and easy to play.

No Lesson Planning Needed Because the games on Vocabulary.co.il are designed for individual practice, teachers don't need to prepare in advance for students to get the most out of the site.

Great for Independent Self-Study Students who use the vocabulary games on Vocabulary.co.il will feel proud of their ability to practice English skills on their own. Each of the games on the site is designed to be not only educational, but fun, so students will come back again and again to grow their word skills.

<http://www.vocabulary.com>

More vocabulary resources are given in this site. On-line puzzles and exercises to promote vocabulary development for students can be found here. After successfully completing the puzzles and exercises, students can print out a diploma from VocabularyUniversity.

<http://www.freerice.com>

FreeRice is a non-profit website run by the United Nations World Food Program. For each answer you get right, we donate 10 grains of rice to the United Nations World Food Program. This game may make you smarter. It may improve your speaking, writing and thinking.

Other Important Vocabulary Learning Websites

www.eslflow.com

www.vokabel.com

www.itools.com

<http://www.world-english.org/>

<http://www.onlineenglishvocabulary.com/vocabulary.html>

www.ehow.com

Conclusion

The Internet is occupying an important part in the learning-process. In the same way as computers have promoted and facilitated more effective and motivating learning experiences, the World Wide Web can be also used very effectively in vocabulary teaching. Preparing for an Internet-based language lesson may be rather demanding, as looking for information on the World Wide Web requires a considerable amount of time. However, it is absolutely rewarding using it in teaching languages, as students benefit from it enormously.

It may not be out of place here to mention that we in India do not really have any website that would offer vocabulary items with a focus on errors committed by Indian learners of English. A dictionary is very important, because it cites and gives us correct spelling, grammatical function and even examples of using a particular lexical item. But, we also need to focus on common errors committed by Indian students and users of English in India so that even as we choose the right word, we will also learn explicitly how to use words and phrases without errors.

UGC perhaps should initiate a project for this purpose.

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<http://www.freerice.com>

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The Effectiveness of Technology in Teaching Study Skills

J. Jayachandran, Ph.D.

Abstract

This Paper discusses on how students can learn Study Skills by integrating pedagogy and technology. Technology is an ever increasing part of English Language Teaching, thus with this integrated skills, the effectiveness of technology in learning study skills is emphasized.

Keywords: Study Skills, CALL, Note-taking, Reference skills

Pedagogy and Technology in Language Learning

Over the years, a wide variety of teaching aids have been placed at the disposal of language teachers. Charts, slides, tape-recorders, videos, overhead projectors and many other technological innovations have taken the place of traditional chalk and board, though not completely. Computers and language learning methods are now closely inter-related and the judicious integration of both can enable students to organise and process their knowledge using keyboard buttons.

Computer Assisted Language Learning

Computers are now used as effective tools in teaching grammar, vocabulary, syntax, and comprehension and even in developing interactive communication skills and in creating writing activities.

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The Effectiveness of Technology in Teaching Study Skills

The Importance of Study Skills

Every learner is an individual with different needs and abilities of learning a language. Traditional methods of teaching a language placed the teacher in the role of a transmitter of knowledge while learners were seen as passive recipients of this knowledge. With the advent of the communicative method of language teaching, the focus in the classroom shifted from the teacher to the learner. Current trends in the field of English Language Teaching focus on learner autonomy, learner involvement, learner-generated syllabi, creation of relaxed atmosphere for learning, and training to relate to need-based learning. As a result, the concept of individualized instruction is increasingly gaining importance.

Study Skills in English

Study Skills have to do with getting information from any subject from the relevant sources of knowledge. The main sources of information for a learner are: a) books, b) classroom lectures, and c) the world at large. Learners have to internalise the information provided by these sources in the most efficient way in order to retain and retrieve it when necessary. As far as school learners are concerned, when it comes to collecting information from different sources, they mostly depend on reading the textbooks and listening to teachers explaining the contexts of the textbook. To identify the source of knowledge and to understand the content, school learners mostly depend on reading the textbooks and listening to teachers explaining the contents of the textbooks. When they move from school to college their horizon of knowledge is expected to expand. They are expected to take notes while they listen to lectures in the classroom. They are also expected to seek information from various other sources and read more than one book for any given subject and assimilate the information presented in them.

This requires efficient ways of reading. Students need to organize the information and present it in their assignments, examinations and projects. But when it comes to training in learners receive study skills in colleges at tertiary level, it is rather inadequate. They are made to receive dense information in a short time. Due to their inability to assimilate the input they receive in various subjects, a sense of insecurity grips their minds.

Memorization

The sense of insecurity thus gives rise to diffidence and makes them take recourse to 'memorization' without proper comprehension. Such cramming makes the knowledge received short lived and haphazard. What is required is not learning long texts by rote, but developing an ability to take down notes in the classroom.

For, certainly the lectures given in classes contain more details than what is given as 'handouts'. Though reading, summarizing, writing paragraphs, information transfer skills are included in the syllabus in the first two semesters at the first year level in colleges, these skills remain confined to the English classes alone and are not extended to the learning of core subjects.

Study Skills through CALL

In this cyber age where most of the academic activities are computer-directed, the study skills, particularly those related to receptive skills, can be effectively developed using Computer Assisted Language Learning method. Out of the four skills of language learning, the receptive skills, mainly, listening and reading can be commonly addressed by CALL programmes. Hence, Study skills that fall in the category of receptive skills can also be developed using the CALL method.

Using CALL Materials in a Language Classroom

While using CALL materials in a language classroom, the computer envisages an important role for the teacher. Though, the teachers do not control the learning process they by integrating technology in their teaching provide an excellent backup or support because, they can monitor the linguistic performance and progress without directly interfering during the learning process.

Teachers can also modify and adopt any CALL learning materials to suite the learners needs and levels of competence. While using the CALL materials the learners have the autonomy to identify and adopt the kind of strategy that would best suit their learning style, choosing such a strategy would also facilitate the learning process. Studies show that CALL materials motivate the students for a better learning and provide them a stress free environment.

Study Skills - An Insight

The term “Study Skills” is a general term, which encompasses a wide variety of traits. It is associated with personal growth and development ranging from attitudes to behaviours. Study Skills are skills acquired for the purpose of self-development or for a good career. On the academic front, new learning styles, networking with other students, acquiring communication skills, ability to listen to lectures with concentration, reading a book and taking notes, participating in classroom activities are some of the study skills.

The focus of teaching these skills centers on the individual academic or personal growth. James Hartley says “The basis for success in academics is hard work, disciplined studying and acquiring the ability to critically assess. As time is very precious, time management can also be considered as a Study Skill.” (112)

Classification of Study Skills

Study Skills also include reading academic texts efficiently and effectively; taking notes from lectures and books; doing basic research; using library or computer-based resources; writing academic papers; taking part in discussions; presenting papers; managing study time and preparing for examinations Encouraging students to be creative and appreciating innovation in students motivate students to excel at what they are doing.

Teaching them to plan projects inculcates a sense of responsibility and helping them to manage these projects infuses a sense of accountability. By giving focus to these different types of study skills the communication skills of learners can also be developed by using CALL.

Note Taking

Note taking is another Study Skill, which has to be necessarily developed in students. There are usually three main occasions, as Michael J. Wallace says, when notes are taken while listening. There are three main occasions when notes are taken. (28)

According to Michael J. Wallace (1998) these include:

- a. to take down notes while listening.
- b. to take down notes while reading.
- c. to write notes from memory.

Similarly there are three main reasons as to why notes are taken:

- 1. To have a record of the speaker's own or writer's main ideas.
- 2. To help one's memory when revising, e.g. before an examination
- 3. To make what the speaker or writer says a part of your own knowledge.

In order to inculcate this skill of note taking, students can be trained to use CALL as a technique of language learning. When it comes to taking notes while listening, a worksheet can be given and students can be asked to listen to an audio text either from a CALL material or from an audio-text. The worksheet can have a gap-filling task wherein the students while listening to the text can fill up the gaps by using relevant information from the listened text. The worksheet can be programmed in the CALL text, so that, the evaluation will be instantaneous. (M J Kenning 52)

Reference Skills - Searching an Online Catalogue

Reference skill is another important study skill, which must be inculcated in students. Here, CALL has a major role to play because; even though manual cataloguing is still available people prefer online catalogues. An online catalogue is a list of the materials available in the library, and this list can be accessed through the computer. Most libraries have an online catalogue of holdings (e.g. books, journals, electronic publications and audio-visual materials) available with them. So, it becomes the duty of the English teacher to make the learners get familiar with the method of using online cataloguing.

Merits of a CALL Classroom

Computer Assisted Language Learning enhances the motivation level of students. Teachers can customise any CALL program to the syllabus or course design that they are using to increase the

level of proficiency in students. Computers are useful in-group activities as well as in imparting individualised instruction, which is rarely possible in a traditional classroom. There are no limitations with regard to practice-sessions or time. Students can have as many practice-sessions as they wish, repeat the tasks any number of times to acquire mastery and select the material according to their individual requirements. Thus the computer is an efficient learner-centred device. It has a powerful self-access facility and gives immense scope for self learning.

Teachers in language classes give students exercises to write. Students most often do not revise or correct the scripts immediately even though they are incorrect. The computer helps to reduce this handicap. CALL software has tutorial modes, which help the students explore the correct answers and learn from the errors they make. As computers can store, access and analyse more data than books, they create a technology enabled exciting learning environment. Technology maximizes learning opportunities for their students.

Advantages of Technology

The immediate feedback given by computers helps the students to analyse patterns in the language. The novelty that is an integral part of CALL programmes increases the motivational level of students.(M Atkins 42) CALL programmes besides helping the learner to learn a foreign language or a second language, also provides some computer literacy which is becoming essential in a technological era, and could be of great help in the future training and career prospects. CALL programmes provide the information requested in a very short time, almost instantaneously.

By using CALL method the students will not only learn more number of words but also the usage of those words as well. The advantage of using CALL method is that they can do the entire study skill activity at their own pace and time using their own learning styles and strategies. Also, integrating CALL with language teaching provides the learner with an opportunity to become part of the skills. They are learning and address their subject related issues by the study skills approach. Having introduced to CALL method of learning at the tertiary level, the learners will continue the exercise of study skills approach and achieve distinctive mastery in their subjects when they come to their higher semesters.

Limitations

The computer is a means of communication between the programmer and the user. However in this analogy, the author and the programmer do not mostly share similar concerns. While the author is bound to be a subject expert, the programmer is mostly a technician. This gap between the author and the programmer is responsible for inappropriate lesson content, poor documentation, errors in format and content, improper feedback, etc. found in some CALL materials.

Likewise, in most of the software packages, there is little chance for the teacher to add or modify the existing programmes, even if he wishes too, since most of its locked to prevent pirating. And

for the few of those who develop their own material, the time spent on preparation and programming can be quite lengthy running to hours and days.

But, these limitations or problems should be seen in the backdrop of a development stage of computerisation. The next generation of teachers and learners will be part of a computer generation. They will take for granted the skills demanded by computer technology and handle them as coolly as switching on a tape recorder or watching a television.

Conclusion

The language teacher, who has the prime objective to develop study skills in learners, seeks to make an effective use of the technology. An analysis of the methods discussed so far leads the researcher to conclude that it is ultimately the teacher who has to be more innovative, more resourceful, and more thoughtful to create awareness in students about the importance of the study skills in English and to provide opportunities to practice the language by using Technology. Computers make excellent teaching tools, especially in teaching languages in any aspect, be it vocabulary, grammar, composition, pronunciation, or other linguistic, pragmatic-communicative skills and Soft Skills. The major benefits offered by technology in enhancing language acquisition apparently outweigh its limitations.

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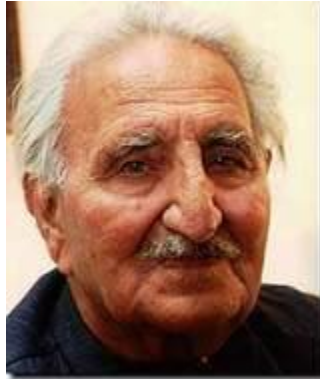
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A Study of the Comparative Elements in the Poetry of Keats and Ghani Khan

Mian Shah Bacha, Ph.D. Scholar

Bakht Sheema Bibi



Ghani Khan 1914-1996



John Keats 1795-1821

Portrait of John Keats by [William Hilton](http://www.nationalportraitgallery.org.uk/), National Portrait Gallery, London, www.wikipedia.com

Abstract

Keats and Ghani Khan hold a unique position in literature due to the contribution they have made to the poetry of Pashto and English languages respectively. This paper presents the comparative elements in the poetry of these poets. Both the romantic poets seem to share several similar thoughts in their poetry. Their love for Beauty and Nature, and their concern for the Eternal and Political turmoils are also manifested in their poetry. Escapism is the hallmark of these great poets and, on the wings of their imagination, they seek shelter in the imaginary world from the harsh realities of life, but it does not mean that they do not look at the world realistically. Despite the fact that they lived in two different centuries and that they dwelled in different countries with different cultures, they got so many things similar in their poetry.

Introduction

This comparative study on Keats and Ghani aims to find the elements of similarity between Ghani Khan and John Keats. Despite the fact that they belong to two diverse cultures, their backgrounds are different and even the times they lived in were different, yet these two giants of literature have got certain things in common. Looking at their poetic works, it is easily seen and felt that both these poets are blessed with the romantic spirit in them.

On the surface, both these poets seem different, i.e., Ghani's use of Pashto language and Keats's use of English. They have almost the same feelings but have used different languages for expression.

John Keats is essentially a poet of love, beauty, nature and life. Imagination was a chief characteristic of Keats' poetry. He roamed in the realm of imagination by his poetic wings and they helped him to be a poet of senses, warmth, expression of sensitive emotions and humanistic feelings. These features kept him away from self-centredness and selfishness.

Keats was a prophet and staunch believer in beauty. He was also aware of the harsh realities of the world. Similarly, Ghani Khan was a great romantic Pashto poet. He holds an important position in the galaxy of the Pashto poets. His poetry is an expression of the culture, traditions, civilizations, and Pushtoons' way of life. Ghani Khan's romantic bent of mind is fully expressed through the Pashto language.

Like Keats too, Ghani Khan, by his poetic imaginative wings, flies to the world of ecstasy, he talks of the romantic lands of pleasure, and happiness in palaces, music, beloved, masti (wantonness). But he is also aware of the harsh realities of life. Amidst his adoration for love, beauty, life, and poetry, he is also known to be a Crazy Philosopher.

John Keats

Born: October 31, 1795 (London, England), died February 23, 1821 (Rome, Italy).

Keats' Style and Genres

Keats was an English poet whose rich poetry was full of romantic spirit. He suffered from family tragedies. He lost both his parents when he was a young lad of eight years. Tuberculosis killed his mother and brother and he himself died of it at the age of just twenty-five, when he was receiving great recognition for his work. The brevity and intensity of his life added some on his entire literary work and impact upon this Romantic poet. He breathed for the sensation and transcended imagination in his poetry. From his early sonnets to his incomplete poem, "Hyperion" his poetry like "La Belle Dame Sans Merci" and "Isabella or the pot of the Basil," had impressed many poets, group of artists, including the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood and the symbolists, writers and critics and it had influenced giants of literature.

The mysterious and musical closing lines of his, "Ode on a Grecian Urn".

"Beauty is truth, truth beauty, that is all,

Ye know on earth and all ye need not to know"

are some of the most discussed, debated and argued over lines in the English poetry. Keats' lovely, intelligent and deeply sympathetic nature befriended him easily to other authors and cultural figures like Leigh Hunt, Hazlitt, Wordsworth and Shelley. His close friend John Hemilton Reynold remembers him as having, "the greatest power of poetry in him, of any one since Shakespeare."

Despite growing and increasing recognition of his talent, his first volumes of poems and *Endmion*, he was held in scathing derision, much of this collection was directed to his poor origins, his "Upstart" pretensions and his cockney rhymes."

Shelley did much to decrease the intensity of this crushing attack on his works by paying tribute to him (Keats) in his elegiac poem, "Adonais" noting that those canker worms caused the genius of Keats to be blighted in the bud.

Despite of the crushing attacks on his maiden works and personal losses and sufferings, he said, "I think I shall be among the English poets after my death" (501 Great Writers p. 139).

Abdul Ghani Khan

Born (1914, Ashtanagar, village Uthmanzai, NWFP (Old), Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan, died in 1996 at Lady Reading Hospital, Peshawar. Abdul Ghani Khan was the first born son in 1914 of Abdul Ghaffar Khan. He was very much dear to both of his parents.

Ghani Khan became a victim of influenza epidemic at the age of six and his parents began prayers earnestly to Allah for the recovery of Ghani Khan. The severity of this illness was so intense that made Ghani Khan's mother ask God to transfer the illness of her son to her in lieu of his recovery and it happened as his mother had wished. She died of this prayer which she had made for Ghani Khan's recovery. Ghani Khan, therefore, recalls her mother's intense love for him in his poem, "Mother, Moor"

The Pashto verses of his Poem "Mother" are translated into the English script.

"Gar chi Khauru ki di phat wajud stha moree,
Mata yaad haga shan stha stargi thuri,
Moree stha lasuna mana na di heer,
Chi takleef ki ba zamana wu chapeer."

English translation of Ghani's above verses:

"Though you have been buried and hidden in dust,
I still remember your black beautiful eyes,
I do still remember your arms,
Around me in my pains."

Ghani Khan's Poetry

Abdul Ghani Khan, a big and impressive figure in the modern romantic Pashto poetry, enjoys an enviable position among the galaxy of Pashto poets. He had his own individual style. He rebelled against the traditional forms and writing of poetry. He seemed impressed by no one but followed the inner call of his own self and soul and fit his poetry in his own individualistic style. He followed his conscience rather than his intellect. He did not write poetry for the sake of criticism but rather believed in the freedom of thought and expression and always seemed working against the set traditions. Ghani Khan's style, words, thoughts, ideas all are his own and his emotions and sensitive feelings are the result of his own personal experiences in life.

Besides, Ghani Khan also staunchly believed in the love of nature and beauty. Like Keats on the wings of his imagination, he flies to the lands of happiness, fancies, ecstasy but it does not mean that he forgets the harsh realities of life.

Ghani Khan's Poetry

Despite being a great admirer of beauty and nature, he is also titled as a *crazy* philosopher for

his eccentric and complex expressions and philosophical musings. Ghani Khan's poetry can conveniently be categorized into romantic, political and revolutionary poetry but, here, in this article, the romantic elements in his poetry are compared with the famous English romantic poet, John Keats.

Ghani Khan's poetry has the philosophical depth and profundity which are similar to the Keatsian thoughts. These have been discussed, debated and argued by the modern poets and critics. His poetry has given new vistas and aspects to the Pashto poetry and because of such depth, live expression, musicality of thought, courage, reality, spontaneity and high flight of imagination, he was considered a world class philosopher, poet and thinker.

Ghani Khan, like any matured, original philosophical genius, romantic, rebel and revolutionary figure, has the potential to be classed in the ranks of the literary giants of the world of literature.

The Comparative Elements between the Poetry of John Keats and Abdul Ghani Khan

Poets do share the elements of universality in their poetry which transcend the limits of time and space. Poets are born geniuses that live for ever and get secure place in the hearts of people because the message they give is universal, timeless and spaceless. They represent all that is inner and they express all those feelings of hearts which appeal to the soul. The universality in the poetry of both Abdul Khan and John Keats has made them immortal and for all times to be read and to be impressed by.

Despite the fact that both belong to different time periods, different back grounds, different cultures and they have even different languages altogether and they are even of different ages, Ghani lived to see the ripe days of his life while Keats did not even see the beautiful days of his youth fully and the cruel death cut him up in the very bud and prime of life. Ghani had at least the opportunity to visit the birth place of Keats but on the other hand, Keats might not have even heard of Ghani's people and homeland.

Despite having so many differences in their cultures, languages, backgrounds, ideologies and even huge difference in age, there are still many points of similarity between the poetry of Abdul Ghani Khan and John Keats, besides they were also alike in many ways.

The core and crux of their poetry is basically one, they were highly romantics and staunch believers in beauty. Quite surprisingly, both of these romantic poets were not appreciated in their lives for their poetry. Keats was severely criticized for his poem, "Endymion" by the reviewers. Even Keats admitted the faults he had in his poem but he was still not spared. His fame started to grow when Shelley treated him in glowing terms in his elegiac poem, "Adonais".

Similar was the case with Ghani Khan whose genius, talent, potential as a poet and philosopher was not recognized and he remained unappreciated during his life. There were very few persons around him who had sympathy and love for his works and were also able enough to comprehend him and understand his poetry and to see in him a philosopher of high rank. His grandson Mashal Khan, in one of the articles in the *Frontier Post* 31st March 1997, is quoted in these words:

"We do not remember, appreciate and evaluate people when they are around but extol them when they retire to the hereafter."

This was true in Ghani Khan's case, when he died, a host of his fans thronged to his residence

and still keep coming to record their feelings about this great Pashto romantic poet, but they were nowhere when he was alive. There were certain groups which thought him to be a threat to their interests but when he died, they took a sigh of relief and then canonized him to the maximum as Ghani Khan himself says about such things in the following verses:

“ Hala yaar warta neezdi shoom chi yaar shoma lare

Hala puha shoom pa khabaru chi ye na aorama khabarey”.

Translation:

“I got closer to my beloved only by leaving,

I understood only as I heard them not.”

Both poets had interests in many things but turned more seriously to poetry for which they were made and they were gifted profusely. Keats was apprenticed for medicine but he never practiced medicine. Ghani Khan also had command on Persian, Arabic, English and Pashto. He had also done chemical engineering but took up poetry only. The expertise in different things was not suitable for their nature but they found poetry to be the only medium for their soul solace and satisfaction.

Similarly the concept of beauty and nature in the poetry of Abdul Ghani Khan and John Keats. Both these great romantic poets of Pashto and English were great admirers of nature and beauty. They loved nature and they had genuine interest in it to express their inner most and deepest feelings. They found nature to be a source to recognize and see God. Their godly feelings arose because of their naturalistic description in their poetry. Keats’ Odes specially brim with the nature and its beauty descriptions but in his “Ode to Autumn” he reached the height of his poetic genius and his poetic expression finds the best description of nature and beauty and is fully well explored. As Leonard Unger finds, the words are descriptive in their phonetic qualities and rhythmical arrangement. The Ode opens with the vivid description of autumn.

“How to load and bless with fruit the vines that round the thatch-eves run,

To bend with apples, the moss’d cottage-trees,

And fill all fruit with ripeness to the core,

To swell the gourd and plump the hazel shells with a sweet kernel to set budding more,

And still more, later flowers for the bees

Until they think warm days will never cease,

For summer has over brimm’d the clammy cells

(Ode to Autumn)

The description of the nature imagery becomes stronger towards the end of the poem as the ode continues,

“Or by cyder-press, with patient look,

Thou watchest the last oozings hours by hours.

(Ode to Autumn)

The poem is suggestive of the transitory and short-lived things. Similarly thoughts about the description of nature and beauty imagery in “The Hymn to Pan” in Endymion are presented. As Keats says about the fruition in these beautiful imagery laden lines:

“Broad leaved fig trees even now for doom,

Their ripened fruitage; yellow girted bees,

Their golden honey combs, our village leas,

Their fairest blossom`d beans and poppied corn,

The chuckling linnet, its five young unborn,

To sing for thee; low creeping strawberries,

Their freckled wings; yea the fresh budding year,

All its completions (Endymion 1.252-260)

In Keatsian vision, everything, be it winter or summer, moves in consummate harmony, nothing is isolate, everything everywhere is moving in an orderly fashion. The emergence of one is dependent upon the fall of another – i.e., melancholy ensues delight.

Ghani Khan, also like Keats, has the similar feelings of joy and sadness in the cycle of Seasons in the poem of spring (Sparlay). In this poem, we feel him shouting with joy at the defeat of death by new life.

“O gora janana da tyari na rana jura shwa,

Naway sparlay da gulanu dunia jura shwa,

Zmaka laka shara abora warka spora wa,

Chata marawara masti thali da khapal korawa,

Panee ghati na we pa har boti da marg sorayoo,

Shrang da jwandun ghale mekhanai thasha thora wa,
 Ya sandi ou okkki ya thri speena khanda jora shawa,
 Ogora da tyari na rana jura shwa,
 Ya jwandun armaan o ya rangeen nasha ranguna shwa,
 Meena ru muskai shwa pa khanda warta guluna shu.”

Translation

“O my beloved, come , see darkness has changed into light,
 A new spring has created a new world of flowers,
 The earth was utterly barren and dry,
 The happiness and playfulness had departed from earth,
 Leaves were yet to sprout, it seemed as if they were overshadowed by death,
 Life was bereft of sound music,
 The spring brought back and filled with laughter,
 O my beloved, come, see the darkness has changed into light,
 Or life was desired or colored intoxication became different colours,
 The love laughed and the flowers accompanied her.”

Keats once again very vividly and graphically expresses his feelings about beauty in his famous “Ode on a Grecian Urn,” as he ends the Ode with these significant lines:

“Beauty is truth, truth beauty, that is all,
 Ye know on earth, and all Ye all need to know.

Feelings like these are also given inn Ghani Khan`s poetry when he writes the following verses:

“Husan de bus husan che hum khuday ao hum janaan de
 De faani makan ke bal mashal da laa makaan de
 Yao da gulaab makh ke che khakara kom jawaboona de,
 Nishta yao hum nishta da manteeq pa kitaboona ke.”

Translation

“Beauty is beauty which is both God and Jaanan,

In this mortal world, this is immortal thing,

A single short look at a rose answers your many questions that are not to be found in the books of logic.”

Similar things are meant by Keats when he says in the “Hyperion”:

“A thing of beauty is the a joy forever:

Its loveliness increases; it will never,

Pass into nothingness.”

Like Ghanian thoughts, similar Keatsian thoughts are also expressed in the ending lines of “Ode on a Grecian Urn.”

“Beauty is truth, truth beauty that is all

Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.”

Some critics hold Ghani’s concept of beauty as eternal and Keatsian concept of beauty is considered as transient which they have also called “a phase Beauty” but the Keatsian impermanence of beauty has got its own importance and an eternal joy as these lines of Keats express his impermanent nature of beauty beautifully.

“She dwells with Beauty--- Beauty that must die;

And Joy, whose hand is ever at his lips

Bidding adieu (St III)

But it does not at all mean that Keats does not believe in Eternal Beauty, his overall poetic works and specially his Odes are expressively explicit in the concept of Eternal beauty. Keats, very much like Ghani, has the belief in reaching to the divinity by losing himself in the beauty around him. Davies describes three circles of beauty, the first circle has the creation of material and the condition of humanity, the second circle has the happiness that follows after the first circle is over but the third circle, the circle of which Keats refers to in his long poem,

“Endymion”

“Wherein lies happiness? In that which beck’s

Our ready minds to fellowship divine,

Full alchemiz’d, and free of space. (Book I. 777-780)

The concept of the circle of happiness is not still accomplished and over, but an essence of oneness has got in:

“Like spirits”

..... But there are

Richer entanglements, enthrallments far

More self-destroying, leading by degrees,

To the chief intensity: the crown of theses

Is made of love and friendship, and sits high

Upon the forehead of humanity. (Book I. 797-802)

It is natural for a man to attain a point of liberty and happiness by virtue of his patience and fortitude and Keats very correctly points out to the freedom from self-hood and other worldly pursuits which push him to such a high point of happiness that love can attain.

As these lines in Book I (807-815) express such highest of point of happiness:

“Its influence

Thrown in our eyes, genders a novel sense,

At which we start and fret; till in the end,

Melting into its radiance, we blend,

Mingle, and so become a part of it,

Nor with aught else can our souls interknit,

So wingedly: when we combine therewith,

Life’s self is nourished by its proper pith,

And we are nurtured like a pelican brood.

These Keatsian circles are almost like the Ghanian circles of “Jahan (World), Zaan (Self) and Janan (Beloved).” Ghani Khan also gives us the same things which are shown through these circles. As he says in the Pashto poem, Zama, Zama, Zama (Going and Keep Going):

“Khu za zama, zama, zama, tal rawan yam pa makha,
Yu maqam tha rawan yama, yu maqam tha ba rase gam,
Ao pa lara chi sa ragala ka tiara vi ka raana,
Za raana ki yama khushala khu tyaruna na vireegam.”

Translation:

I am on my way to my destination and am determined to reach there,
Whatever befalls me on the way whether light or darkness but I like light
And darkness does frighten me.

The main aim of Ghani's life is movement to his Janan, his beloved who seems to be his end point and in another poem of his "Jalaal" his this feeling of meeting and finding him is hinted at.

“Da chi thai ae janana, da chi stha masti raana da,
Da zama meena armaan day da zama jaraa khandaa da,
Day zama sarur ki pat raaz stha da husan ao kamal day,
Da zama kamzure stargi stha da khaist jaa or jalaal day (Jalaal)”

Translation:

When you are there my janaan (Beloved), your playfulness and happiness is my
light,
Your love turns my tears into laughter,
All my ecstasy is due to your love and beauty,
Your glory and grandeur are reflected in my weak eyes (Jalaal, Grandeur)

Earthly Love Expression and Wine: Impact in the Poetry of Ghani Khan and John Keats

Some critics blame Ghani and Keats to be devoid of earthly love. But they are wrong as both the poets are very much aware of this love and through this love they want to reach the ultimate end and highest levels of spiritual love.

Ghani is noted saying about this kind of love in the following lines.

“Ka dunia ke wahadat nawoo,
Ma ledalee da cheena,

Da Allah da naqsh kamal day

Makh zama da dilruba.

Translation:

It is not easy to see the vision of God but presence of spring and my beloved face are the sufficient proofs of God's existence.

Both the poets have the imprint of women in their poetry but Ghani's approach seems to be more mature than Keats' as he lived to see the ripe days of life. But in his youth he was like any young person impressed by every beautiful face he saw, as the following verses indicate:

“Dalta yu khwata azghi di,

Bal khwa saange da nargas,

Da hunar elam saya ki,

Garzee gul lubana mees.

(Da Landan Mashuqai, London Beloved or beloved from London)

Translation:

The thorns and Nargis (Tulip or Narcissus) branches exist side by side,

Under the pretext of education, many roaming beauties are seen.

But, in one of his poems, like any other traditional poet, he is found singing in praise of his beloved and wanting to meet her as soon as possible.

“Stha firaaq pama qayamat ko,

Yara sa ba vi qayamat os,

Stha pa eeshaq ki rooswa khwaakh yam,

Yara sa ba vi eezat os,

Stha yu khoog nazar dibari,

Stha yu dua pasti khabari,

Ma ta mulk janat janat kar

Gura sa ba vi janat os,

Yar da roon jalbal manam,

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Mian Shah Bacha, Ph.D. Scholar and Bakht Sheema Bibi

A Study of the Comparative Elements in the Poetry of Keats and Ghani Khan

Stha da dwaoo stargu pa thama,
Khwaar Ghani logaran proot day,
Stha ba sook kavi sifat os.

Translation:

“Your isolation made my life very miserable,
And how this miserable isolation would be,
I love to be disgraced in your love,
Without you honor means nothing now,
Your one single lovely look,
Your short sweet wordings,
Can change my life into heaven,
The heaven means nothing if I have your love,
Lying abject on the ground for your single glimpse of your eyes,
If he is there, who is going to praise your and your beauty.

Ghani’s concept of love got deeper when he married Roshan. In his love for her, he wanted to find solace. This strong feeling of love is seen in these lines as he had just read a letter from her in jail.

“Ma da duaoo lapu khwaoru tala jwand au jehan jur kro,
Khapali meene dase yuram bal me tala janaan jur ka,
Da chez a da wafa daka da junon jehan la laram,
Da me laal haghalta oomnt da hama laaloonu khwwale,
Da sabot zama da meene da emaan au wafa da,
Da zama rooh chi rokhan shu da stargiyi kree balee.

(Da Faridun da Moor Khatha, a letter from Faridun`s Mother)

Translation:

I made a new life and world for you from two handfuls of dirt,
I got so much engrossed in your love, from that deep love I made a new beloved for you,

With this deep feeling of love, I entered the valley of madness,
I found you, my beloved, (my gem) the best than all the other gems,
This extreme madness in your love is the proof of my love, faith and belief,
As my soul got enlightened, then it made the two eyes shine.

(Da Faridun da Moor Khatha, a letter from Faridun's Mother)

Having such strong belief in love, still he considers the concept of women very realistically. In contrast Keats had little belief so far as women and love were concerned. In "Endymion" he is not happy much with love. We find in book III, the moon goddess is not presented very cheerfully but as a lovely maiden who

....dost pine

For one as sorrowful, their cheek is pale,

For one whose cheek is pale.

His concept of physical love realization could not fit into his spiritual idealization of love. But it does not mean that his concept of love altogether too rigid that finds no place in his poetry but rather it is so deep for Fanny that made him compose unique poetry for the world. His intense feeling of love he expresses in letter to Fanny in these words:

"I have two luxuries to brood over in my walks, your loveliness and the hour of my death, O, that I could take possession of them both in the same moment".

His fear like this might be interpreted in the lines from the sonnet,

"When I have fears that I may cease to be."

His poetry sometimes also is brim with the romantic feelings and the following lines from St. Agnes clearly reflect his romantic love.

"Beyond a mortal man impassion'd far,

At these voluptuous accents, he arose,

Ethereal, flush'd and like a throbbing star,

Seen mid the sapphire heaven's deep repose,

Into her dream he melted as the rose

Blended its odour with violet,
Solution sweet, meantime the frost wind blows,
Like love's alarum patterning the sharp sleet,
Against the window-panes, St. Agnes moon hath set. (St.36)

Both these great poets share their feelings for wine and its intoxicating effects upon them in their poetry. As Ghani says about this in the following verses:

“Chi nasha shama da khapal zana ozam,
Laka ooze tanzare da pangrena,
Mast zargay da ghama da range ochat she,
Laka poorta par karei gul da aderee na,
Da rond wajud majbora thaana makan kie pregdam,
Au da kyal pa khaperai bandi shama sour,
Da oowam asman pa seelei karan rawan,
Laton da jwand cheena da rana kor.

Translation:

“When I get intoxicated, my soul leaves my body,
Like a caged bird leaves its confinement,
My soul is then lifted like a flower raising its head in the graveyard,
I leave my physical body,
And by the help of my imagination I soar to the seventh sky to roam about,
I come here in search of life source and the place of light.

Looking at Keats's Nightingale, almost similar feelings are sought as the following Keatsian verses indicate,

“O, for a draught of vintage that hath been,
Cool'd a long age in the deep-delved earth,
Tasting of Flora and the country green,
Dance and Provencal song, and sun burnt mirth,

O for a beaker full of the warm South,
Full of the true, the blushful Hippocrene,
With beaded bubbles, winking at the brim,
And purple-stained mouth,
That I might drink, and leave the world unseen,
And with thee fade away into the forest dim.

Conclusion

The list of similarities between these two great romantic giant poets of literature of two completely diverse cultures may be very long. Ghani and Keats are similar to a great extent with few exceptions. Both the poets give expression to feelings and emotions, which can be appealing to everyone of any age or time or place.

Ghani Khan, like Keats, was also a great lover of beauty. His beauty concept transcends the limitations of time and enriches the essence of civilization and culture. Keats did not have, like Ghani Khan, the experience of life - the reasons being his ill health and youth. In both poets, love goes quite musically, the elements of musicality in the expression of love in the poetry of both poets is very strong. Despite having the various aspects of similarity between the poetry of these two poets, there are also points of differences. Keats' style is sensuous while Ghani's style is more simple and straight forward. They both believed in the natural expression of poetry. Both of these great romantic poets from East and West are great sources of inspiration for the lovers of literature.

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**Sentence Pattern Method -
A New Approach for Teaching Spoken English
for Tamil / Indian / EFL Learners**

K. S. Jayakumar, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper discusses a new methodology, Sentence Pattern Method (SPM), for teaching spoken English for EFL learners. The SPM helps a learner to convert his/her thoughts (in mother tongue) into English sentences very easily. The paper also discusses five important rules for developing spoken English fluency for the learner in a very short time. The SPM was tested with school students, arts and engineering graduates of Tamil medium. It was found out that the learner showed great interest in learning the spoken English and starts speaking English without fear. In other words, the learner started speaking English without worrying about the errors and the nervousness of the learner was reduced considerably.

Keywords: Spoken English, Tamil, Sentence pattern method, Sentence structure, Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

1. Introduction

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Sentence Pattern Method - A New Approach for Teaching Spoken English for Tamil /
Indian / EFL Learners

The main objective of the Sentence Pattern Method (SPM) is to make the learner speak English fluently the way he/she speaks his/her mother tongue.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the sentence pattern method; Section 3 discusses five rules for developing fluency in spoken English; Section 4 describes the case study with Tamil students and lists out the difficulties that prevent the students from speaking English fluently; Section 5 discusses the literature review. Finally, the paper ends with conclusion.

2. Sentence Pattern Method (SPM)

Sentence Pattern Method (SPM) is the sentence template that contains constants and variables. This is similar to mathematical formula. Let us consider the following example to understand SPM.

Example situation: Let us assume that a guest come to our home. First we welcome the guest and ask the guest to be seated. Then we may ask the guest what he or she would like to eat or drink. In this, what would be the sentence pattern method to ask the guest politely to have something?

Sentence Pattern Method: Would you like to do sth?

would – constant, you – constant or variable, like – constant, to- constant

do-variable (i.e. refers to Verb)

sth (something) – variable (i.e. refers to noun or complement)

If we ask the guest to eat ice-cream, the variables get the following values: do = eat & sth = ice-cream. Then substituting the variables in the SPM gives the following sentence:

SPM: *Would you like to do sth?*

(*Substituting, do = eat & sth = ice-cream* in SPM)

Final Sentence: *Would you like to eat ice-cream?*

If we ask the guest to drink apple juice, the final sentence is ***“Would you like to drink apple juice?”*** (here, do = drink & sth = apple juice)

What we understand from the SPM is that forming a sentence is nothing but just substituting the values to the variables in SPM. Likewise, one can form different sentences for different values of the variables. The sentence patterns are available in English dictionaries and specifically the learner can refer to this website www.ldoceonline.com for getting the sentence patterns for different concepts and words.

3. Five Rules for Developing Fluency in Spoken English for Tamil / Indian / EFL Learners

Rule 1: The learner should use the Sentence Pattern Method (SPM) for constructing English sentences.

Rule 2: If one does not know SPM for the particular concept, how to create the sentence for the concept?

Example Concept: Just imagine this situation that you are sitting in the room and you are looking up the roof and you see that the fan is rotating. *Here the main question is how to create the sentence for the fan rotation.* The following steps are used:

Step 1: Find out what is the name of the action.

Step 2: Find out who is the doer of action (i.e. Subject).

Step 3: Write the above names in the following order: (Doer of the action) – (Action name)

Step 4: If the receiver of the action (i.e., Object (O)) and Complement (C) exists, write those (O, C) after the verb. (i.e., S V O C)

Fan rotation example:

Step 1: Find out what is the name of the action (***rotate***)

Step 2: Find out who is the doer of action (i.e. Subject) (***fan***)

Step 3: Write the above names in the following order: (Doer of the action) – (Action name)

(fan) – (rotate)

After adding the article and proper tense, the final sentence will be

The fan is rotating.

The rule 2 seems to be very simple and the main purpose of this rule is that many Tamil learners forget to form the English sentences with the above order. This kind of problem mostly arises for Tamil students and those who have the mother tongue order of the form S O C V.

Rule 3: During the initial stage of English learning, try to construct English sentences with present tense only. Don't use other types of English tenses (i.e., past tense, perfect tense, etc.) at the initial stage of English learning. Tenses actually refer to action timings. To refer action timings or tense, use appropriate timing word. This rule helps the learner to form the sentences very easily and quickly.

Example:

- I came here yesterday (*use this: I come here yesterday*)
- I am walking (*use this: I walk now*)
- I have eaten (*use this: I eat just now*)

Rule 4: Don't use complex English sentences for speaking. The EFL learner must use simple sentences and compound sentences for speaking. *The learner must practice/know how to convert complex sentences into simple and compound sentences.*

Example:

- You see me before leaving this place (*use this: First you see me. Then you leave this place*)
- When I ate in the home I saw my friend (*use this: I ate in the home, at that time, I saw my friend*)
- While eating I was watching TV (*use this: I was eating, meanwhile, I was watching TV*) (here, the actions 'eating' and 'watching' happens at the same time)

- Because of fever I didn't go to school (*use this: I had fever, so I didn't go to school*)

Rule 5: Write down the list of sentences in your mother tongue that (sentences) you spoke or thought last six months. (i.e., if your mother tongue is Tamil, write down the list of sentences in Tamil that you spoke last six months). For each sentence in your mother tongue, learn/know the corresponding English sentence pattern. Table 1 shows the list of sentence patterns for Tamil sentences.

S.No	Tamil Sentences	Sentence Patterns	Final Sentences
1	பர்ஸ் காணவில்லை (purse kanavillai)	<u>sth</u> is missing	<u>Purse</u> is missing
2	சர்க்கரை ஏதாவது மீதி இருக்கிறதா? (sarkarai ethavathu meethi irukkiratha?)	Is there any <u>sth</u> left/remaining?	Is there any <u>sugar</u> left/remaining?
3	கடைக்கு போய் முடி வெட்டிக்கிட்டு வா. (kadaikku poi mudi vetikkittu va)	Have sth1 done sth2 (done-past participle)	Have <u>your hair</u> <u>cut</u> <u>in</u> <u>the saloon/shop.</u>

Table 1: Sentence patterns for a list of Tamil sentences

4. Case Study with Tamil Medium School and College Students in Salem, Tamil Nadu, India.

The SPM has been tested with school students, arts and engineering graduates of Tamil medium. As a first step, the problems that prevent the students from speaking English fluently have been identified. Then the problems are addressed / rectified through the SPM method and the five rules as mentioned above.

The problems that prevent specifically the Tamil medium students from speaking English fluently and suggested solutions for those problems are as follows:

1. Tamil medium students use complex sentences for speaking. In other words, they exactly follow the sentences in the book, newspapers, etc.

- a. Solution: Students are asked to use sentence pattern method to form sentences, asked to use simple and compound sentences for speaking.
2. They speak English very fast as they do in Tamil.
 - a. Solution: Students are asked to speak slowly and tell the English words one by one.
3. They construct English sentences by translating Tamil sentences.
 - a. Solution: Students are asked to use sentence pattern method to form sentences and asked to follow rule 2.
4. Teaching English grammar rules makes them to lose interest in spoken English learning.
 - a. Solution: Students are asked to use sentence pattern method to form sentences and asked to follow rule 3
5. They do not understand non-reference words (such as preposition, timing words, conjunction, etc).
 - a. Solution: English has 256 important non-reference words. Students are taught those words with sentence patterns.
6. They are advised to read English newspapers for developing fluency in spoken English. Reading newspapers will help the students to develop the written English skill.
 - a. Solution: Students are asked to follow rule 5.

4.1 Experiments and Discussions

Ninety students have been taken for the experiment (i.e., spoken English training). Each batch consisted of thirty students and ten members of school students (of 8th standard class to 12th standard class), and had ten members of arts and science graduates and ten members of engineering graduates. There are three batches in total. The total training hour for each batch is thirty hours. There were fifteen sessions in the training. Each session consisted of two hours. The training continued for fifteen days for each batch. The table-2 shows the training plan for fifteen days.

The training gives more focus to SPM, creating sentence pattern for a list of Tamil situations that students will undergo in the future and speech exercise. The important research findings have been identified in the spoken English training conducted for ninety students and they are as follows:

Day	Training Contents	Teaching Methodology
Day 1	Introduction of Language learning process	Lecture
Day 2	Language and its components	Lecture
Day 3	Sentence Pattern Method (SPM)	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 4	Fluency problems	Lecture and demonstration
Day 5	SPM interpretation from www.ldoceonline.com	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 6	Rule 2 – construction of SPM for Tamil situations – Part I	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 7	Rule 2 – construction of SPM for Tamil situations – Part II	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 8	Rule -3 construction of sentences in present tense and teaching timing related words	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 9	Rule – 4 Transformation of complex sentences into simple and compound sentences	Lecture, tutorial and exercises
Day 10	Rule 5 – creating sentence patterns for list of Tamil situations – Part I	Tutorial and exercises
Day 11	Rule 5 – creating sentence patterns for list of Tamil situations – Part II	Tutorial and exercises
Day 12	Rule 5 – creating sentence patterns for list of Tamil situations – Part III	Tutorial and exercises
Day 13	Speech Exercise (Teacher gives Tamil situations and student speaks in English)	Exercise
Day 14	Speech Exercise (Teacher gives Tamil situations and student speaks in English)	Exercise
Day 15	Speech Exercise (Teacher gives Tamil situations and student speaks in English)	Exercise

Table 2: Fifteen days spoken English training plan for Tamil students

1. Students appreciated the importance of SPM approach for converting Tamil sentences into English sentences.
2. Rule 2 (i.e. the sentence order: doer of the action and action) played important role in forming English sentences for Tamil students.
3. The learner who didn't understand the SPM approach did not perform well in the training.
4. Many students followed complex sentences for the speech. They felt very difficult to speak English fluently. They were advised to use compound sentences and as a result they spoke very well and felt comfortable.
5. Some students gained more confidence in the training by just understanding the fluency problems and the SPM.
6. The learners felt more confident in speaking English sentences in present tense and using timing related words. Surprisingly, at the end of the training they started to use correct tenses for the English sentences.
7. The non-reference words helped the students to describe their situations very accurately. They understood that the non-reference words were important for spoke English.
8. Knowing the English sentence patterns for Tamil situations played major role in enhancing the student's spoken English fluency. Every student appreciated this exercise and they participated in the class very actively.
9. All the students had the confidence in speaking English. Many students started to use broken English sentences when they didn't know the exact sentence pattern for the given Tamil situation.

The findings clearly showed that the learner showed great interest in learning the spoken English and started speaking English without fear. In other words, the learner started speaking English without worrying about the errors and the nervousness of the learner was reduced considerably.

5. Literature Review

Skehan (1998) and Foster (2001) mentioned the formulaic expressions, which are called in this paper as Sentence Pattern Method (SPM). It was mentioned that the formulaic expressions played the important role in second language acquisition and native speakers have been shown to use a much larger number of formulaic expressions than even advanced second language learners. Ellis (1984) and Myles, Mitchell, and Hooper (1998) demonstrated that learners often internalize the formulaic expressions and reuse them for different situations by substituting variables. Ellis (2005) proposed ten principles for language learning, which play the important role in designing the curriculum for spoken English teaching. Rebecca (2006) and Prabhu (1987) discussed the task based language teaching and learning and it is based on the concept that effective learning occurs when students are fully engaged in a language task, rather than just learning about language and tasks comprise the foundation of the curriculum.

In this paper, the task of creating English sentence patterns for Tamil situations played an important role in second language learning. Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982). Nation (2005) discussed how to teach a vocabulary for effective English learning. The learning burden or constituent parts of vocabulary consists of three components such as meaning, form and use.

The SPM covers these three aspects of vocabulary and it helps the learner to remember multiple meanings of a word. Nation (2003) discussed the role first language or mother tongue in English language learning and it showed that teaching the vocabulary in the first language gives the better understanding of the meaning. Similarly, in this paper the vocabulary was taught in the first language (Tamil) and its sentence pattern was given in the target language (English). This gave a good impact on vocabulary and language learning particularly for Tamil students.

6. Conclusion

This paper proposed a new methodology, Sentence Pattern Method (SPM), for teaching spoken English for Tamil learners. The SPM helped a learner to convert his/her thoughts (in mother tongue) into English sentences very easily. The paper also discussed five important rules for developing spoken English fluency for the learner in a very short time. The ten principles of instructed language learning of Ellis (2005) helped very much to design the fifteen days spoken English training plan. Many of the Tamil students appreciated spoken English training through SPM approach and they started speaking English without worrying about the errors. The nervousness of the learner was reduced considerably.

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**Enhancing Language Skills Using *Learn to Speak English* Software
in Engineering Students of Andhra Pradesh**

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Abstract

The methods of teaching and learning English have changed significantly. A new way of learning technique has emerged with the facility of computers and internet. The present paper highlights the use of **LEARN TO SPEAK ENGLISH** software in enhancing language skills among the Engineering students of Andhra Pradesh.

Introduction

English Language Teaching has influenced the experience of learning and teaching of English as a non-native language in India. The development of English language teaching in India has been encouraging before the independence onwards in spite of differences in the levels of initiation of instruction, differences in the socio-economic status, scarcity of teachers, over-crowded classrooms, indifferent students, parents and educators etc.

At present, English has become the language of India's arts, business, government, commerce, justice, science, and technology. Its importance and impact on Indians cannot be ignored. Presently, educational system in India especially Andhra Pradesh has been undergoing diverse changes. This change has been clearly noticed in engineering education also.

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The methods of teaching and learning English have changed significantly. Much importance is laid on linguistic competence, communicative proficiency, grammatical precision and vocabulary building. A student must have effective communication skills if he or she wants to cope with the present competitive world. There is a lot of demand for personality development, LSRW skills, soft skills, spoken English etc., which can be acquired using modern methods of learning. At this juncture, language learning is no more considered as a matter of acquiring final degree.

A New Way of Learning

A new way of learning technique has emerged with the facility of computers and internet. This technology has helped the students study well and enhance knowledge. Top universities in Andhra Pradesh like JNTU, Osmania and GITAM have introduced multimedia English language lab in the curriculum.

The English language lab is well sophisticated with computers, headphones, speakers, LCD and different English language software etc. JNTU is one of the prestigious universities that has been divided into 4 different Universities, 12 constituent units and 284 affiliated colleges in AP. On roll there would be around 1.5 lakh engineering graduates coming out with their degree every year. Osmania University is one of the top ten universities in India. GITAM is the top fourth private deemed university in India and the top private university in Andhra Pradesh according to MHRD survey. Such universities introduced LEARN TO SPEAK ENGLISH software for the benefit of the students. This paper presents in detail the above said software that focuses on improving various language skills among learners.

LEARN TO SPEAK ENGLISH

Learn to Speak - Personalized Learning Technology (PLT) is a language learning programme that focuses on building skills by practising various lessons, exercises and drills. This programme is a combination of video, audio, text and online instruction. The learner can involve him/herself through visual, auditory and interactive methods. The software runs on 166 MHz Pentium® processor or equivalent Windows® 95, 98, Me, 2000, XP along with 32 MB RAM, 125 MB free hard disk space, 256 color SVGA, 4x CD-ROM drive, Windows-compatible sound card, Mouse, Microphone and speakers. The software is published by the learning company and can be bought through online at the rate of \$80.

The learner can develop his/her conversational skills and pronunciation skills. It consists of 4 CDs. The software gets opened containing different icons like:

- User guide – It provides detailed information on how the software works.
- Options – It gives access to internet connection and Electronic registration.
- Web – It gives access to internet connection which can be American online or other internet connection service provider.
- Uninstall – By clicking on this, the programme can be uninstalled.

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- Quit - This icon helps to quit the programme.
- Run programme – By clicking on this, the learner can run the programme.
-

Firstly, the learner should click on the 'New User' button and enroll his/her name. A file is created that stores scoring details and usage information. Afterwards he/she should click on the 'Start' button or press 'Enter' to begin the programme. If the learner has already used the programme, his/her name will be displayed in the sign-in list.

The learner can click on the name and press 'Enter' or 'Start' button. The learner can also remove his/her name by clicking on the 'Remove' button' or can exit the programme by clicking on 'Exit' button.



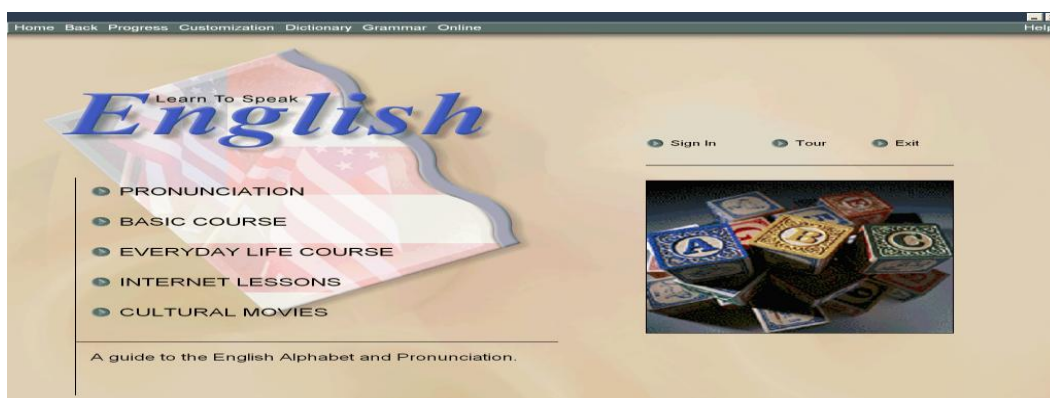
After enrolling, the learner can go to the Home page. A caption bar is displayed throughout the programme at the top of the computer screen along with the menu bar below it that gives entry to different screens like the

- Progress screen which provides information regarding learner's performance and shows data regarding successfully completed lessons. Learner's accomplished tasks and the tasks that are still to work are displayed.
- Customization screen allows the learner to modify the programme and change the selected task to suit his/her needs.
- Dictionary consists of all the vocabulary words from the programme. The learner can browse the dictionary either alphabetically or topic wise.
- Grammar screen consists of various grammar topics included in the lessons.
- Online screen connects to personal study plan, online study group or the program's website called www.elanguage.com where the learner can create his/her own web page or create a own study plan.
- Help button provides the learner with necessary information.

Home screen also allows the learner to return to 'Home' or go 'back' to the previous screen at any time. There is also a 'tour' button that gives the preview of the entire programme. Along

with these features, the home screen shows different courses that can run by installing CDs 2, 3 and 4. These courses are:

- i. Pronunciation
- ii. Basic course
- iii. Everyday life course
- iv. Internet lessons
- v. Cultural movies



i. Pronunciation

Pronunciation provides information on vowels, consonants, vowels consonant combinations etc. It deals with ABC, Vowels, Vowel combinations, Consonants, Consonant combinations.

ABC

The ABC screen shows three columns listing the letters of the English alphabets where the learner can listen to all the letters or individual letter pronounced by the speaker. A pronunciation gauge is provided so as to allow the learner to record his/her pronunciation and compare it with the speaker's pronunciation. The screen also provides pronunciation tips.

Vowels

The pronunciation of different vowels like a, e, i, o, u, with examples are given along with pronunciation tip. The learner can listen to the speaker's pronunciation and record his pronunciation and practise the words.

Vowel combinations

Different vowel combinations like ai, au, ea, ee, oa, oo, oi, oy, ou with examples are given. The learner can hear the speaker's pronunciation and record his pronunciation and practise the words.

Consonants

Different consonants like b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z with examples are given. The learner can listen to the speaker's pronunciation and record his/her pronunciation and practise the words.

Consonant combinations

Different consonant combinations like ch, gh, kn, ng, ph, ps, sc, sh, th, tw, wh, wr with examples are given. The learner can listen to the speaker's pronunciation and record his/her pronunciation and practise the words

ii. Basic course:

The Basic course deals with simple words and expressions needed for learner for immediate speaking. It consists of the orientation, the pretest, Lessons, Basic words, and Simulated conversations.

The orientation

Here the instructor provides an outline of the Basic Course and provides information on language learning.

The pretest

The pretest contains two parts. The first part has ten bits from which the learner has to pick up the most suitable answer to the given sentence or phrase.

e.g. What do you do for fun?

- a. That sounds great b. I like to go hiking c. Me too.

The second part also contains ten bits. The learner is provided with a picture and he/she should interpret the best suitable word or a phrase that describes the picture and record his/her voice. At the end of the test, the score is displayed.

Lessons

These lessons provide the learner with basic conversational skills. It consists of five basic topics that contain exercises on vocabulary, communication, grammar, exercises, communication skills and grammar skills. The introductory lessons are Greetings and farewells, Getting information, Making friends, Getting acquainted and Introductions. One of the lessons is given below:

Greetings and farewells

This lesson deals with how to greet people, how to say good bye etc. Under vocabulary, simple words, expressions and extended word list of related words like Hi, Hello, Good morning, Mr., Mrs. etc. are introduced to the learner where he/she can listen to the instructor by clicking on a word or expression.

The learner can 'record' his/her voice and practise the pronunciation until it matches the instructor's voice. 'Drill' option is provided where the learner can review the words and expressions. For every word or expression, pictorial representation is provided so as to make learning easier. 'Note' is provided that gives information on the selected word.

In Communication, the learner is provided with short dialogues along with corresponding pictures to develop memorization and recognition skills. The learner is provided with some expressions along with three possible responses. He/she can record the responses. To a given situation there may be quite a few possible responses.

In Grammar, pronouns, the use of 'to be' in different contexts and basic sentence structure are provided to the learner. Grammar points are provided where he/she can move through the grammar exercise by clicking one at a time. The learner is also given the access to study the grammar topics either by video or text mode.

In exercises, three kinds are included like drag and match where the learner listens to a phrase said by the instructor's voice and drags the suitable match to it; See it, Say it where the learner pronounces the best item that matches the picture; and multiple choice where the learner is provided with a phrase along with three options and he/she should match the best option.

Basic words

Under Basic words, the learner is provided with numbers, time, calendar, colours along with pictorial representation like six hundred, It's ten after six, Monday, August, Summer, Spring, Yellow, Brown etc. The learner can record his/her voice and practise the pronunciation until it matches the instructor's voice. Drill option is provided.

Simulated conversations

Under Simulated Conversations, the learner is provided with different conversations like being invited to a party and introduced to a friend of one's colleague, approaching a young woman or a man at a party and striking up a conversation with on-screen characters. Different options provided, make the learner understand the conversations better.

The learner can click on the 'text' button to follow the text of the native speaker. The 'response' button is provided to view all the possible answers. Pause button temporarily stops the conversation whenever required.

iii. Everyday life course

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Everyday life course menu gives the language skills needed to communicate in typical travel situations, business situations and everyday life situations. These situations cover various points like vocabulary, drill 1, story, action, drill 2, grammar, drill 3, conversation and games. One of the exercises under Travel situations is given below:

Travel Situations: Under Travel, different situations are included. One among them is Immigration and Customs. The learner is made to learn about how to go through Customs and Immigration, how to use simple and polite expressions with strangers, travel plans, how to use 'to be', 'to have', and 'to go' expressions.

Vocabulary provides essential and extra words related to immigration, travel plans, at the airport, tourist, visa, my, stay, enjoy, go ahead, valuables, stand in line, terminal, flight etc. With essential list of words, the learner can view and listen to a video by clicking on the 'Here In Context'.

The video presents a short dialogue that uses the selected word or expression along with the textual format and 'note' that gives additional information on the selected word. Pictorial representation of the selected word or expression is also provided. The learner can record his/her voice, practise and compare with the instructor's voice.

Drill 1 consists of 'Listen and click' where the learner has to click on the 'begin' button and start the activity. He/she is provided with four pictorial representations. He/she should listen to the instructor carefully and identify the picture that matches with the instructor's word.

Drill 1 also consists of 'See and Say' where the learner has to record the correct word provided or type it into the box. Here the learner can click on 'Show/Hide Answer' button to view the correct answer or hide it. He/she can reset this exercise by clicking on 'Reset' button.

Story consists of a dialogue based on Immigration and Customs. The learner is provided with pictorial representation. By clicking on the 'play' button, the learner can listen to the entire situational dialogue spoken by the instructor/s. He/she can click on the sound icon, listen and record each line individually. The entire text is provided with some learning tips.

Action consists of a video of the above story where the learner can view and listen to the dialogues through actions. By clicking on the 'play' button, the learner can listen to the entire situational dialogue spoken by the instructor/s. He/she can click on the sound icon, listen and record each line individually. The 'text' button gives access to the entire text. Cultural notes are also provided.

Drill 2 consists of fill in the blanks where the learner can click on the sound icon, listen to the sentence and fill in the blank.

e.g. I don't _____ Ans: Understand.

By clicking on the 'Show Answers' button, the correct answers can be seen.

Storyline is where the learner has to listen to a paragraph and then arrange the pictures in the right order. The learner can check the answers by clicking on 'Check Answer' button or the activity can be repeated by clicking on 'Hear Again' button.

e.g. It is early in the afternoon and you greet the immigration agent.

You say: Good afternoon/ Hi/ Hello.

He/she is expected to record or type the correct answer to the given situation; and Reading where a context is provided with fill in the blanks. The learner has to click on the arrow button and choose the correct option. The learner can click on 'Show/Hide Answer' button to view the correct answer or hide it.

Grammar covers various topics on to be, to have, singular and plural nouns, articles and contractions.

Drill 3 consists of fill in the blanks where the learner has to fill the gaps using present tense form.

e.g. I _____ a visa (to have)

Ans: have

Conversation consists of a video based on Immigration and Customs where the learner can listen to the speaker's voice by clicking on the 'Listen' button. He/she can record the response, click on the 'speak' button and listen to his/her response. He/she can go through the practise session by clicking on the 'practice' button.

The learner is expected to record the correct answer to the given situation. The learner can click on the 'Hint' button to see what the character has said or what the learner could say to a given situation. He/she can pause the activity by clicking on the 'pause' button or end the activity by clicking on the 'End Sim' button.

Games are also introduced to the learner to make language learning enjoyable and interesting. It contains items like 'Go fish' where some hints are provided to the learner on different cards. The learner has to type a suitable word based on the hints so as to enhance vocabulary building and 'crossword puzzle' based on Immigration and Customs.

iv. Internet lessons

Here a wide range of lessons from slang to science can be accessed by the learner. These internet lessons allow the learner to choose different topics like proverbs, business calls etc., that can be downloaded and added to the Learn to Speak English. Internet lessons provide access to the learner to add a variety of topics to improve his/her English.

v. Cultural movies

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Cultural movies provide the learner with a chance of exploring different countries. He/she can get access to different videos where the learner can click on the 'play' button and listen to the short documentary. A small box is also provided with a 'text' button. By clicking on it, the learner can see the text.

The various topics covered in this unit are Washington D.C, New York City, San Francisco, Chicago, Miami, Philadelphia, Santa Fe, Boston, New Orleans and Seattle. The learner has the option either to rewind or forward the video. The learner can listen to the instructor's voice and make a note on the points or read the text simultaneously.

Cultural movies allow the learner to know various places, understand the culture, habitat etc., of different countries. These movies make the learner concentrate on listening, reading and writing skills.

Conclusion

During the language lab sessions, the learner is exposed to learning various activities by using computer and different software for the first time during engineering education. The learner used to be a passive recipient and was not exposed to perform various activities to improve his/her communication skills. This software helps the learner to accustom him/herself with proper pronunciation, basic conversation abilities, participate in various role plays in the classroom setting which in turn help him/her to communicate effectively.

The pronunciation course helps the learner to have a thorough understanding of different speech sounds along with different examples. Instructor's voice, Pronunciation gauge help the learner to practise the articulation effectively. Basic course provides the learner with a list of words and expressions that are associated with a given situation. Lessons that enhance the basic dialogue skills allow the learner to respond with suitable reply, thus leading to the delivery of apt dialogues to a given situation. Grammar, vocabulary and exercises help the learner to minimize the number of mistakes while speaking. On screen characters and pictorial representation attract the attention of the learner to understand the given situation in an improved way without causing any boredom. Internet lessons give access to the learner to get acquainted to such activities for improving English.

This software provides the learner with appropriate vocabulary essential for role plays or situational dialogues. It provides in detail the usage of different words, expressions that fit in a particular situation with proper enunciation, thus improving conversational abilities, speaking competency and listening proficiency. All these courses help the learner to converse properly and to use proper grammar, vocabulary for improving communication skills.

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**Problems in Teaching of English Language at
the Primary Level in District Kohat, NWFP, Pakistan**

Muhammad Naseer Ud Din, Ph.D.

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Abstract

In this paper, the author discusses problems in teaching of English language at the Primary Level in District Kohat, in the North-Western Frontier Province (NWFP) in Pakistan. The study was undertaken to identify the problems of teachers as well as students, regarding the subject.

The main objectives of the study were

- (i) to investigate the academic and professional qualification of English teachers,
- (ii) to evaluate the problems related to teaching of English as compulsory subject in primary schools and
- (iii) to make recommendations in the light of findings of the study.

The participants of the study were from eight schools, six male and two female schools were randomly selected within the District Kohat. This is considered only as a sample study. The researcher himself identified various areas of problems in teaching English language. On the basis of these areas, two questionnaires were developed, one for the head teachers of the schools and the other for the English language teachers of the schools.

Data collected through the questionnaires was tabulated, analyzed and interpreted by using percentage and chi square formula. In the light of the objectives, the main conclusions were: Majority of the teachers were matriculate and had the professional degree of PST, so they were under-qualified for teaching English at the primary level, Audio-Visual aids were not available in the schools and there was no environment of speaking English at schools. On the basis of the conclusions arrived at, recommendations were given. English language teachers should have professional qualifications up to B.Ed. The English language teachers should be provided special training to practice spoken English and should be enabled to use teaching methods specially designed for teaching English at the primary level. Adequate teaching aids may be provided in schools.

Key words: English, Language, Academic Qualification, Heads, Teachers and Students.

English in Pakistan

English has always been rated high in Pakistan. In the past, it was treated as a compulsory subject from class six onwards in government school system. While it was offered as a compulsory subject in English medium schools and was used as a medium of instruction, the private schools offered English as a subject from nursery classes. It means that the students of government schools started studying English at the age of eleven years whereas the students of English medium schools started studying English at the age of four years. This created a serious problem for those students who did not study English from class one with the result that students of government primary school are rated low in admission for higher education and in getting jobs (Ahmad, 1987).

Problems of an English Teacher in Pakistan

An English teacher in Pakistan faces many problems. In the present situation, he is not in a position to do full justice to the difficult task of teaching English. The result is that most of the students face difficulties in this subject. Some of the teachers' problems include difficulty in overcoming the heavy influence of mother tongue, cognitive issues, linguistic issues, lack of resource and crowded classes (Mueen, 1992).

Statement of the Problem

Keeping in view the deprivation faced by students in government schools, government of Pakistan made a decision that English should be taught as a compulsory subject at the primary school level.

The present study aims to explore the problems in teaching of English language at the primary level in the District of Kohat, in the North-West Frontier Province, Pakistan.

Objectives of the Study

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Following objectives were focused in the study:

1. To investigate the academic and professional qualification of English teachers,
2. To evaluate the problems related to the teaching of English as a compulsory subject in primary schools, and
3. To make recommendations in the light of findings of study.

Significance of the Study

Nowadays English is considered as an international language due to its importance, which is felt at all levels of education. This study is significant as it provides the data about the prevailing conditions in primary schools regarding the teaching of English. The findings of study may also be useful for planners, educators and researchers. This study will also be useful for the administration and for the supervisors in making appropriate and relevant arguments for teaching English at the primary level, with the use of teaching aids helpful in teaching English. The findings of this study will also provide a base to those who are interested in conducting further research in this area.

As far as the researcher knows, no such study has so far been conducted on the subject in the district, hence the study is both needed and justified.

Statement of the Hypothesis

1. The English teachers at the primary level are under-qualified for the teaching of English.
2. The lack of teaching aids is causing problems in the teaching of English at the primary level.

Delimitation of the Study

Within the constraints of available resources and time the present study is limited to:

1. The head teachers of primary schools in District Kohat.
2. The English teachers from Class one to fifth Class in primary schools in District Kohat.

Methods and Procedure

Population

The Study was descriptive in nature. Selected head teachers and English teachers of primary schools of boys and girls of the District Kohat constituted the population of the study.

Sample

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The sample of this study consisted of eight primary schools of the District Kohat which included eight head teachers and sixteen English teachers of selected primary schools; male and female.

Research Instruments

Questionnaires were used as research instruments. Two questionnaires were prepared as research instruments one questionnaire for Head teachers and the other questionnaire for English teachers of primary schools.

The questionnaires were developed on the format of closed and open ended questions which covered all the aspects of problems in teaching of English Language at primary level in the District Kohat.

Data Collection

Data from the field was collected through questionnaires. The researcher administered the questionnaires personally. The researcher visited the schools mentioned in the sample for obtaining the opinions of the head teachers and English teachers of the primary schools.

Data collected through questionnaires was tabulated, analyzed and interpreted. Statistical tools like Chi Square and percentage were used. Some workable recommendations were made to improve the situation.

Data Analysis

For statistical treatment percentage and chi-square were applied using the following formula:

Following formulas were used:

i. Percentage % =
$$\frac{\text{No. of respondents}}{\text{Total Respondents}} \times 100$$

ii. To calculate the value of chi square following formula was used.

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where

\sum = Stands for sum of $(fo - fe)^2$

fo = Observed frequency

fe = Estimated/ Expected frequency

Degree of freedom was calculated by the following formula:

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$$df = (C-1)(R-1)$$

Where

$$C = \text{Stands for number of columns}$$

$$R = \text{Stands for number of rows}$$

$$P = \text{Probability of exceeding the tabulated value of } X^2$$

$$= \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe} \quad (\text{Garret, 1997})$$

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of data, conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made.

Results and Discussion

This section deals with data analysis and its interpretations. The results of the study are presented in tabular form. The data collected through research instruments were tabulated analyzed and interpreted in the light of the objective of the study and questionnaire was used as research instrument. So, to execute this aim, the administered questionnaires data was analyzed by using chi-square to get the validation and significance of research scores.

A. Questionnaire for Head Teachers

Table 1: Frequency distribution of Head Teachers

Items	Responses	Yes	No	Total	χ^2
Teachers are properly qualified for teaching English	Responses	8	0	8	8*
	Percentage	100 %	-	100%	
Teachers are Punctual	Responses	8	0	8	8*
	Percentage	100 %	-	100%	
Parents complain about English teachers	Responses	0	8	8	8*
	Percentage	-	100 %	100%	
Teaching aids for teaching English from class 1st to 5th are Available	Responses	3	5	8	0.5
	Percentage	37.50 %	62.50%	100%	
Teachers use teaching aids during teaching	Responses	3	5	8	0.5
	Percentage	37.50 %	62.50%	100%	

The above table shows that value at 1 degree of freedom the χ^2 value at 0.05 = 3.841 which is greater than the table value, the chi square (χ^2) value is **8** in each item of teachers are properly qualified for teaching English, teachers are punctual. Parents complain about English teachers while the value of χ^2 is **0.5** which is lesser than table value of each item of teaching aids for teaching English from class 1st to 5th are available and teachers use teaching aids during teaching.

B. Questionnaire for English Teachers

Table 2: Frequency distribution of English Teachers by Academic Qualification

Qualification	Nos.	Percentage
SSC (Matric)	9	56.25%
HSSC (Intermediate)	3	18.75%
B.A (Graduate)	2	12.50%
M.A (Post Graduate)	2	12.50%
Total	16	100%

The above item deals with academic qualification of English teachers. The data collected through this item is presented in table 2, which shows that most of English teachers were Matriculate.

Table 3: Frequency distribution of English Teachers by Professional Qualification

Qualification	Nos.	Percentage
PST	13	81.85%
CT	1	6.25%
B.Ed.	1	6.25%
M.Ed.	1	6.25%
Total	16	100%

The above item deals with professional qualification of English teachers. The data collected through this item is presented in table 18, which shows that in primary schools most English teachers had done PST (81.85%) while remaining had done C.T. (6.25%), B.Ed (6.25%) and M.Ed (6.25%) each.

Table 4: Frequency distribution of English Teachers by marks in English at B.A. level

Marks	Division	No. of teachers	Percentage
33- 44%	III	1	33.33%

45- 59%	II	2	66.66%
60- 65%	I	0	00.00

Table 4 shows that majority of English teachers (66.66%) had II Division marks in B.A. English.

Table 5: Frequency distribution of English Teachers by teaching English as a Subject at primary level:

Experience of Teaching English (In years)	No. of Teachers	Percentage
1-10	7	43.75%
11-20	7	43.75%
21-30	2	12.50%
Total	16	100%

The above item was designed to know the experience of English teachers by teaching English as a subject at the primary level. The data collected through this item is presented in table 5. It is clear from the table that majority of English teachers (43.75%) had teaching experience of teaching English as a subject in the range of (1-20) years.

Table 6: Linguistic skills in English language

Skills	Good	(in %age)	Satisfactory	(in %age)	Poor	(in %age)	Total
Listening	16	100%	0	-	0	-	16
Speaking	7	43.75%	6	37.50%	3	18.75%	16
Reading	15	93.75%	1	6.25%	0	-	16
Writing	13	81.25%	3	18.75%	0	-	16

Table 6 shows that majority of respondents (100%) were found good in listening. Speaking was reported as good by majority of respondents (43.75%). 93.75% respondents were found good in reading while writing as a skill was claimed good by 81.25% respondents.

Findings of the Study

1. Teaching aids from class 1 to 5 are not available. So, the teachers are unable to use teaching aids.
2. Majority of teachers were found to be only matriculates and have done PST, a professional degree or certificate in teaching. Statistical data is given in the tables 2, 3, 4, and 5
3. Listening power of the majority of the teachers was good whereas their speaking power was satisfactory. Most of the teachers used direct method which is given in the table 6.

4. There were no Audiovisual aids used in the classrooms for teaching English, as given in the table 1.
5. The primary school English syllabus was not according to the mental/cognitive level of the students and most of the students were found regular in their homework.

Conclusions

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

1. Majority of teachers, male and female, working as English teachers in primary schools were matriculates who held professional degree or certificate in teaching.
2. Majority of the teachers were matriculate and had professional degree of PST, so they were under qualified for teaching of English at primary level.
3. Majority of English teachers reported that they were good in listening but their spoken English was not good because they had not done any English language course.
4. There was no environment of speaking English in schools. Audiovisual aids were not available in the schools. Present primary school English syllabus was not according to mental/cognitive level of students.
5. Facilities for teaching English, especially teaching aids from class 1 to 5, were not available.

Recommendations

On the basis of the above conclusions, following recommendations are made:

1. Majority of English language teachers at primary level were PST, which was not satisfactory. So, it is recommended that the English language teachers should have professional qualifications up to B.Ed.
2. The English teachers should be provided special training to give them practice in spoken English and enable them to use teaching methods specially designed for teaching of English at the primary level.
3. Adequate teaching aids may be provided in schools. Curriculum experts should revise the syllabus according to the mental approach and psychology of children at the primary level. As the parents, in general, cannot provide guidance in the study of English at home, more periods should be allocated for the effective teaching of English. Teachers should improve their spoken English.

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**An Appraisal of the Practicum –
Finding the Gaps between Theory and Practice in Teacher Training
Institutions in Pakistan**

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Abstract

A successful teacher training programme aims at harmonising the theoretical and the practical facets of training so that what is willed is materialised in order to gain the desired objectives. The present study was undertaken with a view to observe the gaps, if any, between the theory and practice pre-service teacher training being imparted in Pakistani teacher training institutions. The sample for the study consisted of 120 student teachers of twelve different teacher training institutions of Pakistan.

The students had completed the theoretical part of the training and were now engaged in practice teaching. The sample was divided into male-female. It represented all the four provinces of Pakistan. Observation was used as a technique to collect data. The researcher visited all the classes personally to achieve the said end during. Data was collected through 35 sets of observation. The observation checklist was prepared keeping in mind the objectives of teacher training in general and of practice teaching in particular, as espoused in the curriculum.

It was found that there was a great gap between theory and practice in terms of novel methods and techniques, the use of computer applications for teaching, experimentation, finding relations of the topic with the real life situations and the use of diagnosis evaluation techniques. However, the trainees made use of the evaluation techniques and invited questions in order to engage the

students. It is concluded that novelty and innovation are completely missing and the trainees feel satisfied with the same hackneyed techniques and methods through which they were taught. It is recommended that the teacher trainers routinely visit the classes during the practice teaching. Increasing the duration of the practice teaching will also do a world of good to the success of the programme.

Introduction

The importance of practicum in any course of studies is a given thing and teacher education is no exception in this regard (McIntyre, Byrd, & Fox, 1996). The world of practicum comes to us as an amalgamation of thought and action. Whereas the theory is a systematic way of thinking into a subject, practice involves the putting into practice of something. A theory might ignite the practice but it might never see the light of the day. Blunden (2000) puts it in these words.

“Theory involves the development of understanding and insight and it is what universities often do well. Of course, both of these worlds, practice and theory, are communities of practice, but they are nonetheless very different worlds” (p.8).

However, it is a universally acknowledged fact that a theory dies without practice and the aim of a programme should always be to harmonise theory and practice. The ideal may never be fully realised. However, such an exercise cannot be termed futile because it enables the practitioner as well as the researcher in filling the gaps between theory and practice. An insight into the nature of theory, being followed, and an appraisal of the practice help us in finding these gaps. The present study is an attempt in the same direction.

Theory of the Practicum

Ideally, the practicum should involve a combination of a range of different factors that might include, but would not be limited to, the performance of the student teachers, the teacher educators, the school and the availability of resources. However, it is more important to have a relationship of all these factors (Ellsworth and Albers, 1995).

The theory of the practice teaching dictates the following:

- The duration of the practicum is appropriate i.e. it is neither too long nor too short.
- There is an opportunity for the student teachers to exhibit their potential at the optimum level
- There is an availability of resources
- The environment is realistic to an extent that it duplicates the teaching learning situation so the student teachers anticipate the teaching profession.
- An effective system of monitoring and evaluation is put in place.
- During the final assessment, the weight given to the practicum should be proportionate to the theoretical exams.

At the end of the practicum, the student teacher is expected the following:

- He has learnt to develop a relationship with his students, colleagues and administrators
- He has developed a method of control learnt how to maintain discipline and be regular and punctual
- Comprehended the principles underlying learning
- Can develop his lesson plans properly
- Has a mastery of techniques and methods of teaching
- Has acquired the potential to gain from monitoring and evaluation
- Develop a habit of self evaluation

The supervisors are expected to:

- Apprise the student teachers of the methods and techniques of teaching
- Help the student teachers in developing their lesson plans

Put in place an effective system of monitoring and evaluation whereby the goals of practice teaching may be materialised.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were:

1. To appraise the teaching practice.
2. Find the gap between theory and practice.
3. To suggest measures.

Research Methodology

Population and Sampling

The population of the study consisted of all the prospective teachers who are admitted to B.Ed programme in public sector institutions of Pakistan. The 120 prospective teachers from 8 institutions were considered as sample of the study.

S.No	Gender	Numbers	Percent
1	Male	46	38.3%
2	Female	74	61.7%

Figure 1 Showing the distribution of sample gender wise

S.No	Province	Number	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
1	Punjab	50	41.66%	15	12.5%	35	29.16%
2	NWFP	20	16.66%	8	6.66%	12	10%
3	Sindh	40	33.33%	13	10.83%	27	22.5%
4	Balochistan	10	8.33%	10	8.33%	0	0%

Figure 2 Showing the distribution of sample province wise and gender wise.

Research Tool Development and Data Collection

Since the study was descriptive in nature, therefore, survey approach was considered appropriate to collect the data. For the purpose, a 35 item observation checklist was prepared by keeping in mind the objectives of teaching practice.

Administration of Research Tool

Data were collected personally from The Sindh and The Punjab and through teacher educators from the Balochistan and The NWFP.

Data Analysis

The data collected through observation was coded and analysed through SPSS XII and in terms of percentage.

Findings

Data collected through the questionnaire was analysed in terms of percentage. The findings drawn out from the data analysis are given below.

Table 1

Student teachers prepare lesson plan during teaching practice

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Above table shows that 100 % student teachers from all the provinces and both the genders prepare lesson plans during the teaching practice.

Table 2

Student teachers manage the class

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	60.0%	88.6%	100.0%	85.2%	91.3%	89.2%
No				40.0%	11.4%		14.8%	8.7%	10.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that all the male student teachers from the Punjab, the N W F P

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and the Sindh, while 60% male student teachers from Balochistan manage their classes. On the other hand the female student teachers 88% from Punjab, 100% from the NWFP and 85.2% from the Sindh manage their classes. So on the over all 91.3% male student teachers and 89.2% female student teachers manage their classes quite successfully during teaching practice.

Table 3

Student teacher uses team teaching method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes									
No	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

This table suggests that 100 % student teachers from all the provinces and both the genders do not use team teaching method during the teaching practice.

Table 4

Student teachers use /micro teaching method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes									
No	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

This table shows that 100 % student teachers from all the provinces and both the genders do not use micro teaching method during the teaching practice.

Table 5

Student teacher uses computer assisted learning

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes		12.5%			2.9%		3.7%	2.2%	2.7%
No	100.0%	87.5%	100.0%	100.0%	97.1%	100.0%	96.3%	97.8%	97.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Findings as tabulated here show that only 12.5% male student teachers from the N W F P use computer assisted learning. On the other hand the female student teachers 2.9%% from the Punjab and 3.7% from the NWFP use computer assisted learning. So on the over all 2.2% male student teachers and 2.7% female student teachers use computer assisted learning during teaching practice.

Table 6*Student teacher uses computer assisted instructions*

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	2.2%	2.7%	2.0%	5.0%	2.5%	.0%	2.2%	2.2%	2.7%
No	97.8%	97.3%	98.0%	95.0%	97.5%	100.0%	97.8%	97.8%	97.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 2.2% male student teachers from the Punjab, 2.7% from the N W F P, 2% from the Sindh and 5% from Balochistan use computer assisted instructions. On the other hand from the female student teachers 2.5% from the Punjab, 0% from the NWFP and 2.2% from the Sindh use computer assisted instructions. So on the over all 2.2% male student teachers and 2.7% female student teachers use computer assisted instructions during teaching practice.

Table 7*Student teacher uses lecture method*

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	73.3%	37.5%	76.9%	90.0%	77.1%	83.3%	74.1%	71.7%	77.0%
No	26.7%	62.5%	23.1%	10.0%	22.9%	16.7%	25.9%	28.3%	23.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Findings from this table reveal that 73.3% male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 90% from Balochistan use lecture method. On the other hand, from the female student teachers 77.1% from the Punjab, 83.3% from the NWFP and 74.1% from the Sindh use lecture method. So, overall 71.7% male student teachers and 77% female student teachers use lecture method during teaching practice.

Table 8*Student teacher uses discussion method*

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	20.0%	12.5%	23.1%	50.0%	37.1%	33.3%	37.0%	26.1%	36.5%
No	80.0%	87.5%	76.9%	50.0%	62.9%	66.7%	63.0%	73.9%	63.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 20% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P, 23.1% from the Sindh and 50% from Balochistan use discussion method. On the other hand from the female student teachers 37.1% from the Punjab, 33.3% from the NWFP and 37%

from the Sindh use discussion method. So on the over all 26.1% male student teachers and 36.5% female student teachers use discussion method during teaching practice.

Table 9

Student teacher uses question answer method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	66.7%	12.5%	76.9%	70.0%	54.3%	25.0%	37.0%	60.9%	43.2%
No	33.3%	87.5%	23.1%	30.0%	45.7%	75.0%	63.0%	39.1%	56.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 66.7% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 70% from Balochistan use discussion method. On the other hand from the female student teachers 54.3% from the Punjab, 25% from the NWFP and 37% from the Sindh use question answer method. So on the over all 60.9% male student teachers and 43.2% female student teachers use question answer method during teaching practice.

Table 10

Student teacher uses activity method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	40.0%	.0%	46.2%	50.0%	40.0%	25.0%	29.6%	37.0%	33.8%
No	60.0%	100.0%	53.8%	50.0%	60.0%	75.0%	70.4%	63.0%	66.2%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 40% male student teachers from the Punjab, 0% from the N W F P, 46.2% from the Sindh and 50% from Balochistan use activity method. On the other hand from the female student teachers 40% from the Punjab, 25% from the NWFP and 29.6% from the Sindh use activity method. So on the over all 37% male student teachers and 33.8% female student teachers use activity method during teaching practice.

Table 11

Student teacher uses bookish method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	.0%	12.5%	.0%	30.0%	22.9%	33.3%	29.6%	8.7%	27.0%
No	100.0%	87.5%	100.0%	70.0%	77.1%	66.7%	70.4%	91.3%	73.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 0% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the

N W F P, 0% from the Sindh and 30% from Balochistan use bookish method. On the other hand from the female student teachers 22.9% from the Punjab, 33.3% from the NWFP and 29.6% from the Sindh use bookish method. So on the over all 8.7% male student teachers and 27% female student teachers use bookish method during teaching practice.

Table 12

Student teacher uses problem solving method

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	6.7%	12.5%	.0%	.0%	2.9%	8.3%	7.4%	4.3%	5.4%
No	93.3%	87.5%	100.0%	100.0%	97.1%	91.7%	92.6%	95.7%	94.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 6.7% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P, 0% from the Sindh and 0% from Balochistan use problem solving method. On the other hand from the female student teachers 2.9% from the Punjab, 8.3% from the NWFP and 7.4% from the Sindh use problem solving method. So on the over all 4.3% male student teachers and 5.4% female student teachers use problem solving method during teaching practice.

Table 13

Student teacher has the attitude of experimentation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	20.0%	37.5%	15.4%	20.0%	31.4%	58.3%	40.7%	21.7%	39.2%
No	80.0%	62.5%	84.6%	80.0%	68.6%	41.7%	59.3%	78.3%	60.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 20% male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P, 15.4% from the Sindh and 20% from Balochistan have the attitude of experimentation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 31.4% from the Punjab, 58.3% from the NWFP and 40.7% from the Sindh have the attitude of experimentation. So on the over all 21.7% male student teachers and 39.2% female student teachers have the attitude of experimentation during teaching practice.

Table 14

Student teacher has the attitude of observation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	80.0%	62.5%	84.6%	60.0%	77.1%	83.3%	80.0%	73.9%	75.7%
No	20.0%	37.5%	15.4%	40.0%	22.9%	16.7%	20.0%	26.1%	24.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The table shows that 80% male student teachers from the Punjab, 62.5% from the N W F P, 84.6% from the Sindh and 60% from Balochistan have the attitude of observation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 77.1% from the Punjab, 83.3% from the NWFP and 80% from the Sindh have the attitude of observation. So on the over all 73.9% male student teachers and 75.7% female student teachers have the attitude of observation during teaching practice.

Table 15

Student teacher uses the method according to the situation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	53.3%	37.5%	61.5%	40.0%	65.7%	83.3%	59.3%	50.0%	66.2%
No	46.7%	62.5%	38.5%	60.0%	34.3%	16.7%	40.7%	50.0%	33.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 53.3% male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P, 61.5% from the Sindh and 40% from Balochistan use method according to the situation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 65.7% from the Punjab, 83.3% from the NWFP and 59.3% from the Sindh use method according to the situation. So on the over all 50% male student teachers and 66.2% female student teachers use method according to the situation during teaching practice.

Table 16

Student teacher has the confidence to face the situation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	80.0%	100.0%	76.9%	100.0%	88.6%	91.7%	96.3%	87.0%	91.9%
No	20.0%	.0%	23.1%	.0%	11.4%	8.3%	3.7%	13.0%	8.1%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is found that 80% male student teachers from the Punjab, 100% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 100% from Balochistan have the confidence to face the situation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 88.6% from the Punjab, 91.7% from the NWFP and 96.3%

from the Sindh have the confidence to face the situation. So on the over all 87% male student teachers and 91.9% female student teachers have the confidence to face the situation during teaching practice.

Table 17
Student teacher makes charts

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	93.3%	62.5%	92.3%	100.0%	94.3%	100.0%	92.6%	89.1%	94.6%
No	6.7%	37.5%	7.7%	.0%	5.7%	.0%	7.4%	10.9%	5.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The table shows that 80% male student teachers from the Punjab, 100% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 100% from Balochistan have the confidence to face the situation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 88.6% from the Punjab, 91.7% from the NWFP and 96.3% from the Sindh have the confidence to face the situation. So on the over all 87% male student teachers and 91.9% female student teachers have the confidence to face the situation during teaching practice.

Table 18
Student teacher makes models

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	20.0%	12.5%	23.1%	20.0%	45.7%	100.0%	51.9%	19.6%	56.8%
No	80.0%	87.5%	76.9%	80.0%	54.3%	.0%	48.1%	80.4%	43.2%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 20% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P, 23.1% from the Sindh and 20% from Balochistan make models. On the other hand from the female student teachers 45.7% from the Punjab, 100% from the NWFP and 51.9% from the Sindh make models. So on the over all 19.6% male student teachers and 56.8% female student teachers make models during teaching practice.

Table 19
Student teacher make flip charts

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	.0%	.0%	.0%	50.0%	37.1%	66.7%	48.1%	10.9%	45.9%
No	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	50.0%	62.9%	33.3%	51.9%	89.1%	54.1%

Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
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It is evident from the above table that 50% male student teachers from Balochistan make flip charts. On the other hand from the female student teachers 37.1% from the Punjab, 66.7% from the NWFP and 48.1% from the Sindh make flip charts. So on the over all 10.9% male student teachers and 45.9% female student teachers make flip charts during teaching practice.

Table 20

Student teacher makes picture

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	26.7%	75.0%	23.1%	60.0%	54.3%	91.7%	74.1%	41.3%	67.6%
No	73.3%	25.0%	76.9%	40.0%	45.7%	8.3%	25.9%	58.7%	32.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 26.7% male student teachers from the Punjab, 75% from the N W F P, 23.1% from the Sindh and 60% from Balochistan make pictures. On the other hand from the female student teachers 54.3% from the Punjab, 91.7% from the NWFP and 74.1% from the Sindh make pictures. So on the over all 41.3% male student teachers and 67.6% female student teachers make pictures during teaching practice.

Table 21

Student teacher teaches according to the lesson plan

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	80.0%	94.3%	100.0%	92.6%	95.7%	94.6%
No	.0%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	5.7%	.0%	7.4%	4.3%	5.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that all the male student teachers from the Punjab, the N W F P and the Sindh, while 80% male student teachers from Balochistan teach according to the lesson plan. On the other hand from the female student teachers 94.3% from Punjab, 100% from the NWFP and 92.6% from the Sindh teach according to the lesson plan. So on the over all 95.7% male student teachers and 94.6% female student teachers teach according to the lesson plan during teaching practice.

Table 22

Student teacher relates the previous knowledge of the students to the current topic

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female

Yes	86.7%	100.0%	84.6%	60.0%	80.0%	91.7%	81.5%	82.6%	82.4%
No	13.3%	.0%	15.4%	40.0%	20.0%	8.3%	18.5%	17.4%	17.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 86.7% male student teachers from the Punjab, 100% from the N W F P, 84.6% from the Sindh and 60% from Balochistan relate the previous knowledge of the students to the current topic. On the other hand from the female student teachers 80% from the Punjab, 91.7% from the NWFP and 81.5% from the Sindh relate the previous knowledge of the students to the current topic. So on the over all 82.6% male student teachers and 82.4% female student teachers relate the previous knowledge of the students to the current topic during teaching practice.

Table 23

Student teacher tests the previous knowledge of the students.

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	90.0%	97.1%	100.0%	96.3%	97.8%	97.3%
No	.0%	.0%	.0%	10.0%	2.9%	.0%	3.7%	2.2%	2.7%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that all the male student teachers from the Punjab, the N W F P and the Sindh, while 90% male student teachers from Balochistan test the previous knowledge of the students. On the other hand from the female student teachers 97.1% from Punjab, 100% from the NWFP and 96.3% from the Sindh tests the previous knowledge of the students. So on the over all 97.8% male student teachers and 97.3% female student teachers test the previous knowledge of the students during teaching practice.

Table 24

Student teacher knows the objectives of the lesson being taught by her/him

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	97.1%	91.7%	96.3%	100.0%	95.9%
No	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	2.9%	8.3%	3.7%	.0%	4.1%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

This table explains that all the male student teachers from the Punjab, the N W F P and the Sindh and Balochistan student teacher knows the objectives of the lesson being taught by them. On the other hand from the female student teachers 97.1% from Punjab, 91.7% from the NWFP and 96.3% from the Sindh know the objectives of the lesson being taught by them. So on the over all 100% male student teachers and 94.6% female student teachers know the objectives of the lesson being taught her/him during teaching practice.

Table 25

Student teacher makes the partial recapitulation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	73.3%	25.0%	84.6%	50.0%	62.9%	50.0%	44.4%	63.0%	54.1%
No	26.7%	75.0%	15.4%	50.0%	37.1%	50.0%	55.6%	37.0%	45.9%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Findings as tabulated here illustrate that 73.3% male student teachers from the Punjab, 25% from the N W F P, 84.6% from the Sindh and 50% from Balochistan make the partial recapitulation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 62.9% from the Punjab, 50% from the NWFP and 44.4% from the Sindh make the partial recapitulation. So on the over all 63% male student teachers and 54.1% female student teachers make the partial recapitulation during teaching practice.

Table 26

Student teacher makes the final recapitulation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	66.7%	12.5%	76.9%	30.0%	54.3%	41.7%	33.3%	52.2%	44.6%
No	33.3%	87.5%	23.1%	70.0%	45.7%	58.3%	66.7%	47.8%	55.4%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 66.7% male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 30% from Balochistan make the final recapitulation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 54.3% from the Punjab, 41.7% from the NWFP and 33.3% from the Sindh make the final recapitulation. So on the over all 52.2% male student teachers and 44.6% female student teachers make the final recapitulation during teaching practice.

Table 27

Student teacher invites the questions from the students

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Balochista n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	93.3%	75.0%	92.3%	90.0%	88.6%	83.3%	85.2%	89.1%	86.5%
No	6.7%	25.0%	7.7%	10.0%	11.4%	16.7%	14.8%	10.9%	13.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The table shows that 93.3 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 75% from the N W F P, 92.3% from the Sindh and 90% from Balochistan invite questions from the students/pupils. On the

other hand from the female student teachers 88.6% from the Punjab, 83.3% from the NWFP and 85.2% from the Sindh invite questions from the students/pupils. So on the over all 89.1% male student teachers and 86.5% female student teachers invite questions from the students/pupils during teaching practice.

Table 28

Student teachers moves around the class while teaching.

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	66.7%	75.0%	69.2%	60.0%	54.3%	41.7%	51.9%	67.4%	51.4%
No	33.3%	25.0%	30.8%	40.0%	45.7%	58.3%	48.1%	32.6%	48.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 66.7 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 75% from the N W F P, 69.2% from the Sindh and 60% from Balochistan move around the class while teaching. On the other hand from the female student teachers 54.3% from the Punjab, 41.7% from the NWFP and 51.9% from the Sindh move around the class while teaching. So on the over all 67.4% male student teachers and 51.4% female student teachers move around the class while teaching during teaching practice.

Table 29

Student teachers complete the topic with in time

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	80.0%	87.5%	76.9%	80.0%	82.9%	83.3%	85.2%	80.4%	83.8%
No	20.0%	12.5%	23.1%	20.0%	17.1%	16.7%	14.8%	19.6%	16.2%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The tabulated findings suggest that 80 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 87.5% from the N W F P, 76.9% from the Sindh and 80% from Balochistan complete topics with in time. On the other hand from the female student teachers 82.9% from the Punjab, 83.3% from the NWFP and 85.2% from the Sindh complete topics with in time. So on the over all 80.4% male student teachers and 83.8% female student teachers complete topics with in time during teaching practice.

Table 30

Student teachers relate the situation /topic with real life situation

	Male				Female			Over All	
	Balochista								
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	66.7%	37.5%	69.2%	30.0%	42.9%	41.7%	33.3%	54.3%	39.2%
No	33.3%	62.5%	30.8%	70.0%	57.1%	58.3%	66.7%	45.7%	60.8%

Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
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It is evident from the above table that 66.7 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P, 69.2% from the Sindh and 30% from Balochistan relate the situation/topic with real life situation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 42.9% from the Punjab, 41.7% from the NWFP and 33.3% from the Sindh relate the situation/topic with real life situation. So on the over all 54.3% male student teachers and 39.2% female student teachers relate the situation/topic with real life situation during teaching practice.

Table 31

Student teachers relate the situation /topic with daily life situation.

Male					Female			Over All	
Balochista									
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	73.3%	37.5%	76.9%	20.0%	42.9%	41.7%	29.6%	56.5%	37.8%
No	26.7%	62.5%	23.1%	80.0%	57.1%	58.3%	70.4%	43.5%	62.2%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 73.3 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P 76.9% from the Sindh and 20% from Balochistan relate the situation/topic with daily life situation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 42.9% from the Punjab, 41.7% from the NWFP and 29.6% from the Sindh relate the situation/topic with daily life situation. So on the over all 56.5% male student teachers and 37.8% female student teachers relate the situation/topic with daily life situation during teaching practice.

Table 32

Student teachers give example from the daily life

Male					Female			Over All	
Balochista									
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	Male	Female
Yes	80.0%	87.5%	76.9%	60.0%	62.9%	58.3%	63.0%	76.1%	62.2%
No	20.0%	12.5%	23.1%	40.0%	37.1%	41.7%	37.0%	23.9%	37.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 80 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 87.5% from the N W F P 76.9% from the Sindh and 60% from Balochistan give examples from daily life. On the other hand from the female student teachers 62.9% from the Punjab, 58.3% from the NWFP and 63% from the Sindh give examples from daily life. So on the over all 76.1% male student teachers and 62.2% female student teachers give examples from daily life during teaching practice.

Table 33

Student teachers apply formative evaluation techniques

Male					Female			Over All	
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	Balochista								Male	Female
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh			
Yes	73.3%	37.5%	76.9%	70.0%	68.6%	58.3%	59.3%		67.4%	63.5%
No	26.7%	62.5%	23.1%	30.0%	31.4%	41.7%	40.7%		32.6%	36.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%

It is evident from the above table that 73.3 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 37.5% from the N W F P 76.9% from the Sindh and 70% from Balochistan apply formative evaluation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 68.6% from the Punjab, 58.3% from the NWFP and 59.3% from the Sindh apply formative evaluation. So on the over all 67.4% male student teachers and 63.5% female student apply formative evaluation during teaching practice.

Table 34

Student teachers apply summative evaluation techniques

	Male				Female				Over All	
	Balochista									
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh		Male	Female
Yes	80.0%	50.0%	92.3%	40.0%	60.0%	41.7%	40.7%		69.6%	50.0%
No	20.0%	50.0%	7.7%	60.0%	40.0%	58.3%	59.3%		30.4%	50.0%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%

This table shows that 80 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 50% from the N W F P 92.3% from the Sindh and 40% from Balochistan apply summative evaluation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 60% from the Punjab, 41.7% from the NWFP and 40.7% from the Sindh apply summative evaluation. So on the over all 69.6% male student teachers and 50% female student apply summative evaluation during teaching practice.

Table 35

Student teachers apply diagnostic evaluation techniques

	Male				Female				Over All	
	Balochista									
	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh	n	Punjab	N W F P	Sindh		Male	Female
Yes	6.7%	12.5%	0%	0%	8.6%	25.0%	14.8%		4.3%	13.5%
No	93.3%	87.5%	100.0%	100.0%	91.4%	75.0%	85.2%		95.7%	86.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%

The tabulated findings suggest that 6.7 % male student teachers from the Punjab, 12.5% from the N W F P apply diagnostic evaluation. On the other hand from the female student teachers 8.6% from the Punjab, 25% from the NWFP and 14.8% from the Sindh apply diagnostic evaluation. So on the over all 4.3% male student teachers and 13.5% female student teachers apply diagnostic evaluation during teaching practice.

Conclusions

It is concluded from the table that all male and female student teachers from all the provinces prepare lesson plans during their teaching practice (Table: 1). It can be said that all the teachers prepare their lessons during teaching practice.

It is indicated from the table that all male student teachers from all provinces have ability to manage their classes except Blochistan where only 60% male teachers are able to manage their classes. Majority of female student teachers have ability to manage their classes during teaching practice in all three provinces. Overall majority of student teachers can manage their classes during teaching practice. (Table: 2)

All male and female Student teachers from all the provinces do not use team teaching during their teaching practice (Table: 3)

It is concluded from the table that all male and female student teachers (100%) do not use microteaching during their teaching practice (Table: 4).

As far computer assisted learning is concerned no male student teacher from all the provinces adopts this technique during their teaching practice except NWFP where only a small number of student teachers (12.5%) use this technique. Like wise no female student teachers use this technique in any province except Punjab and Sindh where that number of student teachers is very less, only 2.9% and 3.7% respectively. Overall it is concluded that only a very low %age (2.2% Male, 2.7% Female) of student teachers use this technique during their teaching practice (Table: 5).

It is evident from the results that in all the four provinces male student teachers are not using computer assisted instruction during their teaching practice except a small number of teachers as: 2.0% to 5% in all four provinces. On the other hand no female student teacher is using this technique during teaching practice except 2.2% to 2.5% in Punjab and Sindh respectively. Overall it is concluded that only a few number of student teachers use computer assisted instruction during teaching practice (Table: 6).

A large number of male student teachers adopt lecture method during teaching practice except NWFP where only 37% teachers use this method and others use some alternative method. On the other hand most of the female student teachers use lecture method in all provinces but in Sindh this %age is less than others where 25% student teachers use other than lecture methods during their teaching. In overall situation female student teachers are using lecture method more than male student teachers during teaching practice (Table: 7).

It is evident from the results that only a small number of male student teachers use discussion method during their teaching practice except Balochistan where this ratio is 50%. On the other hand most of the female student teachers are not using discussion method. Overall female student teachers are greater in number than male in using discussion method .as only 26% male teachers are using this method and 36.5% female student teachers have ability to conduct discussion sessions in their class rooms during teaching practice (Table: 8).

Most of the male student teachers use question answer method in all the provinces except NWFP

where most of the student teachers (87%) do not use this method. On the other hand only in Punjab 54% female student teachers are using question answer method and in other provinces most of the female student teachers do not use this method. Overall male student teachers are greater in number (60.9%) than female student teachers in using question answer method during teaching practice (Table: 9).

Most of the male student teachers use activity method except NWFP where no student teacher uses it. On the other hand most of the female student teachers are not using this method. Overall male student teachers are more in number (37%) to use activity method than female teachers (33.8%). (Table: 10)

Almost all male student teachers use other than bookish method. Only 12% in NWFP and 30% in Balochistan use this method. On the other hand only few numbers of female student teachers are using bookish method during teaching practice in all provinces. Overall female student teachers are greater in number (27.0%) to use bookish method than male teachers (8.7%). (Table: 11)

All the male student teachers do not use problem solving method except few numbers of teachers in NWFP and Punjab. On the other hand almost all the female student teachers in all provinces are using other than problem solving method. Overall only few male and female student teachers are using problem solving method during teaching practice (Table: 12).

As far attitude of experimentation is concerned only a small number of male student teachers in all provinces have this attitude except NWFP where this attitude of experimentation in teachers is more than other provinces. Most of the female student teachers have attitude of experimentation and this number is greater in NWFP than other provinces. Overall there is a great difference between both the genders. Female are greater in number than male teachers. Results also show that in NWFP both male and female student teachers have this attitude more than other provinces (Table: 13).

A great %age of male and female student teachers have attitude of observation in all provinces except NWFP where male student teachers have less attitude towards observation. Overall it is concluded that only 25% male and female student teachers do not have this attitude (Table: 14).

Most of the student teachers have ability to use the method according to the situation except in NWFP where male student teachers have problem to use the method according to the situation. Overall more than 50% male and female student teachers have ability to use method according to the situation during teaching practice (Table: 15).

Almost all male and female student teachers have confidence to face the situations except Punjab and Sindh where few teachers have not confidence to face the situations. Overall female student teachers (92%) have more confidence than male teachers (87.0%) to face the situations during teaching practice (Table: 16).

Almost all male and female student teachers make charts in all provinces during their teaching practice except NWFP where 37% male teachers are not using charts. Overall female student teachers (94.6%) are using more charts than male teachers (89.1%). (Table: 17).

As far models are concerned only a small number of male teachers are making models in all provinces. On the other hand most of the female student teachers are making models during teaching practice and in NWFP all female teachers are making their teaching effective by using models. Overall there is a great difference between male and female student teachers. Female teachers are greater in number than male teachers which is more than 50% of female teachers and male teacher %age is only 20 %. (Table: 18).

It is evident from the result that not a single male student teacher is using flip charts during teaching practice in all provinces except Balochistan where 50% teachers use flip charts. On the other hand most of the female student teachers are using flip charts in all provinces except Punjab where only 37% teachers are using charts. Overall there is a great difference in using flip charts between male and female teachers as 46% female teachers are using charts than male (11%). (Table: 19).

In NWFP and Balochistan most of the male student teachers are making pictures during teaching practice and in Punjab and Sindh only a small number of teachers are making pictures. On the other hand great number of female student teachers (74%-92%) in two provinces is making pictures except in Punjab where this number is less than other provinces. Overall female student teachers are more interested to make pictures than male teachers. (Table: 20).

Almost all male and female student teachers teach according to the lesson plans in all provinces except Balochistan where only 20% of the teachers do not teach according to the plans. In overall situation up to 96% male and female student teachers teach according to the plans. There is a minor difference between both the genders (Table: 21).

Most of the male and female student teachers relate previous knowledge of the students to the current topic in Sindh and Punjab but in NWFP all male teachers do that and in Balochistan this percentage of male student teachers is lower than other provinces. Overall male and female students are equal to relate previous knowledge of the students to the current topic (Table: 22).

It is revealed from the table that almost all male and female student teachers test the previous knowledge of the students before teaching. Only 10% of the male teachers are not doing that. Overall male and female student teachers are equal to use this technique in classroom during teaching practice (Table: 23).

All male student teachers are well aware of the objectives of the lesson in all provinces and on the other hand almost all female student teachers also keep in mind the objective of the lesson being taught by her. Overall there is a small difference between male and female student teachers regarding keeping in mind the objectives of the lesson and male teachers are better in this respect (Table: 24).

It is evident by the results that most of male student teachers make partial recapitulation in Punjab and Sindh and this percentage is lower in Balochistan but lowest in NWFP that is only 25%. On the other hand more than 50% of the female teachers make partial recapitulation but this situation is not well in Sindh where only 44.4% teachers recapitulate. Overall there is not much difference in

recapitulation of both the genders but male teachers are better to recapitulate partially their students during teaching practice (Table: 25).

Results indicate that only in Punjab and Sindh most of the male student teachers are making recapitulation during teaching practice but in other two provinces the situation is very poor. On the other hand most of the female teachers are not making final recapitulation except Punjab where more than 50% teachers do the same. Overall it can be said that most of the male teachers are making final recapitulation during teaching practice as compared to female teachers (Table: 26).

Almost all male and female student teachers in all provinces invite their students to question except in NWFP where 25% male teachers do not do the same. On overall situation there is not much difference in both the genders but male teachers invite more students to question than female during teaching practice (Table: 27).

More than 60% male student teachers like to move around the class while teaching in all provinces but on the other hand more than 50% female student teachers move around the class except NWFP where only 42 % female teachers do the same. Overall it is resulted that male student teacher like more to move around class than female teachers during teaching (Table: 28).

Most of the male and female student teachers complete the topic within time in all provinces except Sindh where 23% male student teachers are unable to complete the topic. Overall female student teachers are more efficient to complete the topic within time than male teachers but there is not much difference between the two (Table: 29).

Only in two provinces male student teachers have ability to relate the topic with real life situations but in NWFP and Balochistan only a small number of teachers can do that. On the other hand most of the female student teachers are not able to relate the topic with real life on 30% to 42% can do the same in all provinces. Overall %age of male teacher is more than female teachers who are doing the same activity in class during teaching (Table: 30).

More than 70% male teachers have ability to relate the topic with daily life situations only in two provinces but in others the situation is reverse. On the other hand most of the female student teachers in all provinces especially in Sindh have not ability to relate the topic with daily life situations. Comparatively male teachers are better than female for doing the same (Table: 31).

Results indicate that in all provinces most of the male student teachers are giving examples from the daily life except in Balochistan where 40% male teachers are not doing the same. On the other hand more than 58% to 63% female teachers give examples from daily life during teaching but overall %age of male student teachers (76.1%) is better than female (62.2%) for doing the same (Table: 32).

More than 70% male teachers apply formative evaluation techniques in all provinces except NWFP where 63% teachers are not doing the same. On the other hand more than 40% female teachers in Sindh and NWFP are not using this technique but in Punjab the situation is comparatively better. Overall there is not much difference between both the genders but male student teachers are better in doing the same during teaching as compared to female student

teachers (Table: 33).

In Punjab and Sindh almost all the male student teachers apply summative evaluation technique in teaching but in other two provinces the %age is not very high. On the other hand in Punjab female student teachers are using summative evaluation technique after teaching but in NWFP and Sindh the situation is reverse. Overall results indicate that summative evaluation technique is use by male teachers more than female during teaching (Table: 34).

Male teachers do not apply diagnostic evaluation technique in Sindh and Balochistan only few teachers in Punjab and NWFP apply the same. On the other hand female student teachers are also in the same condition except in NWFP where 25% teachers are applying this technique. Overall only 4% male teachers do the same but female teachers are little bit better than male for doing the same activity in classroom (Table: 35).

Recommendations

Following Recommendations are made on the basis of the findings and conclusions.

- i. Student teachers should be trained in the way to use CAL and CAI
- ii. School Classrooms should be facilitated enough to use computer assisted learning and computer assisted instruction techniques.
- iii. Actual teacher should observe the student teacher time to time in classroom.
- iv. Actual teachers / supervisors should guide the student teacher how to apply different types of evaluation during teaching
- v. Sense of assimilation should be developed in student teachers during their training for how to relate different types of knowledge with different types of life situations.
- vi. Contents of teaching practice should be related to the actual environment of the schools or facilities should be provided according to the contents taught to the student teachers.

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A STUDY OF B.ED. STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET IN VELLORE DISTRICT

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO TAMILNADU TEACHERS
EDUCATION UNIVERSITY, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF**

MASTER OF EDUCATION

By

T. PUSHPANATHAN., M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.

Reg. No: 1292308MD022

**Under the Guidance of
Dr. RATHINASABAPATHY, M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D.**

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Mr. T. PUSHPANATHAN, for the award of **MASTER OF EDUCATION**

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I hereby declare that this dissertation entitled “**A STUDY OF B.Ed., STUDENTS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET IN VELLORE DISTRICT**” submitted to the **TAMILNADU TEACHERS**

Language in India www.languageinindia.com

10 : 11 November 2010

T. Pushpanathan, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.

A Study Of B.Ed. Students’ Attitude Towards Using Internet in Vellore District

EDUCATION UNIVERSITY for the award of the Degree of Master of Education is my original and independent research work under the guidance and supervision of **Dr. RATHINASABAPATHY, M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D** and it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any other Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or other similar title to any candidate of this or any other university.

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INTRODUCTION

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T. Pushpanathan, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.

A Study Of B.Ed. Students' Attitude Towards Using Internet in Vellore District

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Today, information is everything and it forms the part of any progressive thinking. Information is being recorded, published and disseminated through several media, though the print media still dominates. Nowadays, scholar's work requires the application on broader scale of new methods and means of searching, processing, storage and transfer of information. Controlling information has a direct relation with the information explosion, which is one of the ever-growing phenomena in the world.

So, the Government of India's Ministry of Education has recently started implementing a project of Computer education in the country. It has been launched as a pilot project for introducing Computer Literacy and internet knowledge in Schools (class) in collaboration with the Department of Electronics. At the first instance, 250 schools all over the country were brought under the purview of this project and training courses were organized for the teachers in the selected Resource Centres. Gradually all the schools would be covered in a phased manner. This has raised a wave of

discussion in the country why computer in the field of education also? There has very often been hue and cry when computer has entered into the arena of industry, business, banking, examination and so on. It is usually complained that computer will replace the man and unemployment will be rampant as a result of this.

The even expanding field of education among the human race has necessitated a continuous modification and innovation of its technology. The present growth in innovation techniques of teaching and learning had been resulted in such an outburst of explosion of science and technology. Educational researchers have indicated the need for a systematic approach for the effective teaching and learning education literature has emphasized teaching as an art, learning as a scheme, which depends on instructional objectives, appropriate instructional design and proper media selection. The commitment of the teacher and the school to the learner lies on these three key learning resources.

1.2. RESOURCE SHARING

Not all libraries can afford all the resources like journals, book report, etc., due to spiraling costs of information. The way out to disseminate the

required information to the needy is to consider in a best way the concepts like distributed databases, library co-operation, interlibrary loan, resource sharing. Since, computers and telecommunication have entered into libraries, it is possible to achieve maximum result in information dissemination through computer networks.

1.3. ROLE OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES IN EDUCATION

New technologies manage to develop the student's interest in learning activity. Technology can make learning more interactive and enhance the enjoyment to learning and teaching. Technology can individualize and customize the curriculum to match learner's developmental needs as well as personal interests. Technology may transform the educational content and motivate students towards life long learners.

Technology is likely to be more successful when the software, the purpose for instruction and learning objectives matches teachers understanding of learners need, to memorize and respond to predetermined answers. Equally important is an appropriate matching of the levels of student's knowledge and prerequisite skills and expectations of the software.

1.4. DEFINITION OF COMPUTER AND INTERNET

Computer or an electronic data processing machine is one of the greatest innovations of the scientist in the present era. This was originally owned only by the wealthiest industries and now. It has become common equipment, which is used in various organizations for computer and hence it has been taken to the classroom. The western scenario manifests the use of computer in every walk of their daily life needless to emphasize the condition of Indian educational setting, which has a very big constraint of economic recession. However, these constraints have not hindered the introduction of computer in India.

Cambridge International Dictionary of English defines Internet as “large system of many connected computers around the world which people use to communicate with each other”. (Network of networks) The internet knowledge is the knowledge of the basic theoretical aspects of the internal and its practical application.

According to Douglas E. Comer (2003) internet is “the collection of networks and routers that use the TCP/IP protocol suite and function as a single, large network. The internet reaches government, commercial and educational organization around the world.

In the words of Neil Randall (1996) internet is “the global network of networks that are all inter communicable”.

Glee Harrah Cady and Pad McGregor (1995) describes that “internet is a network of network and the internet mostly connects network of computer”.

1.5. UTILIZATION AND APPLICATION INTERNET

The largest wide area network is called the internet. Having originated in the United States as a Department of Defense Network, it now covers the entire world.

The internet was conceived to provide for information exchange between research centres and universities, but it is accessible to every one. For individual users, there are many private services providing access to the internet, as well as online services such as CompuServe and American Online. In India, internet service is provided by VSNL, Dishnet, Manthra Online, Satyam Online, etc.,

The popularity of internet has changed every sphere of human life. With the help of internet we can get information regarding share market position, latest news, weather, examination results, admission status,

employment notifications, college details, university details, company details, subject matters through wikipedia website, global map, sports events, wars between countries, history of great personalities, etc. Online auction, online trading, online shopping, online banking, online teaching, e-commerce, m-commerce are some of the initiatives towards “cashless society” due to the advancement of internet.

1.6. INTERNET IN EDUCATION

Education is a process of changing human behaviour in the desirable direction or helping an individual to bring out his/her best potential. Teaching and learning both work independently but are depended each other for certain specified objectives of teaching and learning. The internet is transporting teachers and students beyond the walls of their classrooms by providing access to people around the world. It is a rich streaming media high band with access and advanced website designing are revolutionizing the educational world.

Internet plays an important role in education, research and development. The student can get all information about his subjects through the relevant websites. (For example, www.wikipedia.org) Because of the

internet, the students can get the application in the internet and apply through online. Nowadays, online learning becomes very popular among college students.

The research students can site the research articles, journals and magazines through the internet. So many libraries have hosted their online services. (IGNOU Library, CIEFL Library, British Council Library, etc.,) The student can borrow the book through the online and return it. For some research articles, the user has to pay certain amount. If he has the debit card, he can site those rated articles for his research.

Free e-books are also available for all subjects in the internet. (www.ebooks.com) Students can download the books if he/she couldn't get it in the shops. Mostly, it will be in the form of text document or ms-word document or PDF format. The student can easily download it and use it.

To access internet, we need a personal computer (PC), a telephone connection, a Modem (Modulator Demodulator) and access to anyone of the ISP (Internet Service Provider) such as VSNL, Mantra Online, Tata Nova. The following are the most commonly used services available with internet:

1. E-mail

2. Voice mail
3. Instant messaging
4. File Transfer
5. Remote Login
6. News Groups
7. Gopher (Downloading information)
8. Video Conferencing

World Wide Web (WWW) and File Transfer Protocol (FTP) are the parts of internet. All computers or resources connected to Internet will have a unique address known URL (Uniform Resource Locator). For example, <http://www.tnfeu.in> is the website address of TAMILNADU TEACHERS EDUCATION UNIVERSITY (TNTEU), Lady Willington College Campus, Kamarajar Salai, Chennai-5. The B.Ed., and M.Ed., students of this university can download the model question papers, exam application specimens, colleges under this university, exam schedule, etc.,

Internet uses TCP/IP protocol. HTTP (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol) is used for data transfer between computers in internet. HTML (Hyper Text Markup Language) is used for creating web pages. Web pages can be easily

created (even without the knowledge of HTML) using FrontPage Express, Adobe Go live, Macromedia Dream Weaver Software.

1.7. INTERNET AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Education system around the world are under increasing pressure to use new technology like internet to teach students the knowledge and skills they need in the 21st century for improving the quality of education through the diversification of contents and methods and promoting experimentation innovation, the diffusion and sharing information and best practice.

With the emerging new technology like internet, the teaching profession is evolving from an emphasis on teacher-centered, lecture base instruction to student centered, interactive learning environments. Designing and implementing successful internet-enabled teacher education programs is the key to fundamental, wide ranging education reforms.

Teacher education institutions are faced with the challenge of preparing a new generation of teacher to effectively use the new learning tools in their teaching practices.

Teacher education institutions may either assumes a leadership role in the transformation of education or be left behind in the swirl of rapid

technological change for education to reap the full benefits of internet in learning. It is essential that pre and in-service teachers are able to effectively use these new tools for learning. Teacher education institutions and programs must provide the leadership for pre and in service teachers and model the new pedagogies and tools for learning.

1.8. APPLICATION OF INTERNET

1. Billions of pages of information are available on the internet on all topics. Hence we can obtain latest and sufficient information on any topic from the internet.
2. Huge number of free softwares (Freeware, shareware, etc.,) are available in the internet. We can download the software and use them at free of cost.
3. We can communicate through e-mail, video mail or voice mail or chat with anyone on the internet.
4. With the help of Telnet we can connect two remote computers to and from a network.

5. By subscribing to newsgroups, we can get latest news on the topics in which we are interested.
6. We can buy or sell things without directly meeting the clients.
7. We can obtain examination results, recruitment results, etc., in the internet.
8. We can also get the latest events and issues of Tamilnadu Teachers Education University through its corresponding website.
9. Nowadays, in internet, we have the storage facilities in some browsing websites like Google, Yahoo, Rediffmail, etc.,
You can also store your files (Photos, documents, videos, etc) in your mail id.
10. Internet is also used for matrimonial services, placement services, advertisements, etc.,
11. Leading newspapers/journals are also published on the internet.

1.9. ORIGIN OF INTERNET

In 1969, the US Department of Defense created a network called the ARPANET (Advanced Research Project Agency). Due to enormous increase

in the use of ARPA net for non-military purposes, the US Department of Defense created an exclusively military network called MILNET. A few years later National Science Foundation formed the NSF net, similar but faster than ARPA net which linked together NSF researches. At that time there were no personal computers. The model, the big mainframe sat at the center of a starfish-link system with a dumb terminal (a CRT and a keyboard) at the tip of each tentacle.

Internet is network of computers that offers information and access to people. The word “internet” was coined from the word “interconnection” and “network”. Such network of networks is called internet.

1.10. INTERNET, THE INFORMATION SUPER HIGHWAY

Internet is a collection of networks, a giant agreement among thousands of computer systems to connect together. According to Glee Harrah Cady and Pat McGregor (1995), internet is a network of networks. It contains:

- ❖ Government computers, owned by nations throughout the world.

- ❖ Computers run by hundreds of different Universities and schools.
- ❖ Systems belonging to non-profit organizations those just want to bring online computing to the people.
- ❖ Computers owned by commercial enterprises that make money by providing people with access to this amazing interconnected system.
- ❖ The internet connects millions of people throughout the world, from Russia to Rhode Island, Austria to Australia. Once on this fantastic system, we will know where we are going and how to get there. We can cruise around in Cyberspace, traveling from computer to computer, continent to continent.

1.11. INTERNET CONNECTION

There are basically four types of internet connection. These are:

i) Permanent Connection, ii) Dial-in Direct Connection, iii) Dial-in Terminal Connection and iv) Mail Connection.

- i. **Permanent Connection:** In this connection, computers of many users are connected directly to one particular computer, which in

turn permanently connected to the internet. This is the best type of connection but it costs very high.

- ii. **Dial-in Terminal Connection:** Many service providers have dial-in terminal accounts. The clients computer acts as if it were a host on the internet. For instance, files that he copies from other computers are sent directly to his computer, not to be service, provides computer. This is the second best type of connection, but it can be expensive and complicated to set up.
- iii. **Dial-in Terminal Connection:** Many service providers have dial-in terminal accounts. The client dials across the phone lines, but his computer does not appear to be connected to the internet directly; it is just a terminal connected to the service provider's host computer. For instance, when he copies files from a computer. He has to transfer back to his own computer, using his communication program's host computer. He has to transfer back to his own computer, using his communication program's data transfer commands. These are often known as dial-up or interactive connections.

- iv. **Mail Connection:** Some internet users have only mail access to the internet. They can send and receive mail only. However, it is possible to use many of the internet's special features "through the mail", but it is very complicated and it requires plenty of practice.

1.12. EQUIPMENT REQUIRED FOR INTERNET CONNECTIVITY

In order to connect the client's computer to the internet, he needs the following equipments.

- An internet account
- A computer
- A modem
- Simple communication software
- Communications parameter information
- A login name
- A password

1.13. COMMUNICATION AND NETWORKS

Network is a generic term. Several computers connected together are called a computer network. A network is a system of computer and related equipment connected by communication links to share data.

- To provide sharing of resources such as information or processors.
- To provide inter-process communication among users and processors.
- To provide centralized control for a geographically distributed system.
- To provide network users with maximum performance at minimum cost.

TYPES OF NETWORKS

In a successful distributed database environment connectivity and networking plays a vital role. There are so many types of networks.

- Local Area Networks – LAN
- Metropolitan Area Networks – MAN
- Wide Area Networks – WAN
- Wireless Networks
- Intranet

1.14. ADVANTAGES OF INTERNET

Free software: Most popular web browsers are providing free downloadable softwares. (For example, www.freesoftware.com) But few types of software like Microsoft Office, Adobe Photoshop CS2, and Adobe Acrobat 7 Professional are not available for free of cost.

Geographical independence: Learners virtually anywhere can access such courses, obtaining truly distributed learning.

Temporal independence: Learners can work at their own pace, and when they feel it is convenient to do so.

Increased learner centeredness: It allows the learners to work at their own pace on some of the material, and encourages them to explore on their own.

Ease of use: Because they are on a browser, they tend to be fairly easy to use. The program must be easy for both the instructor and the learners. This allows less time to be used on usage instructions and more time to be used on course content.

Up-to-date courses: Because the internet is constantly changing and new courses are being introduced, updating courses is required.

Everything is digital: Since all works are sent over e-mail, instructions are able to deal with students work in an easy manner. And since everything is typed they are no longer faced with the challenge of deciphering handwriting.

Dynamic updates: The material can be dramatically changed as needed causing less risk of obsolete content.

Additional information: By using hyperlinks, additional materials can be added very easily.

Reusability: Instructors can reuse their own material or easily get material from others.

Future growth: Instructors who wish to add to a course can easily do so.

Ease of communication: Instructors can communicate with learners in a variety of ways – many of which can be downloaded for free and fairly easy to integrate into existing web pages.

1.15. DISADVANTAGES OF INTERNET

Reliance on information system provider: Institutions depend on these providers to ensure that courses can be offered online and distributed to learners.

High speed internet connections: High speed internet connections are required between the organization and their service provider. In addition, for best results, learners need high speed modem pools available which can be expensive.

Instructor training: Instructors must go through extensive training if institutions wish to fully embrace distance learning courses, and have individuals who will be developing these courses.

Lack of standards: Because there are so many ways to organize the distance learning courses, institutions must make sure that they do not design all courses the same, because particular designs or tools can become obsolete.

Support infrastructures: Institutions willing to offer a significant number of courses must have solid support. This includes, backups ensuring that maintenance will not disrupt learners or instructors and individuals will be available to provide support for learners and instructors.

Implementation and operational costs: A substantial personal is needed for developing, maintaining and supporting such courses, in addition to networking.

Reliance on information service provider: Internet providers are not always available and in working order. Systems can be down allowing an instructor to instruct.

Increased co-ordination: The organization and coordination of a course, such as incorporating communications etc., the initial coordination has a tendency to be quite time consuming.

Digital material required: Materials such as verbal discussions and diagrams must be converted to digital information. Instructors may find that the coordination of material takes quite a bit of time.

Viruses: Instructors are at a great risk of contracting viruses while exchanging materials with learners.

HTML knowledge required: Instructors who develop their own web based material must have some HTML knowledge, however, they can use helpful programs such as dream weaver to help to ease the process dependence of course developer. Instructors who do not want to create their

own web page have to rely on others when they need updates, or problem resolutions.

Copyright issues: Instructors must pay close attention to where they got their information, since it will be published on the web. They must give credit to all sources. As well, there is the question of whom the material belongs to, the designer or the institution. Most of the time the institution gets rights and the designer has a possibility of being exploited.

1.16. HISTORY OF INTERNETWORKING

The first networks were time-sharing networks that used mainframes and attached terminals. Such environments were implemented by both IBM's Systems Network Architecture (SNA) and Digital network architecture.

Local Area Networks (LAN) evolved around the PC revolution. LANs enabled multiple users in a relatively small geographical area to exchange files and messages, as well as access shared resources such as file servers and printers.

Wide Area Networks (WAN) interconnect LANs with geographically dispersed users to create connectivity. Some of the technologies used for

connecting LANs include T1, T3, ATM, ISDN, ADSL, frame relay, ratio links, and others. New methods of connecting dispersed LANs are appearing everyday.

Today, high-speed LANs and switched internet works are becoming widely used, largely because they operate at very high speeds and support such high-band width applications as multimedia and videoconferencing.

1.17. ATTITUDE

An emotional reaction towards a person or thing is usually designated as an 'Attitude'. It is actually a personal response to an object, developed through experience which can be called favourable or unfavourable. Attitude may be towards concrete or abstract things. Attitude is defined in different ways by many psychologists. According to Cantrill (1934), "Attitude is more or less a permanent enduring state of readiness of mental organization which predisposes an individual to react in a characteristic way to any subject or situation with which it is related".

According to Morgan (1934), "Attitudes are literally mental postures, a guide for conduct to which each new experience is referred before a

response is made”. Thus attitude may be regarded as a readiness or preparation for response.

Sarnoff (1960) observed that attitude is a “disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects”. The attitude object may be either concrete or abstract.

In the words of Edwards (1969), “An attitude may be defined as learned emotional response set for or against something”.

According to Anne (1976), “Attitude is defined as a tendency to react favourably or unfavourably towards a designated class of stimuli such as national or racial group, a custom or an institution”.

Petrovsky and Yaroshevsky (1985), writes on attitude as “a subject’s readiness or predisposition in anticipation of a definite object (or situation)”.

According to Woodsworth (1989), “Attitudes are a more or less state set or disposition of opinion, interest or purpose, involving expectancy of a certain kind of previous experience and readiness is an appropriate response”.

1.18. ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET

It may be defined as learned emotional response set for or against the use of internet.

SCIENCE

The B.Ed., students studied Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, Botany, and Zoology as their major subject.

ARTS

The B.Ed., students studied Social Science, Commerce and Economics as their major subject.

LANGUAGE

The B.Ed., students studied Tamil and English as their major subjects.

GRADUATE

The B.Ed., students who have the Bachelor Degree in their major subjects.

POST GRADUATE

The B.Ed., students who have the Master Degree in their major subjects.

1.19. NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The planet earth is experiencing the impact of the development and products of science and technology. One of its main contributions is computer. The introduction of computers in the 1950s to process data has led to many changes in office, practice in officer, shops and schools as well as in large industrial and commercial organization. The computers occupy a key role in our day to day life. It is known fact that no field is untouched by computers. Unless one has the ability to make use of computers in the respective fields, he / she is considered to be an illiterate, even though he / she is educated. Otherwise he / she is known as an educated illiterate in the modern era. Even though, having a computer is considered to be a status symbol and many are posing, as if they are using the computers effectively. They do not possess adequate knowledge about computers and their operating procedures. It is because of the fact, that many people are very much afraid of operating the computers, as the operations involve many technical terms or jargons. Therefore, on many occasions they keep themselves a little away from computer circle, even though the computers have a lot of applications and user friendly in nature. If any one is having a favourable attitude towards computer, then he / she may be tempted to make

use of the computer and thereby he / she can gain knowledge about the computer. So, it is a felt need to study the attitude of people towards using internet. Therefore an attempt has been made to find out the B.Ed., students' attitude towards using internet because the B.Ed., students would be teachers, who are going to shape entire modern community.

1.20. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem selected for the study may be stated as “A Study of B.Ed., Students' Attitude towards Using Internet”.

By undertaking this problem to study, we can find the B.Ed., students' attitude towards internet, gender, locality, subject, qualification and marital status.

1.21. DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

ATTITUDE

Attitude is more or less permanent enduring state of readiness of mental organization which predisposes an individual to react in a characteristic way to any subject or situation with which it is related.

Attitude is a set of complex feelings, fears, convictions, prejudices or other emotional tendencies that give an individual readiness to act because of his varied experiences.

1.22. OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

Attitude towards using internet is, the score which is going to be got by administers (Tools) using Internet Attitude Scale (IAS).

SCIENCE

The B.Ed., students studied Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, Botany, and Zoology as their major subject.

ARTS

The B.Ed., students studied Social Science, Commerce and Economics as their major subject.

LANGUAGE

The B.Ed., students studied Tamil and English as their major subjects.

GRADUATE

The B.Ed., students who have the Bachelor Degree in their major subjects.

POST GRADUATE

The B.Ed., students who have the Master Degree in their major subjects.

1.23. OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The following are the objectives of the present study “A Study of B.Ed., Students’ Attitude towards Using Internet”.

To study

- i. The extent to which the B.Ed., students are favourably or unfavourably disposed towards using internet.
- ii. The difference, if any, between Male and Female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii. The difference, if any, among Science, Arts and Language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- iv. The difference, if any, between Graduate and Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- v. The difference, if any, between Married and Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi. The difference, if any, between Male Science and Female Science students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vii. The difference, if any, between Male Arts and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- viii. The difference, if any, between Male Language and Female Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix. The difference, if any, between Male Graduate and Female Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- x. The difference, if any, between Male Post Graduate and Female Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- xi. The difference, if any, between Male Married and Female Married students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xii. The difference, if any, between Male Unmarried and Female Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiii. The difference, if any, between the Graduate students belonging to urban area and graduate students belonging to rural area in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiv. The difference, if any, between the Post Graduate students belonging to urban area and Post Graduate students belonging to rural area in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

1.24. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The following hypotheses have been formulated.

- i. There is significant difference between Male and Female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- ii. There is significant difference among Science, Arts and Language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii. There is significant difference between Graduate and Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iv. There is significant difference between Married and Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- v. There is significant difference between Male Science and Female Science students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi. There is significant difference between Male Arts and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vii. There is significant difference between Male Language and Female Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- viii. There is significant difference between Male Graduate and Female Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix. There is significant difference between Male Post Graduate and Female Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- x. There is significant difference between Male Married and Female Married students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xi. There is significant difference between Male Unmarried and Female Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

1.25. METHOD OF THE STUDY

In the present study, normative survey method is employed to describe and interpret what exists at present. It involves some types of comparison or contrast and attempts to discover the relationship between

existing non-manipulated variables. The normative study to educational problems is one of the most commonly used approaches. It is described in the Chapter – III of this dissertation.

1.26. SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

In the present study, sample was selected as the B.Ed., students from Vellore District. The data were collected from 250 students from five Education colleges, which were selected at random.

1.27. TOOL USED IN THE STUDY

The tool used in the study was constructed and validated by Nickell G.S. and Pinto J.N. (1986). The detailed description of the tool is given in the Chapter – III of this thesis.

1.28. DELIMITATION

Even though the investigator tried his best to make the study as successful as possible there are certain limitations. They are:

1. The Sample for the study is not a state-wide sample but confined to selected colleges of Vellore District only.
2. The study has been conducted on the students belonging to one educational level, that is, B.Ed., only.

1.29. A BRIEF RESUME OF THE SUCCEEDING CHAPTERS

A review of related studies has been presented in Chapter – II

Chapter – III contains the description of the sample selected, the tool used and the statistical techniques employed in this study.

The analysis and interpretation of data are given in the Chapter – IV.

Chapter – V contains the summary of important findings, suggestions for further study and conclusion.

Bibliography follows Chapter – V. Appendix containing a copy of the tool used for the study is given after the bibliography.

CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Language in India www.languageinindia.com

10 : 11 November 2010

T. Pushpanathan, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.

A Study Of B.Ed. Students' Attitude Towards Using Internet in Vellore District

The review of literature enables the researcher to know what is known so far and what is unknown. It helps in conceptualizing the problem, conducting the study and interpreting the findings. It provides the background for the development of the present study and brings the investigator who ignores prior research and theory, chances pursuing a trivial problem duplicating a study already done, or reporting others mistakes exists. The goal of research contributing to the knowledge base of the field may then never be realized. Review of related literature is a very important one to provide an insight into the problem, to familiarize the researcher with the studies previously done and to make the researcher to adopt suitable design.

The aim of this chapter is to record briefly the findings of a few research studies conducted in India and abroad on topics that are related to the problem under study. Inferences of the review of related literature also find its place at the end of this chapter.

The present chapter analyses the research studies related to the utilization of internet by the students of higher education is listed. “A familiarity with the literature in any problem helps the students to discover

that is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of attack have been promising and disappointing and what problem remains to be solved” Best (1989). The investigator has attempted to review numerous relevant and pertinent studies that have been undertaken by educational researchers.

2.2. DEFINITIONS

Kumar (1997) reported that the recent innovation in information technology have revolutions the mean of instruction within and outside the institution. LAN (Local Area Network) brought in the concept of integrated learning system whereby a central file server can provide random access and interactivity in learning. The internet and intranet enable them to transmit full view broadcasting. Intranets provide information and instructional services within the organization.

Rama and Kumar (1997) described in detail, various dimensions of LAN to internet in education. They pointed out the Local Area Network (LAN) to provide the concept of integrated learning, system whereby a central file server can provide random access and interactivity in learning. WAN promote the concept of integrated learning system whereby a central

file server can provide random access and interactivity in learning. Wide Area Network (WAN) concept would be needed for multi campus as inter institutional environment when internet and intranet facilities would be needed larger band width, fiber optic lines for the internet and intranet enable to transmit full video broadcasting. Internet provides information and instructional services within the organization. An internet would be capable of communication between the organization faculty, library students and other seminars, transforming sessions, research presentation, guest lecturers, silent development course of orientation programs and can be held of interests since the www is accessible through the internet only if may be installed to extend seminar, short and long term courses along with a variety of extra curricular activities in addition.

Bansal and Chaudhry (1999) found that interactive radio has a great potential to support learning at a distance. Being an easily accessible and cost effective medium, IGNOU (Indira Gandhi National Open University) now started an interactive radio project for the students of management and bachelor preparatory programs. The objective of the project was to interact within the students in their own language and share the experiences with

them the effectiveness interactive radio instruction was evaluated and reported in this paper. The students appreciated interactive radio sessions as effective inputs to accomplish the course objectives. Besides students enrolled with other institutions, the enlightened public also participated in the session. The study revealed that students' participation in the interactive radio sessions was higher than the teleconferences and face to face personal contact sessions. The project can be replicated in other areas also, with systematic planning, implementation and monitoring.

Gunavardena (1999) discussed the use of technology for quality improvement in the distance education programme. The study is based on data gathered for teacher education programmes, which has implication for other open universities too.

Jamtshio (1999) discussed the distance education course for in-service primary at the National Institute of Education (NIE) in Samtse, Bhutan. It is the fast and the only distance education where the teachers have the same syllabus and appear for the same term end examination. The distance learners attend compulsory residential contact programme. The distance

education programme needs systematic planning and monitoring to impart knowledge and skills to the teachers.

Baheerathan .M, (2003) studied the internet awareness among the teachers of Mathematics at high school level in Tanjore District. He reported that the internet awareness among the students of mathematics at high school level is not sufficient. He also found out that the gender of the teachers and the locale and the management of the schools where they are working caused no significant difference in respect of their internet awareness.

Senthil Kumar K. (2004) studied the internet knowledge of higher secondary chemistry students. He found that the internet knowledge possessed by the first year higher secondary students is not high in knowing the internet. He also reported that the girls have relatively high internet knowledge when compared to boys in general.

2.3. STUDIES CONDUCTED ABROAD

Fetterman (1998) reported that the internet is one of the most powerful resources available to the educational researchers. It can be used to conduct researches about a topic, analyse census data, conduct interviews by

chatting or video conferencing, share notes and picture about research site, debate issues with colleagues on listen and in online journals and download useful data collection and analysis software.

Wind Scott (1988) reported that the common vision of internet as promising education tool for new millennium features connectedness and accessibility to the information of the 20th century educators, politicians and the general public has embraced technology, educators in particular and collaborative based on the use of the internet.

Lee (1996) says that the technology use pattern of survey participants showed internet application was the most highly used technology category with 78% of respondents reporting use the internet however only 30% responded that they used the internet for teaching purposes. Results indicated the familiarly with and the knowledge of on data gathered for teacher education programmes, which has an implication for other open universities too.

Coneia (1997) stated that the manner in which new information technology and more specifically the internet is used vitally important in the field of education. It is imperative that the internet be placed at the service of

the educational aim, in other words, the service of overall harmonious individual development. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the goal could only be achieved if this means of communication is in itself used and exploited in an educational manner.

Simms and Ponder (1997) studied the setting up of the professional development centre, which followed on from the reports of the Holmes groups and the Carnegie forum in 1996. It looks at how University educators and school teachers, particularly in inner urban area, develop teaching paradigms involving technology and how these can be used to provide pre-service and in-service training for teachers links with the more affluent areas and thesis schools are also discussed. This is the advantage to both the school and university systems.

Agostinho, Hedberg and Lefoe (1998) described how the world wide was implemented in a graduated course. The interactions that took place among the students and between the strategies can be supported by the web of a particular note, the course content focused on technology based learning, thus students were immersed in an authentic learning environment. The article chronicles the various strategies that students implemented to

facilitate the problem solving process and concluded by way of issues to conclude when implementing such strategies within web based learning environments.

Beeler (1998) studied the world wide is becoming increasingly important for professor and the students of literatures. Web resources for literary studies were proliferating and a number of institutions are implementing the delivery of literature course on the web. At the University of British Columbia, the English department has adopted, designed and offered four English courses for on the World Wide Web (www) Canadian literature, first nation literature, post colonial literature and creative writing. This article provides an overview of English, a course on contemporary Canadian literature that he offered in January 1997 and again in October 1997. He concluded with comments on directions for future web course development particularly as the development might affect students located outside a large metropolitan area.

Johnson (1998) studied the students on campus literature classes which have made good use at a series of computer programme that he had created for text analysis. He offered a course via the World Wide Web that

provided 14 of his programmes to students throughout the world. His course taught those students how to use the programs, and as they complete the assignments, students not only learned to use the programs, and as they complete the assignments, students not only learned to use software for literary analysis that they also often gained new kinds of insights into the study of texts.

Medina (2000) studied on the philosophy of the Spanish used about new technology tools based on internet, for distance learning and the introduction of tools of last technology like the “Virtual Classroom” developed by the center of Telemetric services of the university. The UNED is similar to other Spanish public universities. It awards the same qualifications, which are usually valid and it operates under the same qualifications, which are usually valid and it operates under the same general legislations.

Siju Abraham (2003) conducted a study entitled “internet awareness among the college teachers of physics”. He reported that the internet awareness is very essential learning process. The rural college physics teachers need training programme for knowing physics related websites.

This finding and results is not the end of a problem, but just a beginning of the search for innovation. By applying these results, the quality of teaching-learning process will improve.

Wishart (2007) studied on “Using Online Role Play to Teach Internet Safety Awareness”. This paper reports on an evaluation of Net Detectives, a creative online role play activity aimed at 9-12 year olds. Net Detectives form part of Kid smart, an internet awareness programme aimed at school children. It was evaluated through a multiple method data collection using questionnaire surveys, follow up telephone interviews with teachers and observations in use in three UK schools during the summer term of 2003. All sources of data collected agreed that a number of benefits arise from participation in the Net-Detectives online role play. The pupils learned about internet safety in a motivating and challenging environment. They empathized with others gaining an understanding of their motivations and practiced the ICT skills being taught. They particularly enjoyed being “detectives” and interacting with others outside their school. However, the role of the “hosts” in preparing participants and in moderating their communication is the key to the success of the online role play. This

preparation needs to be thoroughly planned for both the teachers whose classes are participating and for their pupils as uncertainty leads to extra communication that interferes with the smooth running of the role play exercise. It was very clear that first the technical issues have to be resolved and then, issues to do with the learner's comprehension and expectations of the task, before social interaction online can result in learning. The paper concludes by presenting the recommendations suggested by this study for hosting an online role play in the school environment.

Tasci (2006) studied on "Online Learning Programs as Learning Organizations: A Case Study of Information Management Programs at Anadolu University, Turkey". This presentation consists of the results of a study in which facilitators' attitudes toward effectiveness of various media used in the Information Management Associate Degree Program of Anadolu University, Turkey. The study has shown that although facilitators indicated that textbooks should still be used in online courses, they found text books as being not efficient as multimedia programs and web environments. The participant facilitators also found multimedia programs distributed on CDs more efficient than web environment.

Graziano (2005) studied on “E-Learning in Massachusetts”. This document presents some of the ways schools are going online technologies. The report illustrates how Massachusetts educators are taking advantage of e-learning opportunities to improve student learning. Educators across the state are using online courses and resources, engaging in online events and projects, and showing interest in online professional development. Included in this report is a description of issues related to e-learning, such as 21st century skills, intellectual property, and internet safety. This report also discusses how e-learning will impact the future of education for Massachusetts students and teachers. These instructional models will help increase the educators and community members’ awareness of the potential e-learning has to impact teaching and learning. Resources and contacts are appended.

2.4. CONCLUSION

Thus, the review of related literature has given the much needed theoretical background to the investigation to pursue this present investigation. Studies conducted in India and abroad have clearly expressed the importance of internet in all spheres of human life. Considerations

involved in the construction of the tool, intended for the study and also the other details about it are given in the following chapter.

CHAPTER – III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The details in respects of the methodology in the investigation are described in this chapter. The matter of study objective, method of study, the design of the study, description of the tool used, the sample selected, method of data collection and data analysis are outlined in this chapter.

3.2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present study “A Study of B.Ed., Students’ Attitude towards Using Internet” has been specifically intended to study the following objectives.

To study

- i) The extent to which the B.Ed., students are favourably or unfavourably disposed towards using internet.
- ii) The difference if any between the male and female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii) The difference, if any, among Science, Arts and Language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iv) The difference, if any, between Graduate and Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- v) The difference, if any, between Married and Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi) The difference, if any, between Male Science and Male Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- vii) The difference, if any, between Male Science and Male Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- viii) The difference, if any, between Male Language and Male Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix) The difference, if any, between Female Science and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- x) The difference, if any, between Female Science and Female Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xi) The difference, if any, between Female Language and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xii) The difference, if any, between Male Graduate and Male Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiii) The difference, if any, between Female Graduate and Female Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- xiv) The difference, if any, between Male Married and Male Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xv) The difference, if any, between Female Married and Female Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

3.3. METHOD OF STUDY

In order to realize the aforesaid objectives Normative Survey method is employed in the present study. Normative survey method studies, describes and what exists at present. They are concerned with existing condition or relations, prevailing practices, beliefs and attitudes etc., such investigations are termed in research literature as Descriptive Survey or Normative Survey. The term “Normative” implies the determinations of typical conditions are practices. The term “survey” suggests the gathering of evidences related to prevailing conditions or practices.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is to the investigation as a blue print is to an architect. Settlers et al (1963), defined research design as “the arrangement

of conditions for collection and an analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.” A well developed design provides the structure and extracts dependable answer to the question raised by problems hypotheses. A study cannot be evaluated unless its procedures are reported in sufficient details make such an evaluation possible. The nature of the problem determines, what basic design is most appropriate and how the design should be tailored to meet the needs of the investigation.

3.5. NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

We are all living in the age of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The role of computer and internet is an inevitable part of the society. Even a piece of information or knowledge is communicated to us through the communication (Internet). A message conveyed by the internet is of great importance, because we know the effect of it when compared to a message conveyed by a printed page. We could understand how fast, clear and effective it was. Internet improves teaching-learning process. Online learning and online tutoring are the two examples for that. A famous website like www.tutorvista.com has been working for this purpose

only. They are recruiting the faculties through online. If a student wants to clarify his doubts, he has to log in the website and contact the tutor available in the net. And they are collecting charges for this through your credit card. The main purpose of internet in education is to benefit more students with fewer teachers. There is no study has been done previously on the internet attitude of B.Ed., students of Vellore District. Therefore, the investigator selected the study entitled “A Study of B.Ed., Students’ Attitude towards Using Internet”.

3.6. DESCRIPTION OF THE TOOL

In the present investigation, the tool used by the investigator to study the B.Ed., students’ attitude towards using internet was developed and validated by Nickell. G.S. and Pinto .J.N (1986). This tool consists of 20 statements. 10 of them are favourably worded and the remaining 10 are unfavourably worded. Each statement is set against a five point scale of, “STRONGLY AGREE”, “AGREE”, “UNDECIDED”, “DISAGREE” AND “STRONGLY DISAGREE”. The arbitrary of weights of 4,3,2,1 and 0 are given in that order for the favourable statement and the scoring is reversed

for the unfavourable statement. An individual's score is the sum of all the scores of 20 statements.

The scores in the scales range from 0 to 80 in the direction of most unfavourableness. Any one who get a score of above 40 indicates that he/she has a favourable attitude towards using internet and a score of 40 and below indicates that he/she has an unfavourable attitude towards using internet. the maximum score one can get in this scale is 80.

3.7. SAMPLE

In the present study, sample was selected as the B.Ed., College students of Vellore District. The data were collected from 250 students from five Education colleges which were selected at random.

DETAILS OF THE STUDENTS

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Male Students	-	97
Female Students	-	153
Graduates	-	184
Postgraduates	-	66
Science	-	106
Arts	-	66
Language	-	78
Married	-	50
Unmarried	-	250
Male Graduates	-	70
Female Graduates	-	114
Male Postgraduates	-	27
Female Postgraduates	-	39
Male Science	-	40
Male Arts	-	24
Male Language	-	33
Female Science	-	66
Female Arts	-	42
Female Language	-	45
Male Married	-	15
Male Unmarried	-	82
Female Married	-	35
Female Unmarried	-	118

3.8. COLLECTION OF DATA

The investigator contacted and obtained permission from the Principals of the Colleges for data collection in Government and Private Colleges. The investigator collected the data personally from the selected 250 students. Proper instructions were given to the students before starting to answer the questions. Each student was provided a set of General information which contains personal information of the student and Internet Attitude Scale (IAS) which contains questions of their attitude towards internet. Students were requested to make their responses in the space provided itself. Students were also requested not to omit any of the questions. Finally the answered test papers were collected from the students.

3.9. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The following Statistical Techniques were adopted to realize the given objectives and to test the hypotheses.

- i) Descriptive Analysis (Mean and S.D)
- ii) Test of Significance (t-test)

The mean and the standard deviation of the attitude scores of the entire sample were calculated. The mean and standard deviation of the attitude scores of all the sub samples were also calculated.

The test of significance (t-test) was used in order to find out the significance of the difference between any two means of the attitude scores of the sub samples involved in this study.

3.10. THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

The validity of the test refers to the truthfulness of the test, i.e, how closely the test measures what it intends to measure. The reliability refers to the consistency of the test. The coefficient of reliability and validity of the tool given by the author was 0.78 and 0.88 respectively.

3.11. CONCLUSION

To find out the B.Ed., students' attitude towards using internet, the aforesaid attitude scale was administered to a sample of as many as 250 B.Ed., students of the Five Education Colleges of Vellore District and the attitude scores of all the 250 students were computed. The scores were subjected to statistical treatments, which are described in the succeeding chapter – IV.

CHAPTER – IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1. INTRODUCTION

It may be recalled that the present study has been undertaken with a view to study the following.

To study

- i) The extent to which the B.Ed., students are favourably or unfavourably disposed towards using internet.
- ii) The difference if any between the male and female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii) The difference, if any, among Science, Arts and Language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iv) The difference, if any, between Graduate and Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- v) The difference, if any, between Married and Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi) The difference, if any, between Male Science and Male Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vii) The difference, if any, between Male Science and Male Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- viii) The difference, if any, between Male Language and Male Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix) The difference, if any, between Female Science and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- x) The difference, if any, between Female Science and Female Language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xi) The difference, if any, between Female Language and Female Arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- xii) The difference, if any, between Male Graduate and Male Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiii) The difference, if any, between Female Graduate and Female Post Graduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiv) The difference, if any, between Male Married and Male Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xv) The difference, if any, between Female Married and Female Unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

In order to realize the above said objectives the investigator used an attitude scale to measure the B.Ed., students' attitude towards using internet. The scale was administered to a sample of as many as 250 B.Ed., students of the Five Education colleges of Vellore District. Then the attitude towards using internet scores of the entire samples and its samples were subjected to

statistical treatment and the details of which are presented in the succeeding paragraphs of this chapter.

4.2. ANALYSIS OF THE ATTITUDE SCORES OF “A STUDY OF B.Ed., STUDENTS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET

The mean and standard deviation of the attitude towards using internet scores of the entire sample were computed. It is shown in the Table: 4.1. The mean range from 44.28 to 45.42 and standard deviation ranges from 5.43 to 7.80 for the entire sample, it is found that 76.4% of the B.Ed., students have a favourable attitude towards using internet and only 23.6% of them have an unfavourable attitude towards using internet. Almost the same trend is seen in respect of the sub samples too. (Table: 4.2)

Table: 4.1
NAMES OF THE COLLEGES WHERE THE SURVEY
CONDUCTED

SERIAL NO	NAME OF THE COLLEGE	TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS
1.	Government College of Education, Vellore	50
2.	Indian College of Education, Vellore	50
3.	Sri Rajarajeswari College of Education, Walajapet.	50
4.	V.S. Isaac College of Education, Arakkonam	50

5.	Pallavan College of Education, Vellore	50
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Table: 4.2

**THE DETAILS OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF THE ENTIRE SAMPLES AND ITS SUB – SAMPLES**

VARIABLES	NUMBERS	MEAN	S.D
Male Students	97	43.91	6.80
Female Students	153	45.01	6.11
Science Students	106	45.01	6.11
Arts Students	66	44.51	6.30
Language Students	78	44.10	6.91
Graduate Students	184	44.30	6.34
Postgraduate Students	66	45.42	6.56
Married	50	44.42	6.31
Unmarried	200	44.63	6.43
Male Science Students	40	44.91	6.45
Male Arts Students	24	43.00	6.16
Male Language Students	33	43.36	7.67
Female Science Students	66	45.10	5.94

Female Arts Students	42	45.31	6.24
Female Language Students	45	44.64	6.31
Male Graduates	70	43.74	6.43
Male Postgraduates	27	44.30	7.80
Female Graduates	114	44.61	6.28
Female Postgraduates	39	46.21	5.43
Male Married	15	42.80	6.01
Male Unmarried	82	44.11	6.95
Female Married	35	45.11	6.37
Female Unmarried	118	44.99	6.04

Table 4.3

**THE LEVEL OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
OF THE ENTIRE SAMPLE AND ITS SUB – SAMPLE**

Variables	Levels	Entire Sample	Male Students	Female Students	Graduates	Post Graduates
Attitude towards using internet	Favourable	191 (76.4%)	70 (72.2%)	121 (79.1%)	137 (74.5%)	54 (81.8%)
	Unfavourable	59 (23.6%)	27 (10.8%)	32 (20.11%)	47 (25.5%)	12 (18.2%)
	Total (N)	250	97	153	184	66

Table 4.3 (continue...)

Variables	Levels	Married	Un married	Science	Arts	Language
Attitude towards using internet	Favourable	37 (76.0 %)	154 (77.0%)	85 (80.2%)	49 (19.6%)	57 (73.1%)
	Unfavourable	13 (24.0%)	46 (23.0%)	21 (25.8%)	17 (6.8%)	21 (26.9%)
	Total (N)	50	200	106	66	78

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET SCORES OF PAIRS OF SUB SAMPLES

In order to realize the objectives the test of significance was used after having framed the suitable null hypotheses and to be tested at 0.05 level of significance.

NULL HYPOTHESES

There is no significant difference between the male and female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.4. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 1.34 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male and female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.4

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET SCORES OF MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS.

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male	97	43.91	6.80	248	1.34	No

Students						significance
Female Students	153	45.01	6.09			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (ii)

There is no significant difference between the graduate and postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.5. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 1.24 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the graduate and postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (iii)

There is no significant difference between the science and arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.6. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.55 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the science and arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.5

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF GRADUATE AND POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS**

Sub-	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance
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Samples						at the 0.05 level
Graduate Students	184	44.28	6.34	248	1.24	No significance
Post Graduate	66	45.42	6.52			

Table 4.6

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF SCIENCE AND ARTS STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Science Students	106	45.01	6.11	170	0.55	No significance
Arts Students	66	44.46	6.26			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (iv)

There is no significant difference between the science and language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.7. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.93 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the science and language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (v)

There is no significant difference between the arts and language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.8. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.33 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the arts and language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.7

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF SCIENCE AND LANGUAGE STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Science Students	106	45.01	6.11	248	0.93	No significance
Language Students	78	44.10	6.91			

Table 4.8

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF ARTS AND LANGUAGE STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Arts Students	66	44.46	6.26	248	0.33	No significance
Language Students	78	44.10	6.91			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (vi)

There is no significant difference between the married and unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.9. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.20 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the married and unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (vii)

There is no significant difference between the male science and male arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.10. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 1.15 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male science and male arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.9

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF MARRIED AND UNMARRIED STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Married Students	50	44.42	6.31	248	1.23	No significance
Unmarried Students	200	44.62	6.43			

Table 4.10

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF MALE SCIENCE AND MALE ARTS STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male Science	40	44.91	6.45	62	1.15	No significance
Male Arts	24	44.00	6.16			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (viii)

There is no significant difference between the male science and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.11. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.91 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male science and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (ix)

There is no significant difference between the male arts and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.12. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.19 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no

significant difference between the male arts and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.11

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET SCORES OF MALE SCIENCE AND MALE LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male Science	40	44.91	6.45	71	0.91	No significance
Male Language	33	43.36	7.67			

Table 4.12

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF MALE ARTS AND MALE LANGUAGE STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male Arts	24	44.00	6.16	55	0.19	No significance
Male Language	33	43.36	7.67			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (x)

There is no significant difference between the female science and female arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.13. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.18 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the female science and female arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xi)

There is no significant difference between the female science and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.14. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.37 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the female science and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.13

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF FEMALE SCIENCE AND FEMALE ARTS STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Female Science	66	45.10	5.94	106	0.18	No significance

Female Arts	42	45.31	6.24			
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Table 4.14

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF FEMALE SCIENCE AND FEMALE LANGUAGE
STUDENTS**

Sub- Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05
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						level
Female Science	66	44.91	6.45	109	0.37	No significance
Female Language	45	44.64	6.31			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xii)

There is no significant difference between the female arts and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.15. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.49 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the female arts and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xiii)

There is no significant difference between the male graduate and male postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.16. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.34 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male graduate and male postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.15

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET SCORES OF FEMALE ARTS AND FEMALE LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Female Arts	42	45.31	6.24	85	0.49	No significance
Female Language	45	44.64	6.31			

Table 4.16

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET**

SCORES OF MALE GRADUATE AND MALE POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male Graduate Students	70	43.74	6.43	95	0.34	No significance
Male Postgraduate Students	27	44.30	7.80			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xiv)

There is no significant difference between the female graduate and female postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.17. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.34 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is retained and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male graduate arts and male postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xv)

There is no significant difference between the male married and male unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in the table 4.18. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.20 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the male married and male unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.17

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF FEMALE GRADUATE AND FEMALE
POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Female Graduate Students	114	44.61	6.28	151	1.40	No significance
Female Postgraduate Students	39	46.21	5.43			

Table 4.18

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF MALE MARRIED AND MALE UNMARRIED
STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Male married Students	15	42.80	6.01	95	0.69	No significance
Male unmarried Students	82	44.10	6.95			

NULL HYPOTHESIS (xvi)

There is significant difference between the female married and female unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

The details of the calculations are given in table 4.19. The critical ratio (CR) is found to be 0.10 which is significant at the 0.05 level.

Therefore this null hypothesis is rejected and it is concluded that there is no significant difference between the female married and female unmarried students in respects of their attitude towards using internet.

Table 4.19

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE
MEANS OF THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING INTERNET
SCORES OF FEMALE MARRIED AND FEMALE UNMARRIED
STUDENTS**

Sub-Samples	Number	Mean	S.D	DF	T-test	Significance at the 0.05 level
Female married Students	35	45.11	6.37	151	0.10	No significance
Female unmarried Students	118	44.99	6.04			

4.3. DISCUSSIONS ON THE RESULTS

The findings got out by the investigator for the present study are prescribed in the light of the empirical studies made earlier in this field.

In the present study a large number of students have a favourable attitude towards using internet. This gets support from a few earlier studies.

Gender of the students causes significant difference in respect of their attitude towards using internet in the present study. This gets support from a few earlier studies but in an earlier study the gender causes no significant differences in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

In the present investigation educational qualification causes no significant difference in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

4.4. CONCLUSION

Thus the analysis of the data generated by the administration of the tool on the sample of as many as 250 B.Ed., students of the Five Education colleges of Vellore District has yielded many interesting results which are summarized in the succeeding chapter – V

CHAPTER – V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In the present investigation, an attempt has been made to study the B.Ed., Students' attitude towards using internet in Vellore District Education colleges.

This chapter presents the consolidated findings of the study recapitulating the main features contained in the previous one. Apart from the main findings emerged from the study, suggestion for the further research in the lights of the present investigation is also given in succeeding paragraphs.

5.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study has been specifically indented to study the B.Ed., Students' attitude towards using internet in Vellore District. Five variables

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like Gender, locality, subject, qualification and marital status and their sub-samples are used in this dissertation. The tool used in the study was constructed and validated by Nickell G.S. and Pinto J.N. (1986).

5.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To Study

- i. The Extent to which the B.Ed., Students are favourably or unfavourably disposed towards using internet.
- ii. The difference if any between male and female students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii. The difference if any among science, arts and language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iv. The difference if any between graduate and postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- v. The difference if any between married and unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi. The difference if any between male science and male arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- vii. The difference if any between male science and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- viii. The difference if any between male arts and male language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix. The difference if any between female science and female arts students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- x. The difference if any between female science and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xi. The difference if any between female arts and female language students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xii. The difference if any between male graduate and male postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiii. The difference if any between female graduate and female postgraduate students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- xiv. The difference if any between male married and male unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xv. The difference if any between female married and female unmarried students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

5.4. IMPORTANT FINDINGS

The following are the important findings of the study

- i. In respect of the entire sample of the B.Ed., students, as much as 76.04% of them have a favourable attitude towards using internet and 23.04% of them have an unfavourable attitude towards using internet.
- ii. There is no significant difference between the male and female B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- iii. There is no significant difference among the Science, Arts and Language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- iv. There is no significant difference between the graduate and postgraduate B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- v. There is no significant difference between the married and unmarried B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vi. There is no significant difference between the male science and male arts B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- vii. There is no significant difference between the male science and male language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- viii. There is no significant difference between the male arts and male language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- ix. There is no significant difference between the female science and female arts B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

- x. There is no significant difference between the female science and female language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xi. There is no significant difference between the female arts and female language B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xii. There is no significant difference between the male graduate and male postgraduate B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiii. There is no significant difference between the female graduate and female postgraduate B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xiv. There is no significant difference between the male married and male unmarried B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.
- xv. There is no significant difference between the female married and female unmarried B.Ed., students in respect of their attitude towards using internet.

5.5. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDY

The following are some of the suggestions given for further study.

The present study aims at analyzing the B.Ed., Students' Attitude Towards Using Internet.

- i. A similar study may be undertaken with a large sample by including the other facilities also.
- ii. A same type of study may be undertaken at school and college levels.
- iii. A similar study may be undertaken among the parents and the teachers.
- iv. This study covers only the students of B.Ed., A Similar study can be conducted for other degrees like M.Ed., and M.Phil.,
- v. This study is limited to the students of Vellore District. The similar study may be undertaken in different districts or state level.

5.6. CONCLUSION

The present study reveals that the gender of the students can cause no significant difference in respect of their attitude towards using internet. It also find out that the locale and educational qualifications of the students caused no significant difference in respect of their attitude towards using internet, even though a large number of B.Ed., students have relatively favourable attitude towards using internet.

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Politics of *Sambalpuri* or *Kosali* as a Dialect of Oriya in Orissa

Tuna Biswal, M. Phil.

Abstract

There have been a lot of debates going on regarding the status of *Sambalpuri* as a dialect of Oriya in Orissa, a state in India. Linguistic interpretations are unacceptable to many speakers of *Sambalpuri*. There is a politics of division prevailing based on social, economic as well as linguistic issues. Mutually intelligible dialects of the same language spoken by two speech communities, speakers of Oriya from the coastal districts of Orissa and speakers of the dialect *Sambalpuri* are in the centre of this controversy. *Sambalpuri* speakers demand a separate and distinct language identity for their speech, distinct from their current identity within Oriya speakers. This paper seeks to study some of the issues on the politicization of this language controversy. As a language, the true recognition of *Sambalpuri*, whether as a dialect or a language, would come, not by the constitutional certification, but rather through qualitative and quantitative growth of *Sambalpuri* language and literature, in specific ways.

Key words: *Sambalpuri* or *Kosali* Language, Dialect, Language, Oriya, Politics

Introduction

“According to Sir George Grierson’s *The Linguistics Survey of India*, there are no dialects of Oriya within its geographical area. However, Prof. Golokabihari Dhala and Dr. Kunjabihari Tripathi have pointed the dialects of Oriya.So whether

Sambalpuri is an independent language or is it one of the most valuable dialects of Oriya is a debatable question.” (Census, n.d.)

This piece of information given in CIIL, Mysore’s website appropriately corroborates the very point of discussion of this paper about a debatable issue pertaining to the *Sambalpuri* language. In fact, it is a million dollar question, whether *Sambalpuri* is a dialect of Oriya or not in Orissa, which means a lot, particularly, for the people of Western Orissa, for whom, it is closely associated with their identity.

The chief communicative language or speech of the *Kosala* region is *Sambalpuri*. Not much research has been done on the accent and phonetics of the *Sambalpuri* language and it is generally considered to be a dialect of Oriya. (Gordon, 2005) Oriya is the mother tongue of the people in Orissa - a state in India. In Orissa, nearly one third of the population speaks Sambalpuri or Koshli and the rest speak the Oriya language.

The linguistic map of the state is characterized by primarily two dominant speech forms, namely, Oriya or *Kataki* - the form used by people in the coastal districts and *Sambalpuri* or *Kosali* - the form used by the adjoining north-eastern border districts like Sambalpur, Balangir, Bargarh, Sonepur, Kalahandi, Sundargarh, Boudh, Deogarh, Nuapada and Jharsuguda by a population totaling around 9,001,406 according to 2001 Census of India. *Sambalpuri* was considered to be a dialect of the standard Oriya, but, owing to its distinct grammar and pronunciations, it has achieved or may achieve the status of a distinct language. In the modern context, the *Sambalpuri* language is popularly known as "*Kosali* language". (Census, n.d.)

There are plenty of words in *Sambalpuri* like *leti* (a ripen mango), *jhuri* (fish), *patal ghanta* (tomato) and many more, and also certain sounds like aspirated /dh/ in *gædhia* (mosquito) which cannot be rendered in any form of Oriya, yet by its generic belongingness to Indo-Aryan language family, and by its linguistic affiliation to Oriya, it is recognized as a variant.

An invisible line of differentiation among the people of the state can be found in terms of language spoken by them and, particularly, this is dominant in the area where the *Sambalpuri* is spoken.

This paper would seek to study the politicization of *Sambalpuri* as a dialect of Oriya from linguistics point of views by analyzing its similar as well different characteristics.

The Demand of Constitutional Status and for a Separate *Kosala* State

The question of recognizing *Sambalpuri* as a language in the Constitution of India has been a hobbyhorse among a wide spectrum of people of Western Orissa. Moreover, there has been a movement led by intellectuals hailing from all walks of life to seek and achieve the constitutional status for the *Sambalpuri* language as a Scheduled Language due to its features distinct from Oriya from grammatical, pragmatics and semantic points of views.

Because of distinctive linguistics characteristics and varying socio-cultural features of people, it also makes the ground fertile for the demand of a separate state called ‘*Kosala*’, based on language spoken by them and the assumed and perceived underdevelopment of the western Orissa as compared to the coastal belt. Researchers like Jay P. Pradhan, et al., have studied this in *Interpreting the Demand for Kosala State in Orissa: Development versus Underdevelopment*. Pradhan, et al observe that

The demand for smaller states including Kosala state in India has risen not on the grounds of the perceived economic benefits of smaller size but mostly because of the prolonged underdevelopment and backwardness that these regions have faced. In the case of Orissa, the process of economic growth has been regionally lopsided during the last fifty-years. While the coastal region has benefited mostly from the economic policies pursued by the state, the Kosala region remains largely neglected, marginalized, and deprived”. (Pradhan et al., 2004)

Heavy indentations of negative assimilatory features are observable so far as the applicability and acceptability of one official language, i.e., Oriya in the state is concerned. The state attaining an ironic stature for development in national scenario is something that pains every one being educated and employed in Orissa. To mention a few: economically poor, yet resource-wise rich; fast developing, yet the lowest ranked; rapidly industrializing, yet home to largest BPL people; and many more as such. It further supports a widespread assumption that a division of the state into two parts such as the coastal belt, named as Orissa and the western part named *Kosala* would solve the problem. Furthermore, this great division is visibly articulated in different events like political election campaigning, academic research writings, educational pursuits, job interviews and many more. In spite of all such vulnerable characteristics, Orissa has attained the dubious distinction of being the most peace loving state in India, although rare events like Kandhamal riots do occur.

Theoretical Perspective of Language and Dialect

Language is a socio-cultural-geographical phenomenon. Language is complementary to society in existence. Sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study of language with specific reference to society. The linguistic characteristics of language and dialect are almost similar, or else, we may say that, dialect is a small circle inside a big circle of a language. In other words, there are many similarities than dissimilarities between dialects.

Sambalpuri can be studied phonologically with the help of general linguistics concepts. If principles of linguistics are applied to *Sambalpuri*, then conclusions may be drawn that it is a dialect of Oriya.

Misconceptions

There are many misconceptions about language in general among the people of this region. These biases, sometimes, result in undesired and unpleasant situations like disliking coastal belt

people for belonging to a particular speech/dialect community. People tend to see that the coastal belt people favor regionalism for sheer language reasons.

Myths about Language

Indian linguist Varshney (1977) has identified following types of myths prevalent in our society associated with language. The list is given below. Perhaps the association of regional exploitation of a community based on their dialect use may be included in this list given below.

- i) Written form is more prestigious than spoken form.
- ii) Literary language is the only language.
- iii) One language is superior to another.
- iv) Traditional alphabets are adequate.
- v) Job of a linguist is not to describe but to prescribe the grammatical rules to preserve the purity of a language.
- vi) Children learn language merely by imitation.
- vii) Language is an instinctive and inherited property of man.
- viii) There are no language universals at all.
- ix) No two languages have any similarities.
- x) Purity of a language should somehow be preserved and historical forms of usage are to be preferred and remembered whereas the contemporary usage should be ignored as unworthy of attention.
- xi) Only a historical treatment of language is the right treatment and that language should not be studied in isolation at a particular point of time.
- xii) All languages can be analyzed by analyzing European languages such as Latin, French and Greek.
- xiii) Languages are static.
- xiv) Sounds of a particular language are in themselves easy or difficult.

Dialect is a Language variation

Etymologically the word dialect has been derived from the Greek word *dialektos* which has two different types of meanings. One usage refers to a variety of a language that is characteristic of a particular group of the speakers of that language. The term is applied most often to regional speech patterns, but a dialect may also be defined by other factors, such as social class. In other words, it is a variant of a language used by a speech community for everyday social interactions that are relative to their cultures and societies.

Because of this close association, study of language variation generally forms a part of socio-linguistics. Language varies in geographical and social space. Language can vary, not only from one individual to the next, but also from one sub-section of speech-community (family, village, town, and region) to another. People of different age groups, gender, social class, occupations, or cultural groups in the same community will show variations in their speech. (Varshney, 1977)

Furthermore, a dialect is distinguished by its vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation (phonology, including prosody).

Two Types of Dialects

There are two types of dialects such as a standard dialect (supported by institutions) and a non-standard dialect (not supported by institutions). Such institutional support may include government recognition or designation; presentation as being the "correct" form of a language in schools; published grammars, dictionaries, and textbooks that set forth a "correct" spoken and written form; and an extensive formal literature that employs that dialect (prose, poetry, non-fiction, etc.).

There may be multiple standard dialects associated with a single language. For example, Standard American English, Standard British English, Standard Indian English, Standard Australian English, and Standard Philippine English may all be said to be standard dialects of the English language. A nonstandard dialect, like a standard dialect, has a complete vocabulary, grammar, and syntax, but is not the beneficiary of institutional support. An example of a nonstandard English dialect is Southern English. The Dialect Test was designed by Joseph Wright to compare different English dialects with each other. (Wikipedia, n.d.)

There are no universally accepted criteria for distinguishing languages from dialects, although number of paradigms exist, which render sometimes contradictory results. The exact distinction is, therefore, a subjective one, dependent on the user's frame of reference. (Wikipedia, n.d.) Linguistically language and dialect have little differences but many times it has been observed that this issue takes the form of 'prestige issue', 'constitutional recognition', 'cultural assemblages' and 'cultural disenfranchisement' emasculating a kind of difference among people that result in bipolar politics like *Kataki* vs. *Sambalpuri* in Orissa and Telugu vs. *Telengana* in Andhra Pradesh and *Vidharva* vs. *Maharastrian* in Maharashtra. Despite all scientific analyses, because of the complex nature of language, sometimes it takes the shape of a movement of divisionism, and the politics of speech recognition is magnified into demand for a separate constitutional recognition.

This is also found in the case of *Sambalpuri*. Some of the issues are discussed below.

1. Sambalpuri is a spoken but not a literary language: It is spoken by about 25% of the population of Orissa. This region, concentrated on Western Orissa, exhibits certain degree of cultural and social uniformity in terms of demography and life-style. Its speech community includes Kalahandi district in the south to the Sundargarh district in the northwest, thereby including the whole of the pre-1993 districts of Sambalpur, Kalahandi, Sundargarh and Balangir district and some part of the then-undivided Koraput, Dhenkanal and Phulbani districts.

- (a) The demographic record showing the number of people using *Sambalpuri* as a spoken language is given below as per Census 2001.

District	District Head quarter	Area (sq.km.)	Population 1991 Census	Population 2001 Census
Balangir	Balangir	6,575	1,230,938	1,335,760
Bargarh	Bargarh	5,837	1,207,172	1,345,601
Baudh (Boudh)	Baudh	3,098	317,622	373,038
Debagarh (Deogarh)	Debagarh	2,940	234,238	274,095
Jharsuguda	Jharsuguda	2,081	446,726	509,056
Kalahandi	Bhawanipatna	7,920	1,130,903	1,334,372
Nuapada	Nuapada	3,852	469,482	530,524
Sambalpur	Sambalpur	6,675	809,017	928,889
Subarnapur	Sonepur	2,337	476,815	540,659
Sundargarh	Sundargarh	9,712	1,573,617	1,829,412

(Census, 2001)

2. Speakers of *Sambalpuri* do not have a state of their own: This is another factor that is responsible for politicization of *Sambalpuri*. Indian political system has provided for the reorganization of provinces based on the dominant linguistic majority of the region/area. This gives impetus to the movements for the separation of regions based on language identity. There have been various kinds of activities initiated by a few people to separate *Kosala* from the rest of Orissa based on the variety of language spoken by the people of the region. A separatist movement has emerged in this area and many in this region are demanding a separate *Kosala* state from the State of Orissa (The Hindu, 2004; cf online, 2001) The movement has failed to gain any large scale popularity earlier, but the momentum changed dramatically with the formation of a regional political party called Kosala Kranti Dal, which propose to agitate for a separate *Kosala* state in a democratic way by participating in the general elections. (newsoneindia, 2007)

3. *Sambalpuri* does not have a writing system: There is no writing system or script for *Sambalpuri*. A writing system or script is a type of symbolic system used to represent elements or statements expressible in language. Formation of a script of any language and the conventions for the use of the system take centuries and the writing system undergoes a very complex process of acceptance by wide application at various levels from personal to official, press to academia and as a library language to link the language to the external world.

4. *Sambalpuri* is not used in press and literature: In Orissa, Oriya is the official language of the state. It is used for all purposes. It is a MIL (Mother Indian Language) of all the native students pursuing formal education in Orissa. Almost all the regional newspapers published in Orissa like *Samaj*, *Sambad*, *Dharitri*, *Khabar* and *Bhaskar* are published in the Oriya medium.

Moreover, there is a rich literary history of Oriya having thousands of literary works being added every year. In *Sambalpuri*, there is no daily newspaper published except one or two weekly newspapers like *Sat Kahele Chati Phatsi* (Heart Explodes if Truth is Spoken), which is published from Bargarh. The circulation of this weekly is limited to hundreds as compared to other Oriya dailies that are read by millions of people.

5. The literary production in *Sambalpuri* is also negligible. Writers like Payag Datt Joshi, Satyanarayan Bohidar, Dr. Prafulla Kumar Tripathy, Dr. Santosh Kumar Rath, Dr. Ashok Kumar Dash, Udaynath Chandan and Haldhar Nag have produced a wide range of literatures, yet, no *Sambalpuri* literary work has ever got recognition either at the state or national level. Interestingly a good number of *Sambalpuri* songs are penned every year for booming music industry, but ironically such compositions are not considered as a work of art of highest degree. In fact, oral poets like Haldhar Nag have written many classical poems in *Sambalpuri* that can be compared with any great work of art but because of lack of marketing strategies and disinterest among publishing houses, these literary works remain hidden, unsuccessful to see the light of the day. Nevertheless, more masterpieces have to be written in *Sambalpuri* to popularize the language and to increase the number readers reading *Sambalpuri* literature.

6. Demand in the Parliament for recognition of *Sambalpuri* as a Scheduled Language of the Consitution: There are a total of 114 languages and 216 mother tongues, 18 scheduled languages and 96 not specified in the schedule as per the census of 1991. (Mallikarjun, 2001) *Sambalpuri* is neither recognized as a scheduled nor non-scheduled language as per the Constitution of India.

- i) It is quite evident that there is a provision of using a spoken form other than official, if used by a section of the state, to make an official language of the state but in case of *Sambalpuri*, although it is spoken by one third of the population of the state, it has not been recognized as an official language of the state. The demand to confer *Sambalpuri* the status of a scheduled language of the Constitution has been made by a Member of the Parliament, Sriballabh Panigrahi in the Indian Parliament in the following manner.

“On Orissa, we have a language called 'Sambalpuri language'. It may be called 'sambalpuri language' or 'Kosali language'. Every body talks about Sambalpur saree, Sambalpuri music, etc. this language has got a rich Literature About 10 million people speak nepali and we are discussing about its inclusion in the Eighth Schedule. The Sambalpuri language also spread over large areas, five to six districts. And about one crore population speak this language. This language is different from the standard language.....Now we are talking about removal of illiteracy and universalisation of primary education. the child 'is to be.....Taught, is to be given education at the.....primary stage, in his own mother tongue, which is naturally not the standard language of that place. In the tribal areas , many children are not attracted to schools and they treat the standard language as a foreign language. In the tribal belts, we should make arrangement for Imparting education In their own

mother tongue.....The Sambalpuri language is spoken by one crore population, spread over five western districts in Orissa. This language has a good and a rich literature. This language also should be treated as a separate language. The concerned authorities should give recognition to this language. First to start with Sahitya Academy should give recognition to this language.....Sir. language is a very sensitive issue and It is something which can be Instrumental to strengthen our national solidarity. It is like atom. If not properly handled. it can do a lot of harms. The language issue is a very emotional issue and a sensitive issue. So, It is time to give a fresh look at these things.....According to Science of language. at a distance of every one hundred Kilometres, there is some change in the language. Even though substantially the same language is spoken, there are some variations....you may call it as dialect or something like that. But it is not the same language that is spoken throughout the State. And wherever is spoken by a large number of people, but it has a literature behind it, it has a distance features, of a separate language. then it is entitled to be called a separate language. Therefore, the concerned authorities should liberally consider these things. And In the process, our literature, our language and our much sought national solidarity. Will be strengthened and not weakened .” (Census, n.d.)

Conclusion

Politicization of *Sambalpuri* is confined to certain assumptions by a section of the people of Orissa. In true literary sense, the language has to proliferate both as a form of communication and the literature must encode the ethos of the region by playing a vital role in the society. It has been discussed that if *Samablapuri* is analyzed linguistically, then conclusions may be drawn that it is a dialect of Oriya. It does not matter whether *Sambalpuri* is designated as a dialect or a language, whether recognized as a scheduled or non-scheduled language of India or bestowed upon the status of state official language or not, but the most important factor is whether the language and the literature are developing or not. Every language has a life cycle of its own in which it has to pass through a complex process in the society. Events like political voicing and demand for a separate state, in fact, will not help the *Sambalpuri* to attain the status of a language. When *Sambalpuri* is used in more domains, especially in writing, perhaps, it may evolve to be a distinct language, distinct from Oriya. Moreover, efforts have to be initiated by linguists to develop a writing system of *Sambalpuri* or script of the language and popularize it among the speakers to use it for all purposes for communication, then only such politicization would find a way in giving due recognition to *Sambalpuri* of Western Orissa.

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A Six-Step Approach to Teaching Poetry Incorporating the Four Skills

V. Vasanthi, Ph.D.

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Introduction

Teaching poetry has been always a difficult task. Teaching has to be subtle in the sense that there is no touchstone to evaluate the discourse of the lecture or the comprehension of the student. The process of comprehension is latent on the part of the students and therefore the results are not conspicuous for the teacher.

Two Methods of Teaching Poetry

There are, on a broader scale, two methods of teaching poetry. The commonly used technique is the traditional method in which a poem is introduced with a paraphrase and extraneous details are furnished as and when the poem is read aloud in the class. This method is wrought with many disadvantages and some can be acknowledged as under:

1. The learning is artificial and induced where in it stops with the paraphrase and other details provided by the teacher, as the student responds mechanically.
2. Sometimes there are multifarious allusions, which lead to the disruption of a coherent acquisition.
3. If the author and the context of the poem are introduced before the poem, the student's notion becomes pre-set closing the doors for manifestation and analysis.

Furthermore, the traditional method can be compared to the dissection of a living organism wherein the species is "murdered", as Wordsworth says in his poem titled *Tables Turned*, 'We murder to dissect'. (Merchant, ed. 124).

According to Ted Hughes, a renowned poet of the post-modern age, a poem is “an assembly of living parts moved by a single spirit. The living parts are the words, the images, the rhythms” (Scammel 12).

A poem is an experience retold, which can be relived any number of times. Allen Tate, a famous critic of Emily Dickinson, remarks that the poet “speaks wholly to the individual experience” (Sewall 27). Ted Hughes speaks about his poem, *The Thought-Fox* thus: “As it is every time I read the poem the fox comes up again out of the darkness and steps into my head” (Scammel 20).

The Second Strategy

Hence it can be inferred that the teaching of poetry needs special attention, a new strategy in which the students are made to live the poem and experience it, and are given the freedom of thought and imagination to form personal views about it.

This research paper discusses a modern, thematic six-step approach to poetry teaching, which also develops the four skills, viz., reading, and writing, listening and speaking.

Prerequisites

There are a few pre-requisites which are vital to this approach, as the temperature setting is to a chemical experiment. They are:

1. Handouts of the poem without the name of the author and the title of the poem.
2. Circular seating arrangement.
3. A pocket dictionary

With these, the teacher can embark on the six stages of teaching, which are enlisted as under:

1. Motivation
2. Introduction
3. Interaction
4. Comparison
5. Instruction and
6. Improvisation

Motivation

It is evidently important that a student’s mind is tuned to the poetry class, which demands a special expertise, the discussion of which, if taken up, would lead to a broad area of study.

David Capella and Baron Wormser put forth their fears in their book, *Teaching the Art of poetry: The Moves* thus:

Poetry Frightens. Over the years when it has come up in conversation that we write poems, dozens of people from all walks of life have paused and

then diffidently or straightforwardly confided that poetry means nothing to them (xii).

This problem is one of the foremost and is one of the causes for an unsuccessful poetry class.

As a remedy, 'The objective non-egotistical pleasure' [and an aesthetic feeling which convinces the student to say] 'I like the effect...!' (Singh 15) can be induced in the minds of the student, only as one of the several ways to succeed. The poem can also be presented as a puzzle or the teacher can think of a play-way method to introduce the poem.

Teaching Strategy: Six Steps

When the student is oriented to the class, it is important to reassure him of his capabilities, which would be discovered by the student himself, during the same process. It is needless to say that the beginning classes need to be simple. The modern and post-modern poems written in free verse or children's poetry can be used at the primary stage.

Introduction

Under the given conditions, the poem should be presented as an entity in itself, a raw experience, or a mathematical puzzle to be solved. The students can be allowed to interact with the poem on their own, using the aid of the dictionary. On reading the poem for more than two or three times, the words of the poem will have a magical effect on the student.

Ted Hughes says about the usage of words thus: "In a way, words are continually trying to displace our experience. And in so far as they are stronger than the raw life of our experience, and full of themselves and all the dictionaries they have digested they do displace it." (Poetry in the making 120).

Application

Let us apply the technique with the following post-modern poem:

We had a motorbike all through the war
In an outhouse-thunder, flight, disruption
Cramped in rust, under washing, abashed, out classed
By the Brens, the Bombs, the Bazookas elsewhere.

The war ended, the explosions stopped
The men surrenderd their weapons
And hung around limply.
Peace took them all prisoner.
They were herded into their home towns.

So there came this quiet young man
And he bought our motorbike for twelve pounds.
And he got it going, with difficulty

He kicked it into life- It erupted
Out of the six-year sleep, and he was delighted

A week later, astride it, before dawn,
A misty frosty morning
He escaped

Into a telegraph pole
On the long Straight west of Swinton.

In the poem quoted above, a prosaic quality is found. The poet speaks about a motorbike, which was unused for a long time until a young man opted to buy it and happened to get killed, while riding it. This story is grasped by the student without much difficulty. The reading comprehension of the student is improved in a self-study of this kind, where he is bound to help himself out of the group of words, which interact with him. The words which are beyond his comprehension create a strong impulse in the student to refer to the dictionary, thereby acquiring vocabulary more effectively, as the words looked for match the context.

The setting of the poem is a post-war period as the lines, “The war ended, the explosions stopped/The men surrendered their weapons” indicate. The reader at the first reading senses the motorbike, as an agent of evil. At this stage, the reading practice can be wound up, as the students, who have comprehended the poem fully or only to an extent, could be found eager to know what the poem was exactly about. A student below average would also have interacted with the poem and would have had experience of some kind, which they might not reveal.

Interaction

This is a very important phase in learning poetry as N. Krishnaswamy remarks in his book *Teaching Poetry for Schools and Colleges* thus:

There are many ways of exploring a poem and verbal interaction between students and teachers is just one of them (46).

At this stage, the teacher would see for herself that many students are willing to talk. Effective and interested communicators come forward and the less effective, back out. The teacher can select those students whose speaking skill needs attention. Initially, if the student is found shy, he/she can be called out and made to speak only with the teacher in private.

Thus, this stage enables the development of speaking skills, which is natural and spontaneous and non-deliberate on the part of the student. This stage provides a comfortable platform for the teacher’s instruction as John Fanselow endorses:

Basing instruction on student needs by requiring materials-sets-that contain actual communications, by moving beyond the area of grammar, so central in much of language instruction, and by tying

language to tactivity, all imply a different role for the teacher of ESP. Not only the teacher must move off the center stage, but the teacher often needs to move out of the language classroom, first to collect the communications needed, and second, to teach setting where the communications are really to be used. (181).

Comparison

At this stage the student listens to various interpretations of the poem and is eager to know which of those would be right. At this stage, apart from developing the listening skill, a comparative study is carried out, which opens a new horizon in the learning of poetry.

The students can be asked to guess the title of the poem, the author and so on and in the process they grasp the central idea or thought of the poem.

At this stage, care should be taken to see that the lecturer does not deviate from the topic.

In this connection, George Brown's and Madeline Atkins' words can be remembered –

Comparing and contrasting is challenging for both lecturer and students. It is easy to confuse and be confused. Building up a summary on the blackboard or overhead transparency as your lecture helps to reduce the likelihood of confusion and keeps you on course (30).

Instruction

The poem can be taught at this stage and the difficult words can be explained and discussed.

It would be very interesting to see the students' perception about the poem at this stage. Such perception would have expanded owing to the multifarious analysis attempted thus far.

This particular poem 'Motorbike' written by Ted Hughes, during the post-war period can be interpreted in many ways.

The author connects the motorbike and the surrounding. The strong survival of the motorbike described in the first verse is contrasted with the adverse effects that the war produces in men. This to an extent indicates that the motorbike also plays a role in the inconvenience caused to men adding to the calamitous atmosphere of the post-war life and contributing to yet another disaster associated with a mystery.

The mystery is that, the young man who rode the motorbike meets his death.

Throughout the poem, the motorbike, a simple object, introduces a chain of thoughts, which leads to a universal thought, which is the fear of human beings who associate their

fate to the factors of the non-human world. Thus, the motorbike represents the non-human mechanical world, which is perceived hostile and the narrator represents the whole mankind in experiencing this moment. At this stage of instruction, the students' interpretation and efforts should be appreciated.

Improvisation

At this stage, the students can be asked to improvise on the given topic, 'Motorbike', which would develop the writing skill of the students. Complete freedom should be given to the students at this stage as writing cannot be developed under constraints. The students could write a story, an essay, a poem, a personal anecdote, or a joke suiting their interests. Thus, this activity results in a lively experience, involving the students, as Hughes points out in his *Poetry in the Making*, thus:

That one thing is, imagine what you are writing about. See it and live it. Do not think it up laboriously, as if you were working out mental arithmetic.. just look at it, touch it, smell it, listen to it, turn yourself into it. When you do this, the words look after themselves, like magic. (Poetry in the Making 121).

Conclusion

Thus, the research paper aims at teaching language through poetry in a literature class, thereby developing the four skills. However, this research paper aims only at the approach to the teaching of poetry and the acquisition process. Classroom constraints and other areas are beyond the scope of the study.

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Lexis of a Suicidal

Samina A. Khan, M.Phil.

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Abstract

This article presents a lexical analysis of the writings of a suicidal individual to identify the linguistic choices. It also discusses content analysis as a valuable research tool.

Introduction

Language is not only the source of sharing our beliefs, ideas and desires with others but it also reflects our unconscious. As fingerprints provide evidence in detecting law related issues, for linguists, linguistic style is a fingerprint through which a person's mental state is reflected.

The words that reflect linguistic styles are those that are high in usage e.g. function words- particles, articles, prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs and conjunctions. According to Pennebaker (2002), the particular words a person uses (e.g. pronouns, emotion-related words, cognitive words or time-oriented words) reveal rich information about his/her mood, social class, personality, and status.

Pronouns

The role of function words is evident by an understanding of pronouns. Pronouns require shared understanding of their referents between the listener and speaker, e.g. "Does he know that it is her bag?" This sentence can only be meaningful if one knows who "he", "it" and "her" are. In order to understand a message with plenty of pronouns we need social knowledge.

Similar is the case with articles and prepositions, e.g.

It is unbelievable that he presented her a car.

It is unbelievable that he presented her the car.

Though both the sentences are the same with the exception of the articles “a” and “the,” the differences in listener’s/reader’s and speaker’s shared knowledge and interpersonal skills is evident. Thus, mature social skills are required to use function words.

The ways people refer to themselves and others is highly reflective of their mental state. The use of 1st person singular (I, me, my) versus 1st person plural (we, us, our) provides insight into one’s social identity and “ownership” of their speaking or writing topic; references to other people suggests an awareness and integration with others (Argamon & Levitan, 2004; Argamon, Koppel & Schler 2005).

Farberow & Marmor (1996), and Prezant & Neimeyer (1988) suggest that suicidal individuals withdraw from social relationships, and while they try to detach from the sources of their pain, become more self-absorbed.

Suicidal Individuals and Language

Emotion Words

Languages differ in the size and range of their emotion vocabularies. Study on emotion lexicons show different number of emotion words in different languages. Russell (1991) reported 2000 emotion words in English (Wallace & Carson, 1973), 1501 in Dutch (Hoekstra, 1986), and 750 emotion words in Taiwanese Chinese (Boucher, 1979). According to Church and associates (1998), in Tagalog (Filipino) there are 256 emotion words. This type of study requires careful specification of what constitutes an emotion word (Clare, et al., 1987).

Content Analysis - A Text Analysis Research Tool

Content analysis is a technique to find words or ideas in texts - essays, books, speeches, conversations, newspaper, conversations, etc. that is, in any incidence of communicative language. Once the presence is determined, the researchers analyze the words in relation to meaning and associations, culture, etc.

The kinds of occurrences may vary in a text. For example, Palmquist (1990) studied two composition classes by analyzing student and teacher interviews, classroom discussions and lectures, and out-of-class interaction sheets.

The procedure of conducting content analysis is to code the text - break it into categories, on different levels such as theme, word sense, word, phrase, sentence, and further analyze by content or conceptual analysis.

Two Categories of Content Analysis

There are two general categories of content analysis: conceptual analysis and relational analysis.

Conceptual analysis refers to ascertain the presence and frequency of ideas/concepts that are often represented by words or phrases in a text. For example, through conceptual analysis one can determine how many times words relating to hunger such as *hungry*, *famished*, or *starving* are used in a volume of poems written by a particular poet.

Relational analysis helps to examine the relationships among concepts in a text. Considering the example of the word *hunger*, one could identify what other words or phrases - *hungry/famished* appear next, and conclude what different meanings emerge as a result of these groupings.

The Process of Content Analysis

In the past, the process of content analysis was a lengthy one as it was conducted manually or by using data punched by humans on cards, run on slow computers. Numerous cards were required for each study. Furthermore, due to the possibility of human error, during the process and time constraints, use of this method was virtually impossible for large texts. Nevertheless, by 1940 content analysis was used as research method mostly for studies that analyzed texts for frequency count of words. Later researchers also started to analyze concepts and relationships related to meaning too (de Sola Pool 1959). Presently, through content analysis method studies on mental state with reference to linguistic, social, cognitive significance are carried out.

Pronouns and Suicide

Pronouns provide lot of information about social relationships, i.e., when a speaker uses ‘we’ or ‘they’ who is referred to, or when ‘I’ is used in what relationship a speaker considers himself or herself rather than concentrating on “you”, the listener.

Stirman and Pennebaker (2001) conducted research on the word use in the poems of suicidal and non-suicidal poets. The result of comparison of the first-person pronouns among the two groups of poets was interesting. Suicidal poets such as Sylvia Plath in a poem about a broken relationship writes, “...I fancied you'd return the way you said, / But I grow old and I forget your name. / (I think I made you up inside my head.)...” . Denise Levertov matched most strongly with Plath who writes of broken love, but by nonexistence of first-person pronouns: “...The ache of marriage: / thigh and tongue, beloved, / are heavy with it, / it throbs in the teeth / we look for communion / and are turned away, beloved, / each and each...”

This pattern of pronoun use was consistent throughout the study, with suicidal poets using “I” at a much greater rate than non-suicidal poets.

Another study by Rude, et al. (2002) on college freshmen who were currently depressed and never-depressed showed that currently depressed students used significantly greater numbers of first-person pronouns in their essays when compared with never-depressed students.

By linguistic analysis of diaries (June 8, 1994 and ending June 20, 1995) written by Katie - a young student who committed suicide, a great amount of information can be gathered from focusing on use of pronouns and how they refer to others, Stone & Pennebaker (2002).

Excerpts of Katie's Diaries

8/22/94 I refuse to eat anymore. I refuse to take care of myself anymore. I'm sick of it - all of the heaviness on my heart. I'm SICK OF ALL OF IT. I WANT TO GO AWAY! I WANT EVERYBODY TO GO AWAY. I WANT TO BE LEFT ALONE. I DON'T WANT TO BE TOUCHED - NOT my body, nor my heart! It hurts. It always hurts. It's no different this time. I feel like I'm being shut out for who I am. I'm so sick OF MY WRITING IN THIS JOURNAL. I HATE IT. I SOUND SO DAMN PATHETIC! I HATE MYSELF. I WANT TO DIE! WHAT I DO ISN'T GOOD ENOUGH!!

11/28/94 It killed me how much I hurt Mark. I want so badly to make him happy and make it up to him. Maybe we got the kinks out. Maybe it's better now. All I know, I hate to argue. I hate it. ... I never want to hurt him again. I will do much better now than I did before. I'll relax and work on being me. I have had a difficult time with my food. I struggle with wanting to be thin, but I know what's really important in life. If I become a strict vegetarian, I'll be ok. I'll lose weight easily. Like my Mom did. I don't want to eat barely any fat. I know I'm obsessing today - understandable. A lot of things are going on inside of me. I'm different than my family. I know a lot more, I think. I think I can make it - somewhere good in life.

2/8/95 I love Mark. He told me that he feels trapped. How could I tell him that I was reading his diary? I feel so awful. I had to know what his intentions were with me. I can't believe I told him all about Chris. I hope he never talks about it again. I feel awful that I hurt him yesterday. So I made myself eat an incredible amount. I wonder if I spoiled his birthday. I didn't mean to, if I did. It's all so awful. I wish he would come here soon so I could make love to him. I do anything and everything for him because he truly deserves it. He has put up with so much crap from me.

In mid-1994, Katie's use "I," "me," or "my," correlated with high usage of present tense verbs, complex language, and more sanguine and sad words. This type of cognitively complex language design indicates that use Katie was preoccupied with herself. This trend of by being focused on the present continued during fall with use of negative emotion words. Her sentences became shorter as well the words which were of common vocabulary that does not indicate cognitive

complexity. Her cognitive direction reverted in initial months of 1995. The pronoun correlation shows that she was thinking about others as well as herself. The language about her indicates negative emotions. Katie's language in March is about the past and present as well as use of words like "understand, know, wonder", that fall in the category of insight language. This indicates retreat into herself for as she increased the use of first-person pronouns she refrained from referring to others. The above given extracts of her diaries reveal:

- Extensive use of first person pronoun and absence of rest of the pronouns (we, they etc).
- While writing to Mark (him, his) & use of less male pronouns it is inferred that while Katie was referring to him her main focus was on herself as to how *she* behaved with Mark.
- Her use of pronouns particularly, abundant use of first person pronouns indicate self absorption that validates findings of previous research.
- The reader/analyst is presented with the picture of a young person who is emotionally struggling with herself and her life.

Social Lexis

The lexis Katie used is indicative that she felt socially isolated e.g. "Alienation and isolation are my dearest friends" is a major theme in her writings.

(8/12/94) I hate people. I don't need anyone – or anything anymore. They treat me like I'm a disease or something ... I hate them all. I know factually that it is harder for me to reach out then for them because I don't have anyone who loves me. No one has proven to me that they love me – only that they'll put up with me.

6/18/95)...Is it so wrong to want to have a family? It's always been such a big dream for me. But my old family life seems to come up now, being alone, abandoned, rejected and neglected. ... It has affected my life with people. It's alienated me from simply [sic] honesty, open personality. ... I'm scared, but I have to tell myself I'll be all right because I've always been by myself....

Rare use of social words, *discuss*, etc., and lack of use of pronoun "we", indicate her social detachment. This is consistent with the findings of previous studies.

Positive and Negative Emotion Lexis

This is consistent with the research of Pennebaker (2001), in which no significant difference was detected in the use of negative and positive emotion words by the suicidal and non-suicidal poets. However, interestingly the use of question marks rose in the final period of her life which could be attributed to shift in viewpoint -a sign of isolation leading to depression.

Other Aspects

6/15/95 It **kills** me inside - not a friend in the world. I feel no connection with anyone, and it scares me so much. The world seems so cold, dark and scary.

No matter what Mrs. W says, I'm alone, alone and left to myself. ... I want to **kill** myself. **Bullet** though my heart - the only way I'll ever stop caring about people. I did try reaching out again for the last time. People are so mean and selfish. I want to **kill** myself on my birthday. I have to.

Though Katie decreased the use of death themed words as compared to the entire entry of her diaries, she increased the use of religious lexis in the final months of her life. The final entry in her diary is in the form of a prayer:

*Please, dear **God**, let me get an A on that test today. It would mean so very much to me. It would help lift my **spirits** higher. It truly would, and please let everything work out wonderfully the rest of the summer and let me accomplish a lot of good things for myself and be healthy and disciplined. Please, dear **God**, bring some wonderful encouraging, unbiased, loving, respecting people in my life....Please, dear **God**, let things pick up in my life beautifully. I want to feel whole inside, instead of being severed in hundreds of little pieces from my own and others' actions. ...Please help me through this and next week, especially things are so hard right now.*

By tracking changes in the language of an individual one can take a peep into the mind. While reading the diaries, the content words reveal her experiences but the slight changes are detectable by focusing on the function words- for they reveal her mental state over the period. Thus, linguistic analyses can prove to be linguistic fingerprint for identification of disturbed individuals, which is vital to curb a tragedy.

A sample of content analysis of a suicidal letter appears as Appendix.

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A Case Review of Tamil Diglossia

Alfred J. Matiki, Ph.D.

Introduction

Since Ferguson published his famous paper on diglossia in 1959, a lot of scholars have tried to follow this scholarship by matching a lot of language situations against the principles of diglossia that he laid out. While such scholarship has uncovered numerous other cases of diglossia (dead or alive) in the world, in some cases the principles have been applied to situations and in ways that the original theory did not intend.

Hudson (1994) rightly notes that the term *diglossia* has acquired a certain degree of ambiguity because of the way it has been used (and misused) by various scholars.

Ferguson (1991) also admits that his theory has probably been misunderstood and, in some cases, the terminology that guided the theory has been extended to cover areas that were not and probably are not in cognizance with the original theory. Ferguson also admits certain weaknesses in his theory.

In the original article, Ferguson (1959:336) defined diglossia as

a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a

very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

It is clear that this definition is a little too inclusive and no hierarchy of the defining principles of diglossia is evident. It is not clear also as to how many of the nine features should apply for a language situation to qualify as diglossic. As a result of these shortcomings, some scholars have zealously applied these principles and diglossified situations that could appropriately be analyzed within the framework of colonial language situations or bilingualism. For instance, Fishman (1977) looks at the relationship between English (or French) and various vernaculars in post colonial areas as constituting diglossic situations.

Recent Work on Diglossia

Recent work on diglossia (see Hudson 1991, Hudson-Edwards 1984, Schiffman 1991, Britto 1991, Ferguson 1991, Walters 1996) has, however, shed more light on the major principles of diglossia.

The two most important defining principles of diglossia are function and acquisition. The other principles - prestige, standardization, stability, grammar, lexicon, and phonology - are only significant to the extent that they help in describing and comparing diglossias (Britto 1991).

In a true diglossic situation, therefore, the two codes will be complementary in their functions with the superposed code (H) being utilized in situations that can easily be characterized as formal while the *underposed* code (L) is used in non formal contexts. In terms of acquisition, the H code is learned through formal means of instruction while the L code is acquired naturally as an L1; the H code does not have native speakers while the L has.

This paper will attempt, therefore, to apply the principles of diglossia outlined above to the case of Tamil. It is important, however, to ground Tamil diglossia within the linguistic culture of South Asia since this geographical area appears to be very rich in diglossias (see Hudson 1994).

Linguistic Culture of South Asia

It is a well known fact that South Asia is linguistically diverse and complex. The culture of South Asia, as Schiffman (1996) points out, has been preoccupied with language matters for a long time. Conceptions about the origin, nature, purpose, and power of language are deep-rooted in the Indic culture. One of the major concerns in the ancient linguistic culture of this region was the preservation of sacred texts and the purity of the language in which these texts were composed. As a result of these concerns, the culture distinguished between pure, sacred language and language for common use. These attitudes about high and low language were

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evident from the earliest times.

This concern for the purity and preservation of language, in part, explains why languages like Sanskrit and Tamil were codified in grammars way back around 500 BCE. It is very likely, therefore, that Tamil diglossia was rooted in this concern for the purity of language.

The Codes in Tamil Diglossia

The literature on Tamil diglossia shows that Tamil has numerous varieties which, in turn, have yielded various forms of diglossic situations or what Schiffman (1996:197) refers to as ‘severe diglossia in Tamil.’ It is obvious that in many cases a single variety is known by several different labels and this contributes to the confusion one finds in the literature on Tamil diglossia. For instance, such labels as Cen Tamil, Literary Tamil, Classical Tamil, probably refer to the same variety. Other varieties include Pandit Tamil, Modern Tamil, Substandard Colloquial Tamil, Standard Colloquial Tamil, Kotun Tamil, Formal Tamil, and so on. Schiffman (1996) is probably right in describing Tamil linguistic culture as multiglossic.

Diasystem

Britto’s (1991) concept of diasystem (a system of varieties), however, is surely a better way of reducing the confusion highlighted above. While Ferguson saw a diasystem only in the L domain, Britto extends this to the H domain. Each of these diasystems is basically a continuum of suboptimally related varieties. A variety qualifies into a diasystem on the basis of the two principle features of diglossia outlined above. Varieties which are acquisitionally and functionally superposed constitute the H diasystem (or simply Tamil H) while the other varieties form the L diasystem (Tamil L).

Function

As noted above, one of the most important defining features of diglossia is the functional complementarity of the two codes. As Ferguson postulated, the H code is appropriate and used in one set of situations while the L code is appropriate and used in another. The two codes may also overlap in a few situations.

Tamil diglossia exhibits this functional complementarity of codes. While the L codes are used in all day-to-day situations, the H codes are used in more formal situations. With respect to the H diasystem, the degree of formality of a situation determines the variety in the H continuum which will be used in that situation. For instance, Cen Tamil, which is on the higher rungs of the H diasystem, is the preferred code in the more formal situations such as religion and education. The other varieties of Tamil H such as Popular H, which are less rigid than Cen Tamil or Literary H, are used in less formal contexts such as newspapers, the radio, television, prose fiction and so on.

The use of Popular H in less formal situations probably explains why it is the most widely used variety of Tamil H. The fact that it is less rigid, simpler than Cen Tamil and that it is close to the L diasystem means that it is accessible to many people. Its use, nonetheless, is restricted to formal situations. Occasionally, it may surface in an L environment for the sake of effect.

Acquisition

All the evidence in the literature indicates that the acquisition of Tamil is invariably in keeping with Ferguson's description. Tamil H is learned in school and through other formal means of instruction while Tamil L is acquired naturally as one's first language (L1). The classical loop feedback between function and acquisition is evident here. The H code cannot be acquired as anybody's native language because it has no native speakers from whom one can acquire it.

Prestige

Ferguson indicated that speakers hold the H code in high esteem compared to the L codes and that in some cases speakers deny ever using the L codes because of the stigma that they carry. In Tamil diglossia, only Cen Tamil is regarded as more prestigious than the other H varieties and the L varieties. The reverence for Cen Tamil, as shown above, is firmly grounded in religion and the desire to keep the code pure. An appropriate infrastructure that oversees the purity and preservation of Cen Tamil has been in place for centuries and includes priests and Tamil grammarians.

Stability

The brief historical background of the linguistic culture of South Asia provided above seems to show that Tamil diglossia has existed for centuries. The emergency of such codes as Popular H and Standard Colloquial Tamil is probably a resolution of the normal communicative tensions that arise in diglossic situations.

In terms of a literary tradition, there is ample evidence that a sizable body of literature has existed, particularly in Cen Tamil, from the earliest stages of the diglossic situation. The (re)discovery of ancient Tamil literature by such Tamil scholars as U.Ve.Cuvaminataiyar established the existence of a vibrant literary heritage of pre-Aryan Tamil culture. The development of the Pure Tamil Movement was motivated mostly by this discovery.

It is very likely that the diglossic situation in Tamil Nadu (Tamilnadu) will persist for a long time because of the symbolic values that Tamil H and Tamil L have (Britto 1991). Another reason for the maintenance of Tamil diglossia is that the current Tamil orthography is only appropriate for representing Tamil H. Unless there are deliberate attempts to alter the status of Tamil H, it is very unlikely that the diglossic situation in Tamil Nadu will end soon.

It should be noted, however, that the maintenance of Tamil diglossia does not necessarily mean
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A Case Review of Tamil Diglossia

that there will not be any changes, particularly in the domains in which each code is used. Schiffman (1996), for instance, shows that political speeches were once restricted to Tamil H.

Note that Schiffman (1996:198) uses Fishman's (1980:4) taxonomy of diglossia and classifies Tamil diglossia into classical H and vernacular L. Schiffman is aware, however, of the "range of styles of Tamil that is in use in various domains, from the classical through modern literary to educated spoken, regional spoken dialects, and non-standard colloquial dialects." Presently, however, these speeches are for the most part delivered in Tamil L. The domain shifts are likely to occur from Popular H to Standard Colloquial Tamil since this H variety is not strictly policed by the grammarians and more importantly because it is the closest to the L diasystem. The stability between Cen Tamil and Tamil L is, however, likely to persist.

Other Features of Tamil Diglossia

There is documented evidence that Tamil H is distinguishable from Tamil L at both the phonological and morphological levels. All Tamil words are pronounced differently in H and L diasystems with very few exceptions. The differences are caused by a number of phonological processes in the L and include nasalization, monophthongization, vowel lowering, assimilation, and lateral deletion.

At the morphological level, a number of morphemes such as quotative particles, conditional clause markers, and perfective aspect suffixes appear in Tamil L as bound forms and in H as free forms. These differences are noted when H and L are compared and contrasted as diasystems. It is very likely that there would be more differences if Cen Tamil, as an isolated variety of the H diasystem, is compared and contrasted with the other H varieties and the L diasystem.

The lexicon of the two codes, H and L, does not show the kind of lexical variations that Ferguson noted in his defining diglossic situations. Ferguson (1959:334) noted, for example, that in many diglossic situations there are "many paired items, one H one L, referring to fairly common concepts frequently used in both H and L." There is no adequate evidence in Tamil diglossia for the existence of such lexemes. The lexicon, as noted earlier is not one of the most important distinguishing features of a diglossic situation. Lack of evidence for paired lexical items in Tamil diglossia does not, therefore, detract the legitimacy of this particular diglossia.

Conclusion

It seems quite reasonable to conclude that Tamil is one of the clear examples of diglossia. Although scholarship in this diglossic situation seems to have created a labyrinth of crisscrossing diglossias, the concept of diasystem seems to distinguish clearly between Tamil H and Tamil L. It has been noted that Tamil diglossia has existed for centuries and that there is no evidence of an imminent challenge to this stable situation.

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Comparison of Markedness of Lexical Semantic Abilities in Normal Children and Children with Hearing Impairment

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What Is Markedness?

Any patterns that are present but uncommon in the languages of the world (or in a specific language) are termed as markedness features (Veeman, 1998). The notion of markedness is applied to the semantics of a particular language: using the term unmarked refers to the more general or expected element of a pair of opposites. In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature (Crystal, 1980). A marked form is a non-basic or less-natural form. An unmarked form is a basic, default form. For example, lion is the unmarked choice of English – it could refer to a male or female lion. But lioness is marked because it can only refer to females.

Semantics (Greek *semantikos*, giving signs, significant, symptomatic, from *sema*, sign) refers to the aspects of meaning that are expressed in a language, code, or other form of representation. Lexical semantics is a subfield of linguistics. It is the study of how and what the words of a language denote (Pustejovsky, 1995). Words may either be taken to denote things in the world, or concepts, depending on the particular approach to lexical semantics.

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Comparison of Markedness of Lexical Semantic Abilities in Normal Children and Children with Hearing Impairment

Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH)

After the advent of generative linguistic theory in the 1960s and its subsequent expansion into areas such as second language acquisition (e.g. White 1982), the concept was incorporated into the field with convincing predictive and explanatory powers in the form of Eckman's (1977) Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH): "The areas of difficulty that a language learner will have can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the grammars of the native language, the target language and the markedness relations stated in universal grammar".

Since then, the notion of markedness has been extensively used as a tool to explain L2 acquisition phenomena (Yavaş 2006, Yavaş and Barlow 2006, Cardoso 2007). More recently, there has been a major shift in linguistics with the emergence of usage-based approaches that support the notion that linguistic representation (i.e., competence, in generative terms) is mediated by the frequency with which certain linguistic structures occur in the language (Gass 1997, Bybee 2001, Demuth 2001).

An Important Concept

Markedness is one of the most widely, and wildly, used terms in linguistics, and its senses range from a very narrow, structure-based notion of relative complexity to an extremely open sense of "unusual" or "unnaturalness."

A recent definition of markedness located somewhere in the middle of the notional continuum is put forward by Givón (1995), who writes that "three main criteria can be used to distinguish the marked from the unmarked category in a binary grammatical contrast: first one being structural complexity (the marked structure tends to be more complex than the corresponding unmarked one), frequency distribution (the marked category tends to be less frequent, thus cognitively more salient, than the corresponding unmarked category), cognitive complexity (the marked category tends to be cognitively more complex—in terms of mental effort, attention demands or processing time—than the unmarked one)" (Givón, 1995). For instance, (Givón, 1991) claims that passive structures are more difficult to process than active structures.

According to Chomsky (1981), the theory of markedness "imposes a preference structure on the parameters of UG (Universal Grammar). In the absence of evidence to the contrary, unmarked options are selected". In other words, "the unmarked case of any parameter represents the initial hypothesis that children make about the language to be acquired" (Kean 1992; Haider 1993). In Chomsky & Halle (1968), the idea was proposed that markedness values are not just present in language – particular mental grammars, but are in some way defined at the level of the innate cognitive code for language (Universal Grammar or UG).

Concept of Markedness and the Concept of Universals

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The concept of markedness follows naturally from the concept of universals. Structures that are consistent with universals are considered unmarked, and those that are inconsistent with universals are considered marked. The markedness theory implies that the unmarked members should be easier to process, recall and learn and hence, acquired early in childhood.

According to Chomsky (1981), the theory of markedness “imposes a preference structure on the parameters of UG (Universal Grammar). In the absence of evidence to the contrary, unmarked options are selected”. In other words, “the unmarked case of any parameter represents the initial hypothesis that children make about the language to be acquired” (Kean 1992; Haider 1993). In Chomsky & Halle (1968), the idea was proposed that markedness values are not just present in language-particular mental grammars, but are in some way defined at the level of the innate cognitive code for language (Universal Grammar or UG).

Paucity of Studies on Markedness Abilities in Both Western and Indian Contexts

Therefore, markedness abilities give us an overview of semantic maturity of children in both normal children as well as children with language disorders. But there is a dearth of studies on markedness abilities in children in both Western and Indian context in normal milieu and also there are no studies available on language disordered children. Therefore, there is a strong need to study the development of these markedness abilities in normal children and in children with HI.

Aim of the study

- To study whether the so called marked words (semantically complex words) were present/absent in the clinical population of HI or not.
- To compare the vocabulary of marked words in HI with the normal subjects.

Method

Subjects: A total of 95 children comprising of both normal children and children with HI were taken for this study. 75 normal children in the age range of 5 – 10 years were grouped into five groups with age interval of one year with each group consisting of 15 children. 20 children with HI in the age range of 5 – 10 years were categorized into five groups based on their chronological age with each group consisting of 4 children.

All the normal children were native speakers of Kannada and had English as their medium of instruction in school. Only children with congenital severe to profound sensorineural hearing loss (hearing loss above 70dBHL) and who were native speakers of Kannada were taken as second group.

Subject selection criteria:

- Children of all age groups must have Kannada as mother tongue.
- Use of Kannada extensively at home and other ambient.
- Degree of hearing impairment ranging from severe to profound in children with sensori-neural type of hearing impairment.
- These subjects were categorized for their socio status based on Socio Economic Status scale (Venkatesan, 2004).

Material

The material consisted of a total of 210 stimuli which were printed on white cards (4 x 6"). The 210 stimuli were divided into four subsections like present tense, past tense, nouns and adjectives/adverbs. All the responses were recorded on a response sheet and also recorded on a tape recorder for detailed analysis later. All the stimuli in the list had a semantically marked form and its corresponding unmarked form. Most frequent nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs were selected in proportion to their frequency of occurrence in consultation with two linguists and two speech language pathologists.

Procedure: Test administration included the presentation of the picture stimuli individually for all the subjects. The oral responses on the task of naming were recorded using a suitable tape recorder for the purpose of transcription (IPA). A score of zero was given for each incorrect response and a score of one was given to each correct response and the total scores were calculated for each subsection and also overall. The results were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

Results and Discussion

The data was analysed and interpreted by using SPSS 10.0 software. The mean and standard deviation of each age group from the age range of 5 to 10 years were calculated for both normal children and children with hearing impairment.

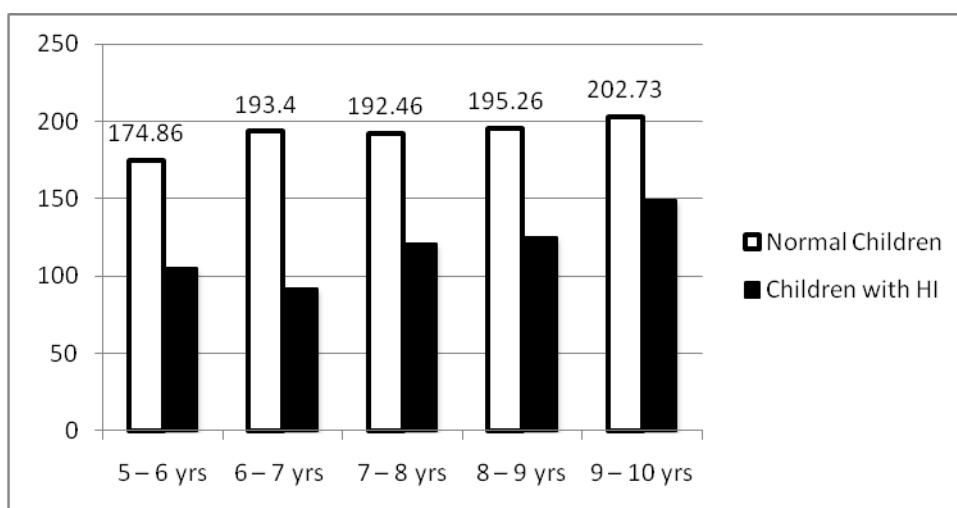
The performance of the normal children across the age groups was analysed. Children of age 5 to 6 years obtained a mean score of 174.86 with standard deviation of 13.09. For the age range of 6 to 7 years had a mean score of 193.40 with the standard deviation of 30.06, for 7 to 8 years had a mean score of 192.46 with the standard deviation 5.11, for 8 to 9 years, the mean score was 195.26 with standard deviation of 3.411 and the age group of 9 to 10 years had a mean score of 202.73 with the standard deviation of 4.18. The overall result shows an increase in mean scores as the age increases.

Table 1: Mean and S.D. of normal children and of children with HI.

Age Range	Normal children		Children with HI	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
5 – 6 years	174.86	13.09	105.00	21.32
6 – 7 years	193.40	30.06	92.00	33.11
7 – 8 years	192.46	5.11	120.75	38.98
8 – 9 years	195.26	3.411	125.25	15.28
9 – 10 years	202.73	4.18	148.75	23.66

The performance of the hearing impaired children across the age range of 5 to 10 years was analyzed. Children of age 5 to 6 years had a mean score of 105.00 with standard deviation of 21.32. For the age range of 6 to 7 years the mean score obtained was 92.00 with standard deviation of 33.11, children in the age range of 7 to 8 years had a mean score of 120.75 with the standard deviation 38.98, for 8 to 9 years, mean score was 125.25 with standard deviation of 15.28 and the children in the age group of 9 to 10 years had a mean score of 148.75 with the standard deviation of 23.66. The overall result shows an increase in mean scores as the age increases. The results are shown in Figure 1. .

Figure 1: Graph representing mean values of normal children and children with HI.



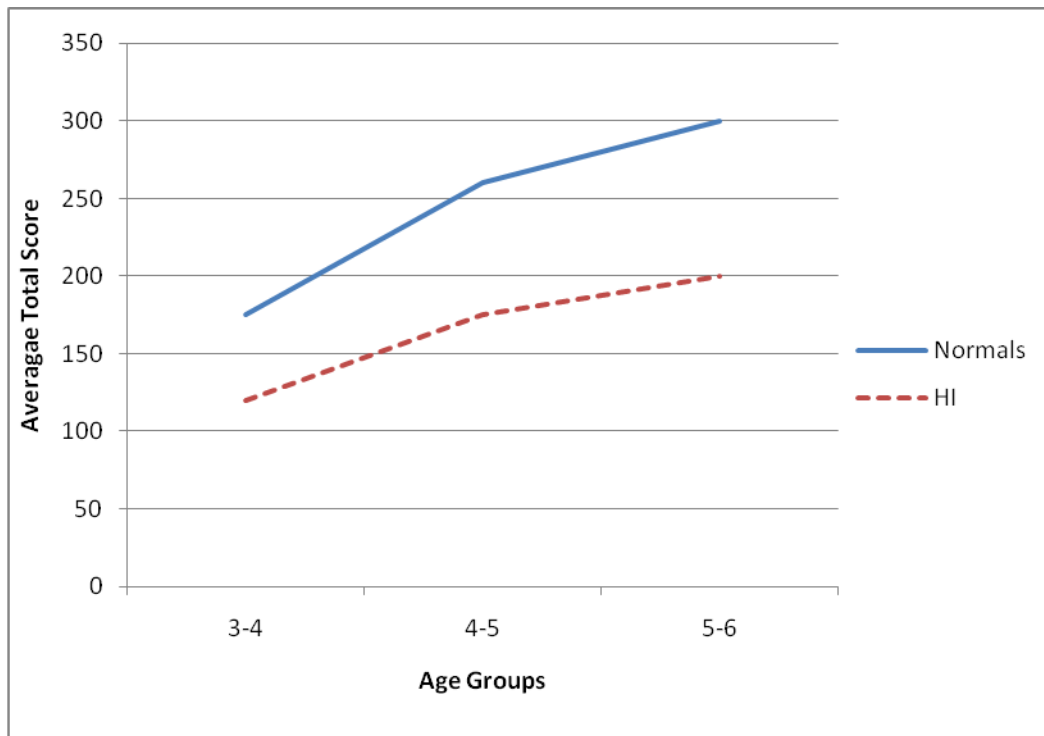
Independent sample t- test was done to compare the performance of two groups across each age range separately. Results show that there is a significant difference between performance of normal children and children with HI across all age groups as shown in table 2.

Table 2: Results of Independent Samples t – Test.

Age range	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
5 – 6 years	6.246	3.626	.005
6 – 7 years	5.545	4.418	.004
7 – 8 years	3.671	3.028	.034
8 – 9 years	9.102	3.080	.003
9 – 10 years	4.543	3.050	.019

Comparisons of normal and clinical hearing impaired children are given based on their mental age. For comparison within the mental age, three age groups were considered 3 to 4 years, 4 to 5 years and 5 to 6 years. Normal children within the age group of 3 to 6 years were taken for comparison. Mann-Whitney Test was used to compare between each groups, (5% level of significance). Each age group of 3-4, 4-5 and 5-6 years of typically developing children were compared with HI. The results are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Comparison of performance of normal children and hearing impaired based on the mental age.



This study revealed a significant difference in markedness abilities between normal children and in children with HI. As the results suggests, normal children of 5 to 10 years age did not achieve mastery of markedness abilities and they exhibited difficulties in markedness abilities in spite of good language exposure. Probably this could be attributed to lesser use of marked words in the common every day, colloquial context. The performance of children with HI was very poor when compared to normal children. This can be attributed to the overall inferior language abilities that these children have. For markedness abilities in lexical semantics, knowledge of semantics and the vocabulary is very much required. It is alarming that HI children lag behind in lexical semantics in spite of the fact that the vocabulary and semantics are the most easily and earlier chronologically acquired with respect to language development. The same therefore, needs to be focused in therapy.

Conclusion

The developmental trend was seen in both the normal as well as HI groups, confirming the fact that markedness occurs with growth and development of language. The normal children also showed deficits indicating deficits in input and usage in that, marked words are less used in common everyday colloquial context. The extremely poor performance of HI children on marked words indicates greater emphasis that is needed on enhancement of vocabulary and semantics during therapeutic intervention. Future research is needed in terms of finding the markedness abilities in different clinical populations with communication disorders, various linguistic levels

viz., phonological, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic and also markedness abilities needs to be studied in different Indian languages in both normal and clinical population.

Implications of the Study

It is hoped that the present study will add to the clinical-research field of the SLP professionals in the following ways:

- Establishing the clinical relevance of Markedness theory.
- Contributing to the knowledge and understanding of linguistic behavior.
- The results of the present study can be utilized :-
 - (a) To develop diagnostic test materials for DSL with HI children.
 - (b) To prepare therapy materials to teach lexical items in a hierarchical manner starting from the unmarked ones to the marked ones.
 - (c) To compare the sequence of typical lexical development in terms of marked/unmarked semantic features, versus the loss of lexical abilities in adulthood disorders like aphasia.

This study gives an idea about the development of markedness abilities in normal children and in children with HI. These markedness abilities give an overview of development of semantics in these children. Therefore, markedness abilities can be used as an assessment procedure for semantic development in children and same hierarchy of unmarked to marked features can be used in therapeutic management of children with semantic deficits.

Scope for Further Research

Based on the present study, further investigations may be carried out for:

- different clinical populations with communication disorders.
- various linguistic levels viz., phonological, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic.
- different Indian languages

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Social Effects and Other Impediments in Teaching Literature

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Abstract

Does literature help students to learn a language? Why the English teacher uses literature in language class? What are the main problems in teaching literature in language classroom? Should we, as teachers, keep the students far from literature?

Literature is an authentic material and it encourages interaction among the learners and also it expands language awareness. Literature educates the whole person and motivates the people. It will teach a person about the society and world.

But it is not so simple a job to motivate learners towards learning a language while teaching literature. We think that there is an urgent need to balance the learning of technical skills in English with the studies in Literature.

This paper is an attempt to explain the social effects and other complications in teaching literature. It deals with the objectives and problems in teaching literature in language classroom.

Introduction

This paper tries to unfold the socio-sanitary effects of teaching literature in English class room. It also focuses on the problems of teaching literature in English classroom. It is the teachers' responsibility to bring about a healthy balance between literature-heavy leaning and extreme language-only orientation that we notice in our colleges. Teaching literature in the language classroom could be interesting and effective.

There is correlation between literature and language in many ways. Unless a person learns a language, he cannot think of literature. Viswanadha Rao wrote that language and literature are the right eye and the left eye, the sun and the moon of all human expression (T. Viswanadha Rao, 2007: 144). The important explanation of literature is that literary texts are products that reflect different aspects of society. They are cultural documents which offer a deeper understanding of a country or countries (Basnet and Mounfold 1993). There is no inherent quality to a literary text that makes a literary text; rather it is the interpretation that the reader gives to the text (Eagleton, 1983).

Literature means "pieces of writing that are valued as works of art, especially novels, plays and poems" (A. S. Hornby, 2010: 898). Though we have many definitions and arguments regarding literature, the real thing is that literature deals with lives of human and other beings. Literature is intellectually inspiring because a book can take a reader to imaginative world. This is done through the use of descriptive language. That is why we say that language and literature are depending on each other.

Objectives of the Study

1. To find out the language needs in teaching literature in English language classroom.
2. To know the syllabus of literature in text books
3. The problems that English teachers face during teaching literature are identified.
4. To find out solutions for the problems of teaching literature in language classroom.

The importance of literature in ELT

Teaching literature needs specific skills. Literature does not mean 'English literature' or "serious or high literature". It also includes literature from other cultures, children's literature as well as popular literature. Literature holds high status in many cultures and countries. For this reason, students can feel a real sense of achievement when they understand and appreciate a piece of highly respected literature. Also, literature is often more interesting than the texts found in course books. Literature encourages interaction among the learners and educates the whole person. By examining values in literary texts, teachers encourage learners to develop attitudes towards them. These values and attitudes relate to the world outside the classroom.

We would like to discuss many points of teaching literature in language classroom. If we want to know a language, we must know something of the literature of a language. Literature has been taught as a subject in many countries at the secondary or tertiary level. Literature will help students in many ways but unfortunately literature is not given that much of importance as other subjects. Can any one become a good and voracious reader or fluent in English without touching literature? No.

Literature is neither preferred in school curriculum nor in engineering programs. In school books, small stories and narrations are incorporated. In India, English language has more demand than literature. When a teacher teaches literature, students may be attentive to story, not for the nuances of language. If a person keeps his concentration on language during reading a story or novel, the importance of story is reduced and that is what is happening in India. The prominent fact is that one can learn a language by reading. If we read for pleasure, literature will help learners and teachers. Unfortunately, teachers as well as students, most of the times, do not read literature for learning a language.

Problems in Teaching Literature in English Language Classroom

Though we have many problems in teaching literature in India, the main problem is that while studying literary pieces prescribed for them in their classes, etc., students focus on the story, not on the language. The students should focus on language use in the literary pieces they study. Most of the students try to translate the statement through the grammatical rules. As Gambhir (1991) said: "...The most important thing for second language learners is to be able to acquire or assimilate rules as to what different structures may mean in different social situations in a given language...", and again: "...The format of the classroom and teaching materials has to be as far as possible close to natural socio-linguistic situations that a person is likely to encounter in the target society. The classroom should be less of formal academic centre where the teacher is explaining how a language works and students are taking notes; or, a teacher is making students drill key structures of a language. A language classroom should emphasize activities which take place in real life communication rather than pattern rehearsal..."

Why Only for the Undergraduate Classes? Why Not also for Professional Degree Courses?

The other problem is that literature course is served for only the general UG course students. The technical, law, medicine and other professional course students do not have the literature course in their curriculum. This is also one of the reasons for the students to avoiding the study/reading of literature. Literature is to be offered under properly planned divisions of the syllabus into units and sub-units to ensure conscious learning of language structures, and an insight into how the same could be used for producing connected compositions in oral and written discourses. The generally poor response of students in literature classes in English is indicative of the fact that a good deal needs to be done to make classes interesting, participatory and interactive. When literature is offered, the teacher has to make the book practically as many times conveniently broken up into inter-linkable parts as possible.

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Social Effects and Other Impediments in Teaching Literature

The solution lies in our successful effort in making the syllabus sensitive to the challenges students may face in their life and career. We have to demonstrate clearly the need for the students in engineering, medicine and other professional courses students to study literature including communicative English as part of their curriculum.

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**Aligning the Connotations of Love and Freedom in
the Novels of Iris Murdoch**

Tanu Kashyap, M.Phil., Ph.D.

Women Writers in English

Women have been writing in English since the 18th century. Some of the most famous novelists have been Jane Austen, George Eliot, Charlotte Bronte, Emily Bronte and Virginia Woolf, to name a few.

Iris Murdoch

Iris Murdoch is a contemporary woman novelist who has given a new meaning to the existence of women novelists with a new connotation to the meaning of love and freedom in her novels. Iris Murdoch's novels have deep impressions of French Existentialist Movement. She read Jean Paul Sartre's *La Nause* in 1945. She had a close encounter with war and devastations during her stint as UNRRA volunteer working for the refugees in Belgium and Austria. In the back drop of bloodshed and depravation love and freedom acquired a new dimension in the Murdoch's literature.

To assert Iris Murdoch as a major contemporary writer is to suggest something of the post-war novel in Britain. With the publication of her first novel *UNDER THE NET* (1954), she emerged not only as one of the most productive and influential British novelists of her generation but also as a powerful intellectual and original theorist of fiction. The increasingly evident liveliness and variety of British fiction since the war has contrasted very curiously with a sense of restraint

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about aesthetic discussion of the novel. She has emphasized that she aimed to write as a realist, in an identifiable “nineteenth century tradition of English and European fiction”. ¹ When Murdoch says that she is a realist, she probably means that her writing is inevitably concerned with the contemporary conditions.

Iris Murdoch has indicated the difficulties and the potential of contemporary fiction, especially in the British tradition. Both her view and her practice reflect the novel today. To some critics, it seems as though her writing career enacts a retreat into the safety of an anti-modernist position. Such people find it hard to accept the claim that she advances in an age of aesthetic and epistemological uncertainty. She has very strong admiration for nineteenth century ‘great’ writers (Tolstoy, Dostoevsky, and Dickens) and what lay behind their achievements - Shakespeare, whom she has described more than once as a ‘patron saint.’

Bernard Bergonzi quotes Iris Murdoch in his book *Situation of the Novel*:

I think it's true that the patterns which keeps up the structure in my work- I think this is true of a lot novelists writing today- are sexual, mythological, psychological patterns, and not the great rub of society which a nineteenth century writers relied on. Of course, in the writers like Dickens and many others one could think of, both sorts of structure obviously exists together. I regard my difference from then as a short coming – this is something I wish I could solve or get over in my own work. But the whole question of structure is harder – there are probably other reasons we've discussed, the nature of society having changed and one's confidence in it having so largely evaporated.

Character in Contemporary Novel

Murdoch's theoretical position owes much to not her ‘other’ career as one of Britain's leading moral philosophers but to her habit of reading and thinking which displays a carefully cultivated, historically aware and genuinely international literary sensibility. It arises from strong conceptions of the role of art in the society as an instrument of human knowledge. We have to grant her convictions about the humanistic value of the nineteenth century realism and the importance of realizing ‘character’ in the contemporary novel. At the same time, she was acquainted with the currents in the intellectual life of post-war France and works of Elias Canetti and admired the contemporary exponents of ‘Fantasy realism’ such as Gabriel Garcia Marquez.

A normative note emerges in Iris Murdoch's essay:

Real people are destructive of myth; contingency is destructive of fantasy, and opens the way for the imagination. Think of the Russians the great masters of the contingency of course may turn art into journalism. But since reality is incomplete, art must not be too much afraid of incompleteness. Literature must always present a battle between real people and images; and what it requires is a much stronger and more complex conception than the former. ²

Love and Freedom

‘Love’ and ‘Freedom’ are among the most essential features of Iris Murdoch’s ethical cannons. Love for Murdoch means realization on the part of the lover, of the otherness of the other. In her essay ‘The Sublime and the good’ she wrote –

Love is the perception of individuals. Love is the extremely difficult realization that something other than oneself is real. Love and so art and morals, is the discovery of reality. **3**

‘Love’ comprises the fundamental functional principle of art and morality, ‘Freedom’ is another idea to which she was deeply committed. In her essay ‘The darkness of practical reason’ published in the 1966 July issue of *Encounter*, Murdoch expressed the view that freedom is ‘to exist safely without fear and to perceive what is real’ and that ‘one who perceives what is real will also act rightly.’ **4**

Thus, in Murdoch’s scheme for aesthetic and ethical values ‘Love’ and ‘Freedom’ constitute the central concerns underpinned by a revolt against conviction and fantasy, defiance of the neurotic ego on the one hand, and assertion of sanity, fearlessness, perception of reality and righteousness of action, on the other.

Love constitutes the basic focal point of Murdoch’s aesthetic conception. Her thesis of Love is not selfish but it regards the otherness of the other and leads towards the directions of realization. Critics have more often struck blows at her for they felt that there has been forceful projection of sex in her novels. Iris Murdoch very forcefully replied to such allegations that sex is a great mistier and the struggle between love and sex is part of the drama of her most important novels. She goes to the extent of saying that virtue in the artist and the good man is the product of a selfless attention to nature, something easy to name and hard to achieve.

Iris Murdoch further says

The essence of both (art and morality) is love. Love is the perception of individuals. Love is extremely difficult realization that someone other than one’s self is real. Love, and so art and morals, is the discovery of reality. **5**

She further says-

Art comes from the deeper soul where a great force lives, and this force is sex and love and desire-desire for power, desire for possession, desire for knowledge, desire for God- what makes us good or bad –without this force there is no art and no science either. **6**

Originality of Murdoch’s Novels

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‘Freedom’, which again is a forceful device, leads towards reality and makes one, see through illusions. The originality of Murdoch’s novels is that they are full of a sense of what it means to come from one of the luckier, stable societies, or sections within that society, in an unlucky century, but avoids false piety about either that luck or misfortune. The make-believe of ordinary life and the painful destruction of ordinary human illusions serve as the basic theme of Murdoch’s novels.

The open novel contains a lot of characters who rush about independently, each one eccentric and self centered; the plot to some extent situates them in a pattern but does not integrates them into a single system. The closed novel has a fewer characters and tends to draw them, as it were, towards a single point. UNDER THE NET and THE FLIGHT FROM THE ENCHANTER were, I think closed, THE SAND CASTLE and THE BELL were open. The advantage of the open novel is that it is bright and airy and the characters move about freely; it is more like life as it is normally lived. Its disadvantage is that it may become loose in the texture and it is more difficult to make the structure evident. A closed novel more intensely integrated but may be none. Claustrophobic in atmosphere and the characters may lose their sense of freedom has attacked both ‘self knowledge’ and ‘sincerity’.

The flip-flop between open and closed works is that it clearly reflects a conflict between Murdoch’s desire to set her characters ‘free’ and her beliefs that human beings are profoundly un-free. Her exploration of such matters is interesting. Her work presents a curious fact about us as far as shedding of illusions is concerned but as discard them, there always seems the need to shed a few more.

Under the Net

UNDER THE NET gave Iris Murdoch entry into the literary arena. Throughout the novel the protagonist, Jake lives in the world of convention and fantasy, deeply stressed as he is in the state of neurotic egotism and insanity. It is only in the end that Jake is freed of his illusions when he enters the world of love and freedom which brings him the state of true self realization.

The novel charts out the various ups and downs in the life of Jake Donahue, a writer in his thirties. The philosophical burden of the novel’s argument and its compressed aesthetic dimension has defined the contours of spiritual odyssey. For the epitaph of her novel Iris Murdoch chose a quotation from Dryden’s “THE SECULAR MASQUE” which aptly defines the parameters and framework within which the novel’s themes operates-

All, all of a piece throughout
Thy chase has a beast in view
Thy wars brought nothing about
Thy Lovers were untrue.

‘Tis well an old Age is, out
And time to begin a New;

Jake is always chasing someone or something, or some dream, idea or person. All the girls that come in his life are mere illusions and he realizes that if he has to realize his true being he has to come out of his world of make belief and see his true being. His idea of love shatters for he could not realize the otherness of his beloved; he was not prepared to acknowledge the existence of her perceptions and her space. The over possessiveness on Jake's part cost him a relationship. Both the themes of 'Love' and 'freedom' are intermingling and go hand in hand in the Murdoch's scheme of things.

Bruno's Dream

BRUNO'S DREAM (1969) tells the story of Bruno Greensleave who has failed in life, professionally as an archeologist, personally as a husband and as a stamp collector. He is bed ridden and cannot do anything without the help of the maids. He is living in his past and cannot come out of his dreams of being a successful person which in actuality he could never become. There are undertones of the Buddhist philosophy too. Bruno is depicted to be a God fearing man and through him Murdoch gives us the message that had Bruno given space to his wife, his relationship would not have suffered. He failed to show his acceptance to the otherness of the other hence the relation failed. He is not able to free himself from the yesterday and is a thinking of those moments and chasing those illusions. It is only when his box of stamps is swept in the water that he feels that his connection with his past ends and he is free from his make beliefs. This novel has abundance of symbolism.

The Sea, The Sea

THE SEA, THE SEA (1978) is narrated in first person and Charles Arrowby is the protagonist of the novel. He is an ex- theatrical director. He starts residing near the sea in the lonely house called Shroff End. The word *shroff* means black. It is said to be haunted by Mrs. Chorney. But he is not bothered by this fact. He enjoys himself by taking bath in the sea. He is busy writing his diary cum autobiography and starts registering all events of his life, his love affairs, his career, his plays, his uncle, his aunt.

There is no trace of civilization in the place where Charles lives. There is no electricity, or any traces of modernity. The juxtaposed situation is present in London, a place with theatre, parties, people, pomp and show. He had inclination towards theatre and it seemed to him as place to deceive people. Theatre to Charles seems to be a place of obsession and a place where actors very easily deceive the spectators. Charles had a number of affairs but none qualified to be called Love. The reason was his obsessive nature and he could not understand the need to give her space. Iris Murdoch says "Real Love is free and sane" (p. 89)

A Thin Line of Demarcation

Love and Freedom which are the centripetal concept of Murdoch's scheme of things have a thin line of demarcation. Love for Iris Murdoch is devoid of possessiveness and gives a chance to realize the otherness. It should not constitute of a feeling of superiority or of giving the highest place to a lover besides God but should lead towards the human weakness and follies besides advantages. Freedom in Murdoch's value system is a path towards realization of the otherness of other through fearlessness.

The Role of Self-knowledge and Sincerity

Murdoch has attacked both 'self knowledge' and 'sincerity' as second rate and delusive virtues. She has argued that both French existential and English linguistic philosophy are heirs of Romanticism and share a common voluntarism, a romantic over emphasis on the will. Both separate the moral agent from all that surrounds him (hero) and in the will as if it was or could easily be free, wholly ignored the personality and huge daunting power of its secrets, fragmentary, opaque and obsessive inner self. The unenlightened self is mechanical and escape from it is hard. Self examination strengthens its power.

In 1970, Murdoch attacked the contemporary hero -

The lonely brave man: defiant without pretensions, always an explorer of shams, whose mode of being is a deep criticism of society. He is an adventurer. He is Godless. He does not suffer from guilt. He thinks of himself as free. He may be self- assertive or even violent, but he has sincerity and courage, and for this we forgive him. ⁷

Success both as a Novelist and Philosopher

It is rare to find someone who has excelled, as has Murdoch both as a novelist and as a philosopher. The precedent at which she looks up to at various points is the founder of European philosophy, Plato. In 1968, Murdoch called herself a Platonist. She depicted Plato in 'The sovereignty of the Good'. She has described would-be saints and would-be artists. The saint is unconsciously good and, for him, it is the actions that count. The artist is consciously and aesthetically creating his life.

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Spiritual Communication and Managerial Effectiveness

Harish Shukla, M.Phil., Ph.D., and D. P. Mishra, Ph.D.

Abstract

Effectiveness in terms of achievement of results by managers has always been the prime concern and motto of the owners of the business. The problem of developing effective managerial skills is compounded because the skills are more difficult to program when one has less environmental certainty. Effectiveness has been the prime objective of all the managers who believe in quality of output from themselves as well as by their subordinates.

It is communication that is the basis of all the good decisions; the decisions when implemented properly bear the fruits of results. These results stamp the managers as Effective Managers. It may be secondary for some managers how they achieve results using unethical practices. This success is short-lived.

Spiritual communication inspires managers to achieve objectives assigned to them and their team by their top management using ethical and qualitative ways. This paper discusses the factors that help managers achieve their results using spirituality and spiritual communication.

Introduction

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Spiritual Communication and Managerial Effectiveness

One of the most important aspects of our lives is the communication we share with friends and people we meet. Our interactions are the source of new information, new appreciation of others and their problems and troubles, and better understanding of ourselves.

However, probably, the most important benefit of human interaction is the impact on our emotions and beliefs. Good interactions will help us create a realistic image of ourselves, help us to grow emotionally and spiritually, and help us to define what we believe. The growth will result in an ability to cope with the troubles that the world will throw at us. Having a good basis of belief about ourselves, God, and how we fit into the universe is critical for our ability to grow and thrive in difficult circumstances.

The Role of Spirituality

Spirituality, in real sense, is inculcating and imbibing virtues and divine qualities. Spirituality deals with enlightening one's thoughts, emotions and intrinsic tendencies. In simple terms it is the most evolved and comprehensive science of psychological, sociological and moral development, and ultimate progress. It brightens the intellect together with inculcation of sensitivity towards fellow beings and towards the grace of Nature.

Defining Spiritual Communication

Spiritual communication means conveying of message without spoken words. It demands awakening of mind. It generates pure thoughts capable of being executed that can lead to success for self as well as others in the given field.

Spiritual communication is an errorless and transparent technique that can be used for enlightening human life by utilizing available resources effectively.

Spiritual communication is a very ancient technique and heritage of our country. Modern science is capable of great inventions and innovations but it is ignorant of this skill. It is this skill that generates the inner potential of man.

Work Place Spirituality – Undue Importance on Techniques

Cathy Driscoll and Elden Wiebe (2007) assess the current state of workplace spirituality from the philosophical perspective of Jacques Ellul and show how the workplace spirituality movement has not escaped the infiltration and pervasiveness of technique.

First, they describe Ellul's notion of technique. They then demonstrate how the workplace spirituality movement presently displays the hallmarks of technique in its quest for results and facts, in its use of experts, and in the broadening and hence dissolution of the notion of spirituality.

The authors highlight several scholars who have raised concerns and critiques of the movement in its technical form. They suggest some possibilities for moving toward an authentic spirituality at work followed by some implications for undertaking scholarly research on workplace spirituality that explicitly recognizes technical dominance in spirituality. It is incumbent on those of us involved in workplace spirituality to resist its domination and find ways of fostering authenticity in spirituality at work.

In Times of Economic Setbacks

Beatty, Richard W. and Morgan, Cyril P. (2009) in their article focus on developing skills for management effectiveness in times of economic setbacks. In times of economic uncertainty, there seems to be a cry for more and better managerial talent. Part of this may be due to estimates that management personnel reach only forty percent of possible effectiveness while production workers may reach seventy five percent of their capacity.

These estimates and the need for improved managerial talent when the economy is declining apply not only to business organizations but also to public agencies and charitable institutions, as the public demands better products and services at lower costs.

The managerial skills necessary for organizations to survive come from assumptions about today's organizations. The most central of these is that more than ever before people must manage in a turbulent environment and managers must have skills to cope.

Relationship between Spiritual Well-being and Ethical Orientation

Fernando, Mario and Chowdhary, Rafi (2010) examined the relationship between spiritual well-being and ethical orientations in decision making through a survey of executives in organizations listed on the Australian Stock Exchange.

The four domains of spiritual well-being, personal, communal, environmental and transcendental are examined in relation to idealism and relativism. Results reveal that spiritual well-being, in particular the communal domain of spiritual well-being, is correlated with and predictive of idealism.

However, the relationship between spiritual well-being and relativism is weak. Implications of the study are discussed in terms of developing managerial programs that enhance communal well-being which should lead to greater idealism in decision making.

Cole, Michael S. and Cole, Larry E (2008) discuss trust as a component of managerial success. It is stated that conditions such as downsizing, mergers and organizational structure have broken employees' trust in companies. It suggests that creating positive teamwork with trust include keeping commitments and recognizing each employee's contributions. The authors share that trust in a working relationship will make it prosper.

Significance of Spiritual Communication

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Spiritual Communication is essential for the following reasons:

1. There is lack of completeness in the achievements of man.
2. Material science has opened several dimensions of human progress; man has reached peak of prosperity, abundance of means in human life, sacrificing values for enjoying BHOGS; big gap between glory/*vaibhav* and happiness like gap between earth and sky.
3. Man possesses enormous power, best skills but heart is full of sadness, narrowness of mind and heart, and self centeredness is raising day by day.
4. Human life is full of depression; working is hellish, work being the greatest creature created by god.
5. Human soul involved in self interest (swarth). This soul is degrading itself.
6. No value of dedication, loyalty, and service which should have been the basis of human life. Good human values multiply automatically. Human body is capable of helping (anudaan).

Methods of Becoming an Effective Manager

Achievement/Result Orientation

The desire to get things done well and the ability to set and meet challenging goals creates own measures of excellence and constantly seeks ways of improving performance. Managers should focus more on achievement of group objectives rather than individual objectives. They should avoid capitalizing on achievements of subordinates. They should be thankful to all team members for achieving objectives and this fact should be acknowledged wholeheartedly. Spiritual communication plays an important role. In several universities, subjects like Business Ethics, Business Ethos and Indian Values etc. are taught to MBA students to inculcate positive feelings in them.

Business Awareness

Business awareness includes the capacity to identify and explore business opportunities, understand the business opportunities and priorities of the organization and seek methods of ensuring that the organization becomes more businesslike. Good managers keep close eyes on future developments taking place in the related business. Spiritual communication helps them develop an insight, futuristic approach, betterment of all people involved in business

Communication

If employers want their employees to work hard and be committed to business, they've got to keep them in the loop. Open communication helps foster loyalty and gives

employees a sense of pride. It helps them understand how their work contributes to the company's success.

Set up a recurring meeting (some companies call them "all hands" or "town hall" meetings) to inform your employees about new business developments and answer any questions. When there is spirituality in the communication system and among the employees, it breaks boundaries of chaos, confusion, and misunderstanding. For effective implementation of decisions, effective communication at all the levels is very important.

Customer Focus

Managers should guide their subordinates to communicate with their customers in a spiritual way. They should share their sorrows and joy time to time. In India, the customers have been treated and still treated as God (often displayed in shops, offices 'Grahak Bhagwan Hai'. In India, shopkeeper-customer relationship has been parental, continuing from generation to generation.

Developing Others

According to Shri Ram Sharma Acharya, "An individual obsessed with personal gains becomes so narrow in his outlook, that he tends to become oblivious of rights of others and is hardly aware of the need for compassion." Managers using spiritual communication can develop the tendency of not only developing themselves but also developing others. In social interaction, the phenomenon of developing others first is very fruit-bearing. A company enjoys long lasting success with effective managers.

Rewarding Employees

Everybody appreciates raises and bonuses, but monetary rewards aren't the only way to thank employees for a job well done. In fact, the easiest way to recognize a worker's contribution - by simply saying "thank you" - is often the most overlooked. Whether you do it with words, money, an employee-of-the-month program or other incentives, make sure your employees know you value their efforts and contributions.

Flexibility

In modern times, flexible organizations, processes, managers survive for a long time. Scope for changes is essential to be included in the existing systems. Managers using spiritual communication at workplace can develop flexibility. Spiritual communication develops tolerance, patience, broad thinking, ability to adjust others.

Leadership

As a business owner or manager, one of the greatest gifts you can give your employees is sharing your knowledge and experience. Showing your employees firsthand how you close a deal or forecast sales is far more effective than just talking them through it.

Planning

Problem Solving

It's impossible to know about personality conflicts, lagging productivity or other problems in the office if you've got your head in the sand. Stay tuned in to your employees so you can be proactive and resolve situations before they escalate. If you notice a change in an employee's work habits or attitude, try to get to the root of the problem before it starts affecting the rest of your staff.

Team Work

Systems, procedures, methods, jobs, products, and services are getting technology driven day by day. Pace of technological changes is fast. Managers and their subordinates sometimes find it difficult to cope with it. That is why insistence is on team work.

The concept of joint family has been part of the Indian culture from ancient times. This concept is also adopted in the business by several business houses such as TATA, WIPRO, LG, and INFOSYS. Spirituality is basis for team work. Faith is essential among group members for desired output. For faith, pure and straight forward communication should exist among groups.

Delegate Work and Responsibility

Now, that you've hired some employees, share your workload with them. Delegate projects according to people's strengths and weaknesses, and let employees develop their own good work habits and leadership skills. Control freaks (Hint: It may be You!) will struggle with this initially. Before you take on a project, try get in the habit of asking yourself if one of your employees can handle it instead.

Be Compassionate

Family emergency, illnesses and other unplanned events always arise, so get used to it. Managers should show employees some compassion by being flexible with work hours and time off so they can tend to important matters. Employees always appreciate a sympathetic boss, and as long as your business won't suffer, make every effort to accommodate workers who have special needs. Here spiritual communication plays a very vital role. Words of compassion, sympathy heal a subordinate in the time of crisis. Subordinate finds solace and confidence to face the crisis.

Conclusion

Spiritual progress in no way blocks individual materialistic progress. In fact, it gives altruistic touch and prudent direction. Scientific and materialistic progress guided by spirituality would lead to a holistic growth whose benefits would reach out not only to the individual but also to the whole of humanity. Spirituality can and should be adopted by managers to be effective and remain effective in future on the front of business as well as other fronts of life for elevating happiness and illuminating the future of him and other fellow beings.

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