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ENGLISH LANGUAGE & MESSAGES

Contrasting Concepts

A Note from Philosopher, Educationist and Entrepreneur

Jimmy Teo

Abstract

English language, through its spelling, brings together some contrasting concepts for us to remember them easily. One strategy adopted, it seems, that these contrasting concepts have the same number of letters. For example, *Church* which often means the place of Christian worship has six letters. The same number of letters constitutes the word *Mosque*, Muslim place of worship and gathering. This brief note lists some of these similarities in the number of letters for contrasting concepts. Collection of such items will help work out games through which new words will be learned.

Key words: contrasting concepts, identical number of letters, language games, content in living



Jimmy Teo

Numbers, Alphabets, Feelings, Guidance, Language - are all interlinked - especially with the beautiful English Language - perfumed with the art of contrasting concepts as below:

- 1 CHURCH - MOSQUE - 6 alphabets
- 2 BIBLE - QURAN – 5
- 3 LIFE - DEAD – 4
- 4 HATE - LOVE – 4
- 5 ENEMIES - FRIENDS – 7
- 6 LYING - TRUTH – 5
- 7 HURT - HEAL – 4
- 8 NEGATIVE - POSITIVE – 8
- 9 FAILURE - SUCCESS - 7
- 10 BELOW - ABOVE - 5
- 11 CRY - JOY – 3
- 12 ANGER - HAPPY – 5
- 13 RIGHT - WRONG – 5
- 14 RICH - POOR – 4
- 15 FAIL - PASS – 4
- 16 KNOWLEDGE - IGNORANCE – 9

Let us explore more of the beauty of the English Language. I am sure other languages have beautiful & inspiring similarities!

We need to take time to enjoy & marvel at words & their connotations particularly relative to living – and how to understand & recognize the contrasting concepts & try to live contentedly within our thresholds for anything good.

Enjoy.

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Form and Content Feedbacks in Foreign Language Writing: The Case of Omani Learners of English

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Abstract

Feedback is helpful in improving second language learners' writing skills. Consequently, giving either form or content feedback to students' writing has become a common practice in English composition writing classes for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This paper examines the use of form and content feedbacks in composition writing of Omani students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). More specifically, it examines how Omani EFL students respond to the form or content feedbacks given by lecturers. There were 17 EFL students from the Salalah College of Technology who took part in the study. Students were asked to write an argumentative essay and underwent three revisions (D1, D2, and D3). Each revision was done after giving the form and content feedbacks to find out how students responded to the feedbacks given. The revisions were analyzed and compared whether students rely on form feedback or content feedback in the first, second, and third drafts. The findings reveal that students rely heavily on the form feedback than that of the content feedback. Such findings may serve as a basis to improve the teaching of writing and develop the writing skills of EFL learners in Oman.

Keywords: form feedback, content feedback, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Omani English learners

1. Introduction

Feedback is an essential element of process approach to writing as perceived by teachers and students (Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Ferris, 2002). The feedback can either be form or content feedback, which guide the students and help them produce better written output. Bruton (2009) explains that correction helps students to reduce their errors in writing after they receive feedback from their teachers. Despite Truscott's (1996, 1997, 2007) and Truscott and Hsu's

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(2008) arguments that corrections do not contribute to the development of accuracy in writing and in fact can be considered harmful in the learning process, a number of L2 writing teachers still provide such feedback. Other studies however show that corrective feedback in L2 composition writing can be effective in improving the learners' composition writing (Ferris, 1999, 2003, 2004; Bitchener, 2008). In fact, feedback, such as praise, motivates the learner to develop positive attitudes when writing. It can be a form of reward, which consists of information used by a learner to change a particular performance (Kulhavy & Wager, 1993).

To make feedback in writing effective, there is a need to distinguish clearly between learning and performance. Learning refers to the knowledge gained through the transfer of tasks. This means that learning how to write can be acquired through writing new assignments. On the other hand, performance refers to the knowledge gained on repeated tasks. This can be achieved by writing multiple drafts.

It is also evident that learning and performance can be affected differently by feedback. According to Chi, Bassok, Lewis, Reimann, & Glaser (1989), feedback without explanation can improve performance but not learning. However, Gick & Holyoak, (1980; 1983) argued that the use of examples can influence both learning and performance.

Based on the positive results of giving feedback or teacher-response in writing, it has become essential in the writing process. It helps students to discover the errors they make in writing. Diligent marking may provide students with an idea of the criteria by which their works are judged and might offer useful information to avoid similar errors in the future (Hyland, 1990). Therefore, teachers should be clear in giving feedback on their students' writing where they can focus either the form or content to guide them to achieve better writing output. Teachers should make the effort to spend time reading their students' writing and provide insightful feedback to help their students learn from the feedback and improve their revised drafts. Richard Leahly (2000) argued that revision is the most important stage in the whole writing process where raw materials are turned into coherent and readable communication that has focus and shape.

To facilitate revision, it is essential that teachers' feedback should encourage and motivate students to revise their writing. The success in achieving coherent and readable writings

is dependent on the nature of the teacher's feedback. There are writing teachers who believe that form feedback is effective in improving accuracy in writing. Ferris (2006) found that teachers' feedback has shown that they focus more on local issues such as grammar and mechanics. In another study conducted, Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) believed that the underlining errors appear to have more positive effect on long-term students' improvement in accuracy and editing skills and such type of feedback is known as the form feedback. Similarly, Chandler (2003) believed that any feedback which focuses on form improves students' ability to recognize and fix the errors they committed. In another study conducted on form and content feedback, Ashwell (2000) found that changes of revision on students' writing are focused more on form feedback than that of the content feedback which reveals that form feedback helps students to improve their writing. Form feedback is highly preferred by teachers and students because it affords opportunities for guided-learning and problem solving (Lalande, 1982). However, others believed that it is better to focus at multiple-sentence level issues such as cohesion, organization, paragraphing, and relevance rather than focusing on grammatical, lexical, and mechanical errors.

Studies have proven the effectiveness of teachers' feedback on students' writing. Hyland (1990) argued that feedback encourages students to revisit and re-asses their work particularly if the feedback provides suggestions, evaluates positively and adds information. Such feedback will be perceived positively as they engender trust and build relationships between teachers and students (Todd et al., 1990). Todd is of the view that content feedback helps to establish trust and build good relationship between teachers and students in achieving better writing output. There are claims that content feedback is effective in improving and correcting students' writing. Ferris (1993) for instance highlighted that content feedback helps to improve students' cohesion in paragraph writing. In fact, students who are writing for the real world purposes and whose aim in writing is to communicate certain content, helps them improve their writing development as compared to the artificial writing tasks which focuses only grammatical accuracy.

However, studies show that focusing on form and content could be more effective than an exclusive focus on form or content (Biber, Nekrasova and Horn, 2011). Feedback which focuses on a combination of form and content may result to a much greater improvement of grammatical accuracy than feedback that focuses exclusively on form.

The issues on whether form feedback or content feedback or a combination of both could

be more effective in developing students' writing are somehow divided into two opposing views. Although, both form and content feedbacks can be useful in developing students' writing, the challenge is on how the students respond to the feedbacks given to them by their English language writing teachers. It is therefore the focus of this study to examine how the students respond to both form and content feedbacks and further investigate which of the two types of feedbacks is highly and least preferred by learners of English as a foreign language. This study will specifically examine the Omani English students who were currently taking the English courses during the data gathering. As learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), it is interesting to examine how the selected EFL Omani learners respond to the form and content feedbacks given by the teachers from draft 1 (D1) to draft 2 (D2) and draft 3 (D3).

This study analyzed how the form feedback and content feedback in EFL writing facilitate revision and improve the students' writing. This study limits its scope on the average number of errors and the difference in the percentage error reduction of students' writing starting from the first draft (D1) up to the third draft (D3). The findings of the study could perhaps provide new insights to English teachers in Oman on how they should give feedback to their Omani learners of English in order to facilitate learning.

1.1 English as a Foreign Language in Oman

English continues to be the most widely used language in many parts of the world. With the emergence of globalization, the demand of English continues to rise. Consequently, the speakers and the varieties of English continue to increase.

In Oman, the importance of English is gaining more popularity. As a result, it is introduced as a subject in schools, colleges and universities. According to Al-Busaidi, (1995) as cited in Khalid Salim Saif Al-Jardani (2012), the use of English in Oman has become an "institutionalized domain" which is used in business, media and education. Furthermore, English is also used as the medium of instruction in private and public higher education throughout the country (Al-Isaa, 2005).

Despite the development of English in Oman, English is considered as a foreign language since English is still used in limited domains of communication. According to Kachru (1991) in his three circled model of Englishes that speakers of English are categorized into three groups

such as the inner circle which includes the native speakers such as people from the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand while the outer circle includes a number of second language speakers of English such as those in India, Singapore, Philippines and other countries where English is used as a second language. The expanding circle includes speakers for whom English is a foreign language such as those in Japan, China, Korea, Oman and other countries where English is a foreign language. In countries where English is widely spoken, speakers tend to use the nativized variety of English for intra-communication which is seen to be more advantageous because speakers share similar linguistic and pragmatic knowledge about variety of English used.

English as a foreign language in Oman has played an important role in developing the learning of English among Omani learners. However, the use of English is somehow limited due to limited opportunities where English is spoken. Such limitation eventually influences the students' development in English language learning because the language is not enhanced outside the classroom. Consequently, such limitation might have an effect either the spoken and written language proficiency of Omani learners of English. It is therefore the focus of this paper to examine the written English of selected Omani learners. More emphasis is given on how students respond to the feedbacks given and how such feedbacks enhance the student's writing.

2. Methodology

There were 25 EFL students from the Salalah College of Technology who took part in the study. However only 17 students were finally considered since 8 of them did not complete either the second or third revision stage of writing. This means only 17 students completed the 3 revision stages. The participants were chosen based on their English language proficiency level in English. Consequently, only the first year Diploma students from three different departments and had just completed their Foundation Program. This is to ascertain that all participants have almost similar level of English language proficiency. All participants during the data collection were currently taking the English Foundation courses.

To carry out the study, a written consent was given to the university and the students. After the permission was granted, the data collection started by asking the participants to write an argumentative essay on "the importance of learning English and other languages." All students who participated the study underwent three revisions such as first draft (D1), second

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draft (D2), and third draft (D3). Each revision was done after giving the form and content feedbacks to find out how students responded to the feedbacks given. The revisions were analyzed and compared whether students rely on form feedback or content feedback in the first, second, and third drafts.

The study was conducted in three sessions for the whole month of April 2014. The first session was writing the first draft (D1). Students' essays were checked using the form and content feedback then the number of errors was counted and the average number of errors was calculated. Similar procedures were used in the second draft (D2) and third draft (D3). In every draft, the number of errors was counted and the average number of errors and the percentage error reduction were calculated to determine if there were changes in the revised compositions.

To maintain the validity of the feedbacks given there were three inter-raters who checked the corrected essays in each stage. The inter-raters were lecturers in English from the University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

After the writing tasks, 10 selected students were interviewed about their experience in revising the paper from D1 to D3. The interviews were used to support the findings in the written tasks of students.

3. Findings

The findings of the study show that students respond more to the form feedback than that of the content feedback in their essays. It is evident that in the first draft (D1), second draft (D2) and third draft (D3), the participants reveal a trend where they responded highly to the form feedback during the three revision stages. The responses of the participants in both form and content feedbacks and the percentage of error reduction are presented in Tables.

3.1 Form Feedback in D1, D2 and D3

Table 1 shows the number of errors made by the participants who received the form feedback starting from the first draft (D1) up to the third draft (D3). Seventeen (17) participants obtain 35.41 as the mean of errors in the first draft (D1), a mean of 20 in the second draft (D2) and a mean of 10 in the third draft (D3). The results show the changes in the number of errors

made by the participants from D1 to D3. Such changes would tell that the students responded to the feedbacks made by the lecturers on their writings.

The findings further reveal that the number of errors decreased from D1 with a mean of 35.41 to D3 with a mean of 10. The trend in which the number of errors has decreased from D1 to D3 reveals that there is an improvement after providing form feedback on students' writings.

Table 1 shows the tabulated results on the number of errors in the three drafts where the form feedback was given by the teacher.

Participants	Number of errors in D1	Number of errors in D2	Number of errors in D3
1	46	15	10
2	21	18	13
3	23	14	10
4	51	28	13
5	37	23	12
6	52	24	16
7	33	23	15
8	38	26	6
9	28	19	16
10	33	29	12
11	25	10	6
12	47	31	3
13	39	25	6
14	57	21	8
15	8	5	4
16	18	15	12
17	46	14	6
N=17	M=35.41	M=20	M=10

Table 1: Number of errors in D1, D2, and D3 in the form feedback

Despite the high response of students in the form feedback, the output of their revised writing from D1 to D3 did not make their writings more informative, logical, or elaborated. It is only the grammatical structure and the correction of the misspelled word which makes the essay more readable and easier to understand. In some ways, form feedback helps but it does not necessarily help them to come up with a good and better essays. The following examples show the students' drafts from D1-D2.

D1

“Study English is very important today. in fact There are many people tod Spicin many langages but English today is very good. Of cors English today only own. There are many things is very good in every uses English. I see, learning English is more important than learning other foreig langueges.”

D2

“Studying English is very important tody. In fact; There are many people today speaking many languges, but English today is very important. There are many things to learn English. Learning English is more important than learning other foreign languges.”

The examples show that from D1 to D2 there are changes in the student’s writing most particularly on its form rather than the content.

3.2 Content Feedback

Table 2 shows the total number of errors made by the participants in the content feedback during the first draft (D1) until the third draft (D3). In the first draft (D1), a mean of 5.88 is obtained, 3.88 in D2 and 2.41 in D3. The results show a significant change in the number of errors committed by the participants starting from the first draft up to the third draft.

Participants	Number of errors in D1	Number of errors in D2	Number of errors in D3
1	5	3	2
2	5	3	2
3	5	1	1
4	7	6	4
5	7	4	2
6	5	4	2
7	5	4	3
8	8	5	3
9	8	6	3
10	5	3	2
11	7	5	3
12	4	2	1
13	8	4	3
14	7	5	3
15	4	2	1
16	4	3	2
17	6	6	4
N=17	M=5.88	M=3.88	M= 2.41

Table 2: Number of errors in D1, D2 and D3 in Content Feedback

The findings reveal that students responded to the content feedback given to them by the teachers and it shows that improvement in the writing is evident. Although, the response from the students was not really as high as the form feedback, there is improvement in D3. An example is provided below.

D1

“The last important in learning English is study. They are all the people study language English in the school and the college. The concentration of Arabic language was English the it. Become English and Arabic very important in the school, college and job.”

D2

“The last reason why it is important to learn English is to learn to speak the language. English language is important to learn the language. some people to English in you life like friend deosen’t speak Arabic, job, go to they country and so on. So if you want learn language you must study it very hard.”

D3

“The third reason in learning English is to study. Learning English is very important, for that in our school so we study it. After school, English became more popular because in higher education level in the world use the common language, that is English. So it helps people to understand each other through lecture.”

3.3 Error Reduction in D1, D2, and D3

Table 3 presents the average number of errors and the percentage error reduction in the form and content feedbacks. The first draft (D1) and the second draft (D2) in the form feedback show a percentage error reduction of 40, D2-D3 show a percentage error reduction of 44 and D1-D3 show a percentage error reduction of 65. The revisions in the form feedback show a slight difference in revising students’ composition from D1-D3.

On the other hand, the average number of errors and percentage of error reduction in the content feedback reveals a significant change in the students’ revision from D1-D3. The table shows the percentage error reduction of 59.41 from D1-D2, 34.88 from D2-D3 and 59.41 from D1-D3.

Drafts	Average number of errors in the content feedback	Percentage error reduction in the content feedback	Average number of errors in the form feedback	Percentage error reduction in the form feedback
D1	5.88	34.88 (D1-D2)	35.41	40 (D1-D2)
D2	3.88	36.35 (D2-D3)	20	44 (D2-D3)
D3	2.41	59.41 (D1-D3)	10	65(D1-D3)

Table 3: Average number of errors and percentage error reduction in the Content Feedback and Form feedback from D1 to D3

The findings show a significant difference on students' response in the form feedback as compared with the content feedback. Students respond heavily in the form feedback than that of the content feedback (see Table 3). Significant difference is seen between the form feedback and content feedback from D1 to D2, D2 to D3 and from D1 to D3. Participants who were given the form feedback obtain a percentage error reduction of 65 from D1 to D3, whereas in the content feedback, the participants obtain only 59.31 as the percentage error reduction from D1 to D3.

The findings show that the participants rely heavily on the form feedback which correlates with the findings of Ashwell (2000) where he found that the respondents rely heavily in the form feedback rather than the content feedback.

The study reveals that students respond to the two feedbacks differently. The difference is noticed after the participants revised the first draft, second draft and the third draft.

3.4 Students' Perspectives on Teachers' Feedbacks

Based on the interviews conducted, the students' perspectives on feedback are closely associated to grammar error correction. This means that students have the perception that the feedbacks may concentrate more into the grammatical forms or structures rather than the organization, content and other aspects of good writing. In the interviews conducted some participants said.

"I am not good in grammar. You can teach me grammar."

"I rewrote, I check if after writing, I check if there are any mistakes in the grammar. So I find no problem in this."

The students' perception in English writing is closely associated to grammar. This means that a good writing must be free from any grammatical errors. This is evident when one student said during the interview, *"I am not good in grammar. You can teach me grammar."* With this view, it is expected that when they write, the emphasis of their writings may not be on the content rather there is a tendency to focus on form.

Even during the revision stage, the emphasis on the grammatical structure in writing is higher than that of the content. This is evident when the participant said, *"I rewrote, I check if after writing, I check if there are any mistakes in the grammar. So I find no problem in this."* The students' perception of revision could be associated to grammar correction. Therefore, it is expected that when Omani EFL students rewrite their written tasks, there is a tendency for them to focus on form rather than the content.

4. Pedagogical Implications

The study provides new information to the English writing teachers that the use of feedbacks specifically the form and content feedbacks which facilitate better revision on students' composition, thus making their writings more presentable and reliable. The findings of the study show that the simultaneous feedbacks, form and content help in improving the students' writing in D3. This means, it would be helpful to do similar feedbacks to Omani students' writing to improve their written tasks.

In addition, English teachers should be clear and careful in giving their feedbacks to the students' writing, for the students might misinterpret their comments. In other words, they should give proper and accurate content and form feedbacks to remind the students of their mistakes. As a result, it will help them avoid the same mistakes in the future.

5. Conclusion

The differences between the form and content feedbacks can be a basis to conclude that the participants rely heavily in the form feedbacks during the revision stage starting from D1 to D3. Although it is evident that both feedbacks facilitate good revision, this means that form feedbacks may help to facilitate better revision in composition writing as compared with the content feedbacks.

Language teachers should be encouraged to provide both form and content feedback as such feedback facilitates revision of students' composition and helps student from making similar mistakes in the future. However, teachers should be clear when providing feedback as some feedback might be misinterpreted.

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Perspectives on Indian Woman

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Abstract

In every one of us is a secret shrine, where no one could intrude, to which we must retire as often possible and discover what our true self is as distinct from the appearance we present to the world outside.

Some claim that in ancient India women were accorded equal status with men, but owing to a variety of causes, she was relegated to a backward position in all walks of life. The woman was forced in to either of the two extreme moulds: one, the idealized woman as an embodiment of all virtues advantageous to man, the other projected her as a helpless and ignorant creature entirely dependent on man. In both cases the real woman was missing.

Keywords: Indian Women, Equal Status, Embodiment of Virtues, True Self

Condition of Indian Women

Mostly Indian women are controlled and conditioned by the dictates of their husbands and their family. Educated or illiterate, rich or poor they have to depend on their husbands for everything. Women are not treated on par with men and the men are entitled to a privileged treatment everywhere. It is they who control the destiny of women.

Women are indeed living at the mercy of men. At present a woman's existence depends on the men who came/come into her life, like a father, brother or husband. The men determine her fate, make decisions on her behalf and decide what is good or bad for her.

The material cares of the women (in the event of her family being wealthy) are taken care of by the affluence of wealth and servants. But their emotional needs do not seem to be met at all. As a result of this, they seem to live in a constant limbo of private sufferings, which are qualitatively different from the material sufferings of the woman.

Constitutional Guarantee versus Customs and Traditions

The constitution of India guarantees in clear terms the equality of women with men socially, economically and politically. But this is observed more on paper than in practice. Age-old customs and traditions continue to denigrate women. They are treated like human machines and all their activities are expected to be confined to the male approved domains. Any attempt made by a woman to modify the male-made boundaries of feminine existence is curbed drastically. Such is the lowly condition of subordination and servant-status forced upon the Indian women in every sphere of life.

The Condition of Young Women

Young men are always free to work against tradition and their own families, whereas the young women of the new generation are still controlled as in earlier times and suffocate with all the curbs and controls. These kinds of pressures placed on them by families lead them to far greater emotional and spiritual struggles and push them in to the path of unspeakable agonies and tragedies. These women having no faith in conventional religion and joint family and not following any conspicuous ideal, meet nothing but disaster in their lives. Thus, eventually many may meet with their unnatural death or lose their mental equilibrium.

What Does the Marriage do for them?

Marriages in India are performed mostly according to the choice of the parents. There is a lack of emotional involvement and very little communication exists between husband and wife. This is mainly due to the influence of the conventional society which expects a wife to engage herself always in household duties. “The diametrically opposed cultural background of the couple also comes in the way of mutual understanding and mental affinity”. (*Pathania, Usha, 1992, 26*) Though husband and wife are equal partners of their household in every respect, in

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most cases the Indian wives are not treated on par with their male partners. Husbands considering their wives as their subordinates, attach little importance to their feelings and emotions. It is they who control the destiny of women. The freedom which they can always take for granted is denied to women.

Marriage and Mental Activity

Marriage limits a woman's aspirations and their sphere of mental activity. It becomes not a fulfillment of the self, but a symbol of their confinement within the boundaries marked out for them by men through the centuries of their 'enclosure in the patriarchy'. Marriage means: "to find oneself like a young tree inside a tomb is to discover the power to crack the tomb and grow out to any heights" (*Pandey, 1999: 55*). Though marriage is a union of mind and body of the two concerned, marriage seems to provide only physical proximity for them. Mental communication and mutual understanding seem to escape them.

The Ultimate Fatality

Marriage appears to be the ultimate fatality for a woman in a society where everything seems to conspire against her longing for individual freedom. Marriages are shattering failures. The women are unable to adjust themselves to their challenging new role. A woman's role in marriage, according to the will of God was to be a "helper" who was a suitable partner to man in every particular, mental, spiritual, emotional, social and physical need (*The Bible, Genesis. 2:18*) Several religions do declare the divinity of marriage contract but in reality human practice and social traditions negate the scriptural declarations.

The burden thrown upon unwilling and very often unprepared women as an aftermath of marriage, mars their mental equilibrium. When they happen to be imaginative they try to withdraw to their childhood or to some fantasy arena, the brain child of their fancies. This in turn results in neurosis almost bordering on madness. The mental breakdown of women is the direct outcome of a terrible social malaise.

Today's Woman's Resistance

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The woman today challenges the traditional notions of an angel in the house and sexually voracious image. The woman today is essentially a woman of awareness and consciousness of her undeserved low position in the family and society.

We wonder how many people noticed that in our country Sita is worshipped along with Rama, Radha with Krishna, Parvathi with Shiva but strangely enough goddess Durga and Kali are worshipped in their individual capacity. Men are the devotees of goddess Durga, but they do not care for the emotions of women. Perhaps, men are worshippers of Durga and not of Sita.

Present a Durga-like Image

In order to gain respect from men, women must project a Durga-like image. The woman will always suffer in silence. Like Sita, she will always have to prove her chastity and undergo the *Agnipariksha* for no fault of hers. The dread of divorce keeps women in constant fear in several religions.

Constant Questioning Is Necessary

What is remarkable in the lives of women is that even though the quest for self-identity and individualism ends ultimately in failure, resignation and death, what is heartening is that there has been an inner consciousness for the right values of life and a more meaningful existence. This awareness and constant questioning of the present state of life is in itself a kind of protest symbolizing the rising of awareness. It is rebellion all the way to the final curtain.

It is really shocking that 50% of the problems are caused by men to the women. (*The Hindu*, 19.07.2009). Hillary Clinton said, “if we push the women backward, the nation cannot move forward.” (Meeting with the Self Employed Women’s Association in Mumbai on 19.07.2009)

Conclusion

In democratic countries like India one expects that women would be treated on par with men. But the tragedy is that the right to equality and freedom exists only in the Constitution. No doubt, women have started working in male territories, but modernizing has not brought an end

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to male domination. Hence, under the prevailing situation, women must realize that they have to save themselves. Qualities like unity, firmness of purpose, courage, self-determination and assertiveness have to be developed. The silence has to be broken. Women should fight as they have nothing to lose but their fetters. Love, respectability and freedom will not come on a golden platter; women must work hard for it. Freedom will afford them a chance to improve their lot.

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A Comparative Study of the Mechanism to Assign Gender in Sizang, Koireng and Tarao

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Abstract

Many languages of the Tibeto-Burman family do not have grammatical gender. Typologically languages may be classified into those which have grammatical gender, for example, Hindi, Assamese, etc. of the Indo-Aryan languages and those which do not have grammatical gender, for example, Sizang, Koireng and Tarao of the Tibeto-Burman family of languages. What these languages (Sizang, Koireng and Tarao) have is merely a system of biological sex reference, and this is necessary only for specific semantic realization of animate nouns. These languages do not assign gender to each and every noun. Although this feature seems to be peripheral to language structure, an investigation into them gives us many insights to understand the complexities of everyday speech, and also enhances the scope of language typology.

The present paper attempts to show how these languages use mechanism to signal the sex reference which is necessary for specific semantic realization of animate nouns. These languages do not have grammatical gender.

Key words: Tibeto-Burman, Kuki-Chin, grammatical gender, natural gender distinction, Sizang, Koireng and Tarao.

1.0 Introduction

Sizang belongs to northern Chin subgroup under the Kuki-Chin group of Tibeto-Burman sub-family (Grierson, 1904). Koireng was placed under the Kuki-Chin group of Tibeto-Burman sub-family (Grierson, 1904). Kolhreng (Kolren) is placed under Old Kuki by Grierson-Konow and Shafer. The Tarao also belongs to the Old Kuki (Yashawanta, 2010). These three languages are Tibeto-Burman languages which share several linguistic and ethnographic similarities with the languages or dialect of Kuki-Chin.

Since, Kuki-Chin is under the subfamily of the Tibeto-Burman linguistic group, the Chin or Kuki languages are closely related to one another. Though these languages are related, Sizang has no ‘r’ sound whereas Tarao and Koireng have ‘r’ sound.

The present paper attempts to show how these languages use mechanism to signal the sex reference which is necessary for specific semantic realization of animate nouns. These languages do not have grammatical gender.

The following examples will substantiate the above statement.

- Sizang :
- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1) kə ta-pa ə p ^h a | ‘my good son’ |
| 1poss.child- male3pp good | |
| 2) kə ta-nu ə p ^h a | ‘my good daughter’ |
| 1poss.child- female3pp good | |

It does not show any relevant for adjectives, verbs and pronouns. In the above examples (1-2), the adjective p^ha ‘good’ remains unchanged.

- Koireng :
- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 3) pasəl-te-ha tuy ə-in | ‘The boy drinks water.’ |
| man-small-DET water 3pp-drink | |
| 4) numəy-te-ha tuy ə-in | ‘The girl drinks water.’ |
| woman-small-DET water 3pp-drink | |

In the above examples (3 and 4) it exemplify that there is no grammatical relationship between the nouns and verbs. The verb “in” i.e. drink remains unchanged both in male and female nouns.

Tarao : 5) kipa dili se-no-tu ‘My father will not go to Delhi.’
1pp.father Delhi go-neg.unreal

6) kinu dili se-no-tu ‘My mother will not go to Delhi.’
1pp.mother Delhi go-neg.unreal

Hence, there is no grammatical gender in Tarao also.

2.0 Gender Distinction of Human Nouns

Animate nouns show further sub-division of human nouns and non-human nouns. The male-female contrast of human nouns is denoted by suffixing -pa and -nu to refer to masculine and feminine respectively in all the three languages.

2.1Sizang

Masculine	Feminine
(7) tapa ‘son’	tanu ‘daughter’
(8) nəwpa ‘younger brother’	nəwnu ‘younger sister’
(9) upa ‘elder brother’	unu ‘elder sister’
(10) tupa ‘grandson’	tunu ‘granddaughter’
(11) teakpa ‘father-in-law(female ego)	teaknu ‘mother-in-law(female ego)
(12) suŋpa ‘father-in-law(male ego)	suŋnu ‘mother-in-law(male ego)

The derived noun formed by prefixing ‘ə’ to a verb indicates agentive. For example:

(13) ə+lam = əlam ‘one who dance’ etc.
AGNT+dance

If the gender marker –pa or –nu is added to these derived nouns, then the marker specifies the sex of the doer or agentive.

For example:

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| (14) ə-kap-pa | ‘male shooter’ |
| AGNT-shoot-M | |
| (15) ə-kap-nu | ‘female shooter’ |
| AGNT-shoot-F | |
| (16) ə-lam-pa | ‘male dancer’ |
| AGNT-dance-M | |
| (17) ə-lam-nu | ‘female dancer’ |
| AGNT-dance-F | |

Similarly,

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| (18) haw-pa | ‘rich man’ |
| rich-M | |
| (19) haw-nu | ‘rich woman’ |
| rich-F | |

Again, some words referring to masculine gender there are corresponding lexical items referring to feminine.

For example:

- | Masculine | Feminine |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| (20) pasəl ‘husband’ | zi ‘wife’ |
| (21) makpa ‘son-in-law’ | məw ‘daughter-in-law’ |
| (22) pu ‘grandfather’ | pi ‘grandmother’ |
| (23) taŋval ‘bachelor’ | ŋaknu ‘damsel’ |

There is no gender distinction in the pronouns.

For example:

(24) key ‘I’	kəw ‘we’
(25) nəŋ ‘you (sg)’	nəw ‘you (pl)’
(26) əma ‘s/he’	əməw ‘they’
(27) əma in-suŋ á om hi	‘s/he is in the house’
s/he house-in loc.stay FP	

2.2 Koireng (adopted from Yashawanta, 2010)

Interestingly, for human nouns in Koireng also uses the suffix –pa for indicating male and –nu for indicating female.

(28) ki-pa	‘my father’
(29) ki-nu	‘my mother’
(30) sok-pa	‘slave (M)’
(31) sok-nu	‘slave (F)’

From the above example it is seen clearly how the genders are distinguished. Most of the kinship terms are suffixed with –pa or –nu in common. Very few words are found referring to masculine gender and their corresponding lexical items referring to feminine, e.g. kitərpi ‘mother-in-law’, kitərpu ‘father-in-law’. The first syllable ki- is derived from kəy ‘I’ and ki- is also a first person pronominal marker which is prefixed in all the kinship terms. All the kinship terms are used by irrespective of both the males and females.

There is no gender distinction in the pronouns. For example:

(32) kəy ‘I’	kəyni ‘we’
(33) nəŋ ‘you(sg)’	nəŋni ‘you(pl)’
(34) əma ‘s/he’	ənmani ‘they’

2.3 Tarao (adopted from Yashawanta, 2002)

In Tarao also the suffix –pa is used for indicating male and –nu for indicating female.

(35) ki-pa	‘my father’
(36) ki-nu	‘my mother’
(37) ə-pa	‘her/his father’
(38) ni-nu	‘your mother’

Similarly, there is no gender distinction in the pronouns. For example:

(39) kəy ‘I’	kəyni ‘we’
(40) nəŋ ‘you(sg)’	nəŋni ‘you(pl)’
(41) əma ‘s/he’	əmma ‘they’

3.0 Gender Distinction of Non-human Nouns

The suffix –cəl is used to indicate male non-human nouns for Koireng and Tarao languages whereas Sizang uses the suffix –təl to indicate male. The suffix –puy is commonly used to indicate female non-human nouns in Sizang and Tarao languages whereas the suffix –pi is used in Koireng to indicate female nonhuman nouns.

3.1 Sizang

With non-human nouns the masculine markers -təl, -luy (male fowl), -bal (large bird) are used to refer to male, and feminine marker –puy is used to refer to female.

For example:	Masculine	Feminine
	(42) khuy-təl ‘bull’	khuy-puy ‘cow’
	(43) vok-təl ‘boar’	vok-puy ‘sow’
	(44) uy-təl ‘dog’	uy-puy ‘bitch’
	(45) utoŋ-bal ‘peacock’	utoŋ-puy ‘peahen’
	(46) ak-luy ‘cock’	ak-puy ‘hen’

3.2 Koireng

In Koireng it is marked by suffixing –cəl for male and –pi for female.

For example:	Masculine	Feminine
	(47) serat-cəl ‘bull’	serat-pi ‘cow’
	(48) saypi-cəl ‘male elephant’	saypi-pi ‘female elephant’
	(49) ŋaytoŋ-cəl ‘male cat’	ŋaytoŋ-pi ‘female cat’

Another suffix –təŋ is commonly used for male pig and tiger.

Thus,

(50) wok-təŋ ‘male pig’ wok-pi ‘female pig’

(51) humpi-təŋ ‘tiger’ humpi-pi ‘tigress’

Again, the male-female contrast in bird is indicated by suffixing –bar for male. But –pi to indicate female remains unchanged.

For example:

(52) waak-bar ‘male crow’ waak-pi ‘female crow’

(53) artok-bar ‘duck’ artok-pi ‘drake’

It is to be noted that the male animal indicating suffix –cəl is also used for indicating male insect and the suffix –pi for female insect.

3.3 Tarao

In Tarao also it is marked by suffixing –cəl for male and –puy for female.

For example:

Masculine

Feminine

(54) sil-cəl ‘bull’

sil-puy ‘cow’

(55) uy-cəl ‘dog’

uy-puy ‘bitch’

(56) vok-cəl ‘male pig’

vok-puy ‘female pig’

For birds, the male indicating suffix –khoŋ is used; the suffix –puy is used to indicate female.

For example:

(57) ar-khoŋ ‘cock’

ar-puy ‘hen’

(58) usək-khoŋ ‘male sparrow’

usək-khoŋ ‘female sparrow’

Again, the male-female contrast in birds is indicated by suffixing –bar for male but –pi for indicating female remains unchanged.

4.0 Miscellaneous

For the designation or professional terms, the usage is similar to the gender distinctions of human nouns. Most of the items are compound words. There are a group of human common nouns which usually do not refer to any gender. In other words, they are gender neutral. If the context demands distinguishing gender of such nouns it is so done by appropriate suffixing as mentioned above. Otherwise some terms including some of the professional terms are gender neutral. Usually, the inanimate objects are not distinguished for gender. All inanimate objects are neutral in gender. However, arbitrary sex-assignment, meaning thereby gender-assignment to such objects or abstract things is not uncommon in these languages.

5.0 Conclusion

On the whole, Sizang, Koirang and Tarao, like most languages of the Tibeto-Burman family, do not have grammatical gender. Yet, some similarities reflecting the common origin and development have been noted. Suffix -pa for male human and -nu for female human nouns are commonly used. The names of the personal pronouns of the three languages are same. Again the suffix -cəl is commonly used by Koirang and Tarao to indicate male non-human nouns and the suffix -puy is commonly used by Sizang and Tarao to indicate female gender. In this paper, it is shown that the languages of cognate groups have due influence on each other.

Abbreviations

FP = Final particle; loc = Locative; pl = Plural; sg = Singular; M = Male; F = Female; AGNT = Agentive; neg = negative marker; unreal = Unrealized aspect; DET = Determiner.

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Nominal Morphology in Korbong Language

Biman Debbarma, Ph.D. Scholar



Korbong boys



Bridge connecting Korbong village

Abstract

Korbongs are one of the sub-tribes of Halam community which has been recognized as a scheduled tribe in the state of Tripura. Interestingly, the term ‘Korbong’ is also used to denote the ‘language’ spoken by the same tribe. Therefore the Korbong is the name of the language and the people. Korbongs are found only in two villages having only about 117 speakers in the state of Tripura, particularly in the districts of Khowai and West Tripura. Genetically, Korbong is closely related to Bongcher, Bong, Darlong, Hrangkhal, Kaipeng, Mizo, Moulson, Pangkhua, Ranglong, etc., except Kalai and Rupini. Therefore Korbong seems to be a Kuki-Chin language

of the Tibeto-Burman family. The main objective of the proposed study is to show the nominal morphology in the areas of person, number, gender and case in Korbong.

Key words: Korbong language and people, Kuki-Chin group, nominal morphology, person, number, gender and case

1. Introduction

Korbongs are one of the sub-tribes of Halam community which has been recognized as a scheduled tribe in the state of Tripura. Interestingly, the term ‘Korbong’ is also used to denote the ‘language’ spoken by the same tribe. Therefore the Korbong is the name of the language and the people. Korbongs are found only in two villages having a population of about 117 speakers in the state of Tripura, particularly in the districts of Khowai and West Tripura. Genetically, it is closely related to Bongcher, Bong, Darlong, Hrangkhal, Kaipeng, Mizo, Moulson, Pangkhua, Ranglong, etc., except Kalai and Rupini. Therefore, Korbong seems to be a Kuki-Chin language of the Tibeto-Burman family. Nevertheless not a single scholar has mentioned about the position of Korbong in any sub-grouping of Tibeto-Burman languages. It is also interesting to note that Korbong is one of the highly endangered languages of Northeast India having a small number of people speaking it. The total number of Korbong speakers in Tripura is estimated about 117 but the population figure of Korbong is not given in the Census of India. Similarly, Korbong is also not included in the UNESCO’s list for endangered languages in Northeast India. Like many other endangered tribes, Korbongs also do not have their own script and literature.

2. Typological Profile of Korbong

1. Tonal language
2. Subject object verb (SOV) structure
3. Postpositional language
4. Classifier occurs as is common in SE Asian languages.
5. No grammatical gender, it has a natural gender.
6. Anaphora can be found in this language.
7. Like many other Tibeto-Burman languages, most of the basic nouns in Korbong are monomorphemic in nature.

3. Nouns

A noun in Korbong may be defined as a class of words that can be followed for the categories of gender, number and case while the pronouns inflect only for cases. In other words, the noun is the clause of words, which is capable of taking case marker also.

3.1. Classification of Nouns

Structurally, nouns can be classified into the following three types: (i) basic (ii) compound (iii) derived nouns. These are described below:

3.2. Basic Noun

Basic noun refers to those nouns which are not derived from any other word classes. These nouns can occur independently without any affixation, i.e. prefixation or suffixation. Like many other Tibeto-Burman languages, most of the basic nouns in Korbong are monomorphemic in nature. Some basic nouns of Korbong are given below.

/in/ 'house'

/ui/ 'dog'

/ŋa/ 'fish'

3.3. Compound Noun

A compound noun is a noun that is made up of two or more words put together to make a word with its own meaning. Different types of compound nouns in Korbong are shown below.

(i) Noun + noun

bu + in > /buin/ 'rice house'
rice house

(ii) Noun + augmentative

in + əlun > /inlun/ 'big house'
house big

(iii) Noun + diminutive

in + ačin > /inčin/ 'small house'

house small

(iv) **Noun + adjective**

ui + *aček* > /*uiček*/ ‘white dog’
dog white

(v) **Noun + verb**

sum + *aze* > /*sumze*/ ‘money earn’
money earn

3.4. Derived Noun

Derived nouns are mainly derived from the verb by suffixing derivational morphemes – *mai* or –*ay* to the verbal roots. Some derived nouns in Korbong language are given below.

Verbs	Verbal nouns
/in/ ‘drink’	/in- <i>mai</i> / ‘drinking’
/rətui/ ‘run’	/rətui- <i>mai</i> / ‘running’
/se/ ‘go’	/se- <i>mai</i> / ‘going’
/lam/ ‘dance’	/la- <i>ay</i> / ‘dancer’
/dai/ ‘play’	/dai- <i>ay</i> / ‘player’

4. 1. Gender

Like other Tibeto-Burman languages, Korbong has a natural gender and there is no grammatical gender. Different ways of gender distinction in Korbong are shown below.

Noun

Animate Inanimate

(Not marked)

Human

Non-Human

Masculine

Feminine

Masculine

Feminine

-pa

-nu

-čal

-zel

(i) **By using {-pa} and {-nu}:**

Like many other Kuki-Chin languages, the {-pa} and {-nu} in Korbong indicates masculine and feminine gender respectively as evidenced in the case of kin nouns illustrated below:

Masculine

Feminine

/səpa/ ‘son’

/sanu/ ‘daughter’

/tupa/ ‘grandson’

/tunu/ ‘granddaughter’

(ii) **By using {-čal} and {-zel}:**

In the case of non-humans, the morphemes {-čal} and {-zel} are used to indicate the male and female respectively as can be seen in the following examples:

Masculine

Feminine

/sratčal/ ‘bull’

/sratzel/ ‘cow’

/uičal/ ‘dog’

/uizel/ ‘bitch’

/arčal/ ‘cock’

/arzel/ ‘hen’

(iii) **By using opposite lexical items**

In Korbong, some of the kin nouns are marked for masculine and feminine lexically as can be seen in the following examples:

Masculine		Feminine	
/bəsəl/	‘boy’	/nupaŋ/	‘girl’
/pa/	‘father’	/ni/	‘mother’

(iv) **By changing {-u} and {-i}**

Some of the kin nouns can be found by changing **{-u}** and **{-i}** to indicate the masculine and feminine as shown below.

Masculine		Feminine	
/pu/	‘grandfather’	/pi/	‘grandmother’
/kə-tarpu/	‘father-in-law’	/kə-tarpi/	‘mother-in-law’

4.2. Neuter Gender

Any noun, which stands for the name of a thing without life (inanimate), is said to be of the neuter gender. All inanimate things are considered as neuter gender. Consider the following examples shown below in Korbong language.

INANIMATE

/čem/	‘knife’
/paŋkai/	‘hill’
/pon/	‘cloth’
/lom ^h i/	‘broom’
/in/	‘house’

4.3. Gender of Loan words

A loan word is a word borrowed from other languages. The inanimate loan words in Korbong do not show any gender distinction. They are shown below with examples.

INANIMATE

<i>/gari/</i>	‘vehicle’
<i>/mubel/</i>	‘mobile’
<i>/redu/</i>	‘radio’
<i>/opis/</i>	‘office’
<i>/kolom/</i>	‘pen’

5. Number

Korbong has two numbers, namely, singular and plural. They are shown below with examples.

Singular		Plural	
<i>/bəsəl/</i>	‘man’	<i>/bəsəlnuɪ/</i>	‘men’
<i>/nupaŋ/</i>	‘woman’	<i>/nupaŋnuɪ/</i>	‘women’
<i>/ar/</i>	‘bird’	<i>/arnuɪ/</i>	‘birds’
<i>/^hintak/</i>	‘tree’	<i>/^hintaknuɪ/</i>	‘trees’

Plurality in Korbong is expressed in different ways as shown below with examples.

(i) Plurality of kinship terms

Plurality of kinship terms is expressed by suffixing {-*nuɪ*} to the singular number.

Singular		Plural	
<i>/səpa/</i>	‘son’	<i>/səpanuɪ/</i>	‘sons’
<i>/sanu/</i>	‘daughter’	<i>/sanunuɪ/</i>	‘daughters’

/pu/ ‘grandfather’ */punui/* ‘grand fathers’

(ii) **Plurality of personal pronouns**

In Korbong language, personal pronouns do not form plurality like kin nouns but are expressed plurality in the following ways:

Person	Singular	Plural
First	<i>/kəima/</i> ‘I’	<i>/kaŋni/</i> ‘we’
Second	<i>/nama/</i> ‘you’	<i>/naŋta/</i> ‘you’ (pl)
Third	<i>/naŋma/</i> ‘he/she’	<i>/ani/</i> ‘they’

6. Persons

Personal pronouns are those pronouns which stand for what are called the three distinctions of persons in Korbong.

FIRST PERSON		SECOND PERSON		THIRD PERSON	
<i>/kəima/</i>	‘I’	<i>/nama/</i>	‘you’	<i>/naŋma/</i>	‘he/she’
<i>/kaŋni/</i>	‘we’	<i>/naŋta/</i>	‘yours’	<i>/hamaraŋ/</i>	‘him/her’
<i>/kəimaraŋ/</i>	‘me’			<i>/ani/</i>	‘they’
<i>/kaŋta/</i>	‘our’			<i>/aniraŋ/</i>	‘them’
<i>/kəta/</i>	‘my’			<i>/ama/</i>	‘it’
<i>/kaŋniraŋ/</i>	‘us’			<i>/aŋta/</i>	‘theirs’
				<i>/ata/</i>	‘his/her’

7. 1. Case

There are eight (8) cases can be found in Korbong. They are as follows.

Sl.No	Case	Case marker
1.	Nominative	<i>-k^ho</i>
2.	Accusative	<i>-raŋ</i>
3.	Instrumental	<i>-le</i>
4.	Genitive	<i>-ta</i>
5.	Locative	<i>-a</i>
6.	Ablative	<i>-ta</i>
7.	Associative	<i>-le</i>
8.	Intrusive	<i>-kan</i>

7.2. Nominative case {-k^ho}

It is expressed by suffixing *-k^ho* to the nouns or pronouns. Consider the flowing examples.

nupaŋ-k^ho *a-hota*
girl-NOM 3PP-come

‘She is coming’

7.3. Accusative case {-raŋ}

It is expressed by suffixing *-raŋ* to the nouns or pronouns. Consider the following examples:

Wak^hiTak^hi-raŋ *a-di*
wakhitakhi-ACC 3PP-love

‘Wak^hi loves Tak^hi’

7.4. Instrumental case {-le}

The instrumental case is expressed by the marker *-le* as exemplified below:

Kəima wok-raŋ čem-le kə-tʰak-ta
I pig-ACC knife-INST 1PP-kill-PST.

‘I killed the pig with a knife’

7.5. Genitive case {-ta}

The genitive is expressed by the marker *-ta* as exemplified below:

Wahan-ta in
Wahan-GEN house

‘Wahan’s house’

7.6. Locative case {-a}

The locative case is expressed by the marker *-a* as can be seen in the following examples:

əma bazar-a a-si
he market-LOC 3PP-go

‘He went to market.’

7.7. Ablative case {-ta}

The ablative case is expressed by the marker *-ta* as exemplified below:

ama bazaar -ta a-ho -ta
he market ABLT Pro.pre come PST

‘He came from the market’

7.8. Associative case {-le}

The associative case is expressed by the marker *-le* as exemplified below:

ama a-pa -le se -ta
he 3PP-father-ASS go PST

‘He went with his father’

7.9. Intrusive case {-kan}

The intrusive case is expressed by the marker *-kan* as exemplified below:

ama kau kan se-ta
he hole INSTR go PST

‘He went through the hole’

8. Conclusion

The following conclusions can be drawn from the above analysis:

1. Morphologically, noun can be defined as a class of words to which gender, number and case morphemes may be attached.
2. Like other Tibeto-Burman languages, Korbong has a natural gender and there is no grammatical gender.
3. Like many other Sino-Tibetan Languages, number is not grammatically significant in this language, i.e., there is no subject predicate agreement as far as number is concerned.
4. All the case markers in this language are postpositions.

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Challenges of Intercultural Living and Service

Steve Eliason

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Abstract

Kraft (1997) uses two illustrations to describe culture and how it interacts with people in that society: “A culture may be likened to a river, with a surface level and a deep level” (p. 31) “We may liken the interaction between people and their cultures to that between actors and their scripts ...” (p.38). This paper discusses the notions of culture as river bed and as the script of a drama. Examples from intercultural living and serving in the Philippines are cited and explained. Factors such as Translation and Communication, Choice of Words and Sentences, Language Learning and Progress through Errors of Understanding, Worshipping at the feet of Science, and the need to Understand the Culture of the Community You live in – *We Can Do It vs No, We Can't!* are focused upon.

Key words: intercultural living, images of culture, translation and communication, errors of understanding.

Images of Culture

Kraft (1997) uses two illustrations to describe culture and how it interacts with people in that society: “A culture may be likened to a river, with a surface level and a deep level” (p. 31) “We may liken the interaction between people and their cultures to that between actors and their scripts ...” (p.38)

The image of culture as a river is used to differentiate between what we can observe and what is partially or completely hidden. If one assumes that what is seen is all that there is, we are consciously or unconsciously forced to interpret meaning through the hidden things of our own

culture. This will likely result in misunderstanding because unconfirmed assumptions have a great potential for error.

Worldview as River Bed

The characteristics of a river are based on three things: water, earth and gravity. Water is the obvious definitive element, which can be compared to the cultural patterns of any society. But it is the bed of the river that gives the river its distinction. I would compare the structure of the river bed to the worldview, beliefs and values of a culture. We observe the consequences of the structure beneath the surface, but to understand the structure, the how and why of its flows, obliges us to investigate the nature of that structure.

The physics of the earth is often forgotten altogether. Were it not for gravity, there would be no flow and therefore no river. As a religious person I would compare this to God, the unseen One, the power that creates and makes things work. It affects all things, not just the river, so it brings cohesion and order on the largest scale.

Culture as the Script of a Drama

The illustration of culture as a script is given in the context of differentiating between culture and the people of that culture and why change in culture happens. Kraft contends that culture has no independent life; it is not a thing that exists, but is only made alive by the people who give it definition. For that reason culture is like the script actors use in a play; they basically follow it, but if circumstances demand adjustments, they can do that. An observer of the play probably has no idea that such adjustments are occurring. Unless they were quite familiar with the script they couldn't differentiate between pure memorization and improvisation.

Our Living in the Philippines

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Steve Eliason

Challenges of Intercultural Living and Service

In the first village we lived in I was quite shocked to see that married women were quite comfortable taking their shirts off to take a dip bath by whatever pump they normally used. Since this was not an isolated incident or practiced by only a few women, I took it to be standard operating procedure in provincial life. I held this conviction for almost a year until I heard Filipinos from other villages commenting about the same thing, and how surprised and ashamed they were.

What I thought was script-following was actually a local improvisation based on a particular historical event (the Japanese took the clothes away from the people of this village during World War II to control them). The lesson for a religious and social worker like me and my wife is to be wary of drawing conclusions about observed behavior until one learns the script (the cultural patterns).

Translation and Communication

It is important that when we make an effort to learn and live in another culture, we need to develop some clear notions of local culture, its subsystems, forms and meanings, and the relation of the individual to the group, based on our observations and available studies. Of ultimate concern for the intercultural social and religious worker is that he or she communicates clearly when he or she wants to communicate their message. This requires both a cultural and linguistic interpretation, and naturally the process is wrought with complications.

Kraft makes a very relevant observation for all of us. Whether it is at the level of speech or writing, we need to choose and use local forms that would fully reflect what we really want to communicate. Talking about the translation of the Bible and the Bible translators, he suggests that “The experience of Bible translators is that, in general, it is less risky to use indigenous forms than to import foreign labels for concepts that already exist in the language.” (p.143)

This has been carefully adopted by translators of the Bible into languages such as Tamil in South India. The Tamil translation, I understand, follows the natural and commonly used style and diction.

Choice of Words and Sentences

Since words are forms which represent meaning, choosing them, as Kraft says, carries an element of risk. The risk is the likelihood of misunderstanding or misinterpretation. The classic problem faced by translators is what word should be used for God. The indigenous form likely carries ideas which are not biblical, yet a foreign form, at least initially, carries no capacity for meaning. The local people are forced to ask themselves, “What do they mean when they use this word?” All they can do is rely on existing similar concepts and come to their own conclusions, which generally means retaining the same meaning. So a religious and/or social worker shouldn’t think that just because the people he or she serves begin using or even praying to “God” that they mean the same thing he or she does.

Language Learning

Even non-religious forms in language can prevent the foreign social and religious worker from communicating well. Our team in the Philippines used a language learning approach that required us to memorize a few sentences and repeat as often as we could to whomever would listen. The first step was to come up with English sentences we wanted to say, then get them translated, then practice until they were memorized and finally go out and share them.

This first step was sometimes not well thought out! We came in thinking like Americans, so we asked questions that Americans would ask. We didn’t think to ask our Filipino language helpers to give us ideas about how they have conversations. That is something that is so unconscious one does not have to think about it.

One of the first sentences we wanted to translate was the typical American greeting, “How are you?” It was short, which was important since we had to memorize it, and it seemed like an appropriate question to ask. The translator translated it, “Kumusta-ka?” This is a very literal translation, so we thought, “Great! That’s one of the simplest sentences we’ve had to learn!” We used that constantly for most of the first couple of years.

Progress through Errors

But once my Ilokano improved I noticed that sometimes the answers to that question made no sense. I would be sitting on my porch and someone would walk by and I’d greet them in Ilokano with, “How are you?” and then I’d hear, “There!” What kind of answer is that? I eventually noticed that when someone was passing by your home, the person at home would either say, “Pappanam?” or “Naggapuam?” which meant “Where are you going?” or “Where have you been?” depending on if you are going to or from your home. If the person walking was first to speak, he would normally say, “Lumabasak pay” which meant, “I’m just passing by.” That has other cultural implications.

Looking back at greeting I first learned, I realized this was really just a foreign expression, taken from the Spanish. “Como estas?” was translated to “Kumusta-ka?” Filipinos rarely asked that question! By asking the questions they asked, I sounded more like them, using the appropriate forms instead of simply translating my American ones. Anytime we can do that we will increase our odds of communicating well.

My Worldview: Worshipping at the Feet of Science

Until I lived for several years in a very different culture, I did not realize the degree to which I worshipped at the feet of science; it was clearly a conviction of my subconscious worldview. But as I became more aware of the deep seated control this worldview had on me, I saw examples of my Western culture promoting this idea everywhere. Kraft declares, “We have become victims of our

drive to control the universe and have made the vehicle of that mastery (science) our real religion” (p.177). Kraft also suggests, “the western technological focus,[is] driven by a worldview bent on control and efficiency” (p. 177).

An Example from *Iron Man 2*

The U.S. media is full of amazing statements expressing this view. Consider this dialogue from the movie *Iron Man 2* that defines what the Western man “manipulates the environment”:

Tony Stark: And now, making a special guest appearance from the great beyond to tell you what it's all about, please welcome my father, Howard.

Howard Stark: Everything is achievable through technology. Better living, robust health, and for the first time in human history, the possibility of world peace. So, from all of us here at Stark Industries, I would like to personally introduce you to the City of the Future.”

There was no guffawing from the audience in the movie itself or in the theater where people were watching it. It was simply regarded as a true statement, and we were just waiting for the answer!

One of the first expressions of this view of technology that I observed was from a Honeywell commercial several years ago. Granted, they make thermostats, which are designed to control the temperature of a room, but the statement was a rather audacious one nonetheless:

“Honeywell- Helping you control your world.”

We Can Do It!

The consistent message of the West is “*We Can Do It!*” This was the famous statement in an American wartime propaganda poster produced by J. Howard Miller in 1943 for Westinghouse Electric. Barak Obama used a modification of this expression as his 2008 presidential campaign slogan, “*Yes we can!*” These sorts of cheers are accepted because we have a firmly established assumption that this is true.

Understand the Culture of the Community You live in – *We Can Do It vs No, We Can't!*

The situations where this worldview assumption impacts a social and religious worker are everywhere. The opposite of this assumption is a fatalistic worldview that says, “*We can't do it*”, or “*No, we can't.*” I ran into the consequences of this thinking in 1987 when my wife and I tried to help a family with a medical situation. Since our Team had established a policy of bringing situations to the group that might demand a lot of involvement or money, we presented this family's case. We agreed that we couldn't pay for the surgery that the doctor said was necessary, but that we could buy a two-man saw so the husband could work to get cash to pay for it (we lived right down the road from a large sawmill). Since the husband worked as a day laborer, we assumed he would embrace this technology and opportunity to make money and save his wife's life. But he declined, simply stating that if his wife would die, she would die. We were confused, angry and finally hurt as we watched this woman die. Our, “*We can do it!*” worldview faced off against his, “*No, we can't*” worldview and his prevailed.

Do Not Pass Judgment

Our response to such beliefs may be negative, but as Kraft says, “our aim at this point is to understand, not pass judgment” (p.218). The intercultural worker will face this again and again, but the best that he or she can do is to seek to understand on a deeper level why the people believe what they do, and then seek to help give an understandable answer or solution from their perspective.

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Steve Eliason
Challenges of Intercultural Living and Service

The Sour Can Be Sweet Later!

Poems and Thoughts from a Philosopher, Educationist and Entrepreneur

Jimmy Teo

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Abstract

This article presents some of the parodies of this world both in verse and prose. Insightful observations are presented as to how our world is full of contradictions and conflicts and yet the human race is a preserving & innovative & will continue on despite all odds.

Key words: parodies of the world, contradictions, conflicts, jobs, hope, cash, bill

HAVE MONEY, NO MONEY

The MAN:

No money, keeps pigs;
Have money, keeps dogs.

No money, rides bicycle to work;
Have money, rides gym bicycle to nowhere.

No money, wishes to be married fast;
Have money, wants to be divorced faster.

No money, wife becomes secretary;
Have money, secretary becomes wife.

No money, acts like rich man;
Have money, acts like poor man.

No money, eats at home;

Have money, eats at restaurants.

No money, prays to God when sick;
Have money, see specialist, forget God.

No money, prays very hard to God;
Have money, no God.

No money, talks soft & gentle;
Have money, talks loud & proud.

No money, very spiritual;
Have money, 'out of this world'.

JOBS, HOPE, CASH & BILL

America had 3 famous personalities who had gone to eternity:

The Third Apple - Steve Jobs

The 1st Apple was the Adam's Apple (*the Apple that got Adam into trouble & explained why all men today has the Adam's apple protruding from their throats – to remind them of the first misadventure*), the 2nd Apple dropped on Newton's head & got us the theory of gravity, and the next Apple, the 3rd came from Steve Jobs – making a lot of money for himself & his company – bringing a lot of fascination & creativity to many for their iPod, iPad & iPhone & a few more inventions to come, possibly the **Itv**.

Bob Hope

This colourful & flamboyant comedian, actor, writer & businessman lived a long life. I played at his golf course at Palm Springs, California & stayed at his resort about 20 years ago. It was very expensive but worth the money for the day. I remember it was then the Chinese Lunar New Year. Not a soul played at the course except us that day. This man became a well-known personality by singing for the American troops at their military bases.

Johnny Cash

This gentleman sang so well. I loved his gospel songs. He had that baritone voice that resonated with gentleness & sincerity. He still personified country music to the world. I am always

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reminded of an album of him in the cowboy suit carrying a guitar. He reminds me of the good old America.

THOUGHTS

The irony is that today, the Americans are having problems with their **Cash, Hope & Jobs**.

And interestingly, the man who is now the in charge of his own charity, the **Bill Gates Foundation**, is still one of the richest men in the world. His name reminds the Americans about their ever mounting **Bills**. One bill adds upon another, and we soon have a mountain of bills. His name is of course, **Bill Gates**.

The European & Americans may take all their bills & simply burn them. They can refuse to pay.

That will be another chapter of the world's history.

Some will return to bartering.

The human race is a preserving & innovative & will continue on despite all odds.

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ENGLISH IS SO LOVELY AND

CAN BE FUNNY

IF WE TAKE EFFORTS
TO LEARN ABOUT THEIR WORDS
AND TRY TO USE THEM
LIKE WHAT I JUST DID
BY WRITING ABOUT
JOBS, CASH, HOPE & BILL.

ADD FUN & PLEASURE
TO ACQUIRE
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE'S SUPREMACY.

IT IS THE INTERNATIONAL LINGUA FRANCA
THE PASSPORT
TO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION ANYWHERE
THE SIMPLEST TO LEARN & MASTER.

ANYONE WHO COULD NOT READ OR UNDERSTAND

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ENGLISH
IS A DISADVANTAGED HUMAN.

SWEETER VOICES

Momma, tomorrow is tomorrow. Today is today.

My wife & I visited our elder son, Joshua & family in Canberra, Australia & our younger son, Jonathan & family in Sydney, Australia (April 5 – 16, 2014).

It was a bonding & beautiful time as we were able to spend quality time with our grand kids, the youngest being Keziah who is now 8 months old.

I must document the following events so that my grandkids could reflect on what I wrote & perhaps, discuss with me in latter years (as Eden & Evan did on my last night in Canberra, as I read some chapters of my current book with them):

JEMIMAH (3 years old)

She loves to sing, dance, paint and of course, laugh.

She plucked a single red chilli from a community garden at the adjacent condo for me prior to our visit. She was delighted that I ate it. She then took me to the garden to pluck more, all the green chilli (like the chilli padi of the tropics). I told her not to touch the chilli as they can be very hot. So, she directed me to pluck the chilli as she dared not touch them. We collected about 15 chilli.

Thereafter, each time I have meals at home, she would remind me about the chilli in the fridge, and she would watch me eating them, wondering why grandfather could eat such hot stuff!

On 9 April 2014, when my wife was trying to help her wear her warm clothes (as it was quite cold in the evening of about 12 – 15 degrees C), Jemimah commented: '*Grandma, sometimes, you must allow us children to do things by ourselves!*' We were surprised by her maturity.

She was so chatty, and persistent.

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When I got back to Sydney from Canberra carrying with me some Easter Eggs Chocolates, she wanted to eat one of the largest eggs, and she asked me permission. I told her that she should ask her mum, Ka Mun. She did, and Ka Mun told her that she could not eat the egg chocolate as she just ate a piece of chocolate. She was persistent, and Ka Mun finally said, 'OK, Jemimah, you can eat it tomorrow'.

To my pleasant surprise, Jemimah pleaded: 'Momma, tomorrow is tomorrow. Today is today. Please let me have it now?'

Ka Mun, finally agreed that she could have a little piece. I broke a small piece for her. She took it, and did not ask for more. She abided by what she promised.

KEZIAH (8 months old)

Although she could not speak as yet, I can see that she is trying very hard, at times at the top of her voice.

When she smiled, it was very charming.

She is growing fast & her dark luxuriant hairs are indeed very unique for such a young lady.

Her voice is loud & sharp. And when she cried, it was with full gusto. Quite a lady indeed.

I see that she enjoys pulling her sister, Jemimah hairs. And then smiled. I do not know what was transpiring in her thoughts at this tender age!

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ETERNITY

When one dies,
One becomes just a body,
A body ready to be cremated or buried;
Our identity simply disappears
Like the sun appearing in the early morning & gone by the evening.

Upon death we become just a memory
Only a memory.

All things on earth are also temporary

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Tagged with a timeline; guaranteed expiry.

There is eternity within
No timeline; always infinity
Infused with hidden energy & authority.

As life is temporary
Let us do our best with God's help
To be kind, sweet & ever ready
Easing others into the eternity
Of goodness, peace & bliss;
As friends of our Creator
Gladly do His bidding.

God is never wrong

An advisor often reminds his King about the goodness of God: *'Oh Majesty, never be discouraged in anything. God will not make mistakes.'*

On a hunting trip, a wild animal attacked the King; he survived but lost a finger.

The same advisor again remarked: *'Oh Majesty, never be discouraged by this incidence. God never make any mistakes. Be thankful that you are alive.'*

The angry King retorted: *'Why God should caused my finger to be lost if He makes no mistakes. I am now one finger less!'* He dismissed the advisor from his job.

On another trip out his Kingdom, he was captured by a band of cannibals. They were about to have him dissected & to be placed in the boiling pot, when they found that a finger from him was missing. It was taboo to them eat any living thing with a finger less. They quickly & respectfully released the King, fearing punishment from Heaven.

On his return home, he quickly called back his advisor to apologize & to reinstate him to a higher position.

He was puzzled & further remarked: *'If God makes no mistakes, why did He allow me to dismiss you?'*

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Jimmy Teo

The Sour Can Be Sweet Later!

The quick witted advisor said: *'Praise God, Your Majesty. Had I not be dismissed, I would have followed you. They would have eaten me as I have all my 10 fingers intact. God is never wrong. I am thankful & did not blame you for dismissing me. I know there is always something good behind the action.'*

Always be thankful
And try not to complain or blame God.

The sour can be sweet later.

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Do Not Just Tell, Paint an Image: The Art of Descriptive Writing for Beginners

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Abstract

Teaching descriptive writing is a common practice in an ESL writing class. However, there is no general agreement to what kind of strategy is the most helpful and why it is helpful. This paper is a library research which examines the relationship between teachers' instructions and strategies in relation to writer's performance. The study explores the setbacks that the ESL writers face in descriptive compositions. The paper also elucidates and illustrates descriptive writing and its components. The study then analyzes a rubric which recounts the pathway to guiding ESL writers' master descriptive writing. The analysis, finally, suggests that implementation of several instructional strategies help an ESL writer, in particular, a beginner, to improve his or her confidence in writing a descriptive composition.

Key words: Descriptive writing, ESL writer, prewriting, brainstorming, sensory details, first draft, self-editing, peer review, teacher's evaluation, model composition.

Performance at the End of the Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels

Even after successful completion of secondary and Higher secondary levels, most ESL students lack stock of every day useable words, let alone vocabularies for expressing sensory details or feelings. They usually neither use English for spoken nor for writing until they step into tertiary level. At their university level, they find it difficult to adjust with the new medium of instruction. In terms of writing, they suffer from the blockage of waiting for the words to come. In some cases, even though they have some reasonable ideas about the content, they are unable to successfully produce those thoughts in English. According to Phyllis Crème (2003, p.6),

'writers traditionally find writing difficult'. Consequently, whenever ESL writers undertake a

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writing task which requires meticulous use of words, they grow anxious. However, the best piece of composition is produced when the writer is at his/her lowest level of anxiety. Anxiety hampers natural flow of writing and leaves the ESL learners with confusion and emptiness. The ability to describe something convincingly serves a writer well in any kind of composition situation. Since descriptive writing is known to be as showy writing, in which the description is supposed to trigger the reader to visualize, ESL students find it difficult as they suffer from anxiety and lack stock of free flowing vocabularies.

Focus of This Paper

This paper is basically based on library research. The paper examines and investigates equipments and procedures that help ESL writers to arrange and organize their piece of descriptive composition successfully when they are unable to begin. In doing so, the paper primarily focuses on possible class room strategy that reduces ESL writers' panicky blocking of waiting helplessly for words to come. Then it moves on to examine if and to what extent successful completion of step by step procedure eventually turns ESL writers into sensory composers.

Descriptive Composition

The descriptive composition is a genre of writing that asks the students to describe something - object, person, place, experience, emotion, situation, etc. This genre allows for a great deal of artistic freedom and the goal of which is to paint an image that is vivid and moving in the mind of the reader.

Capturing an event through descriptive writing involves paying close attention to the details by using all of the five senses. Descriptive writing often makes use of figurative language such as analogies, similes and metaphors to help paint the picture in the readers' mind. It uses precise language. Specific adjectives, nouns and strong action verbs are used to give life to the pictures. Descriptive writing emphasizes overlooked items and uses words that engage and surprise the reader. Skilled writers organize their compositions like a video camera shoots a scene. It can pan from left to right, top to bottom, zoom in or zoom out.

Moreover, according to Bernwell and Dess (1995, p.128), “good descriptive writing should be such that combines both subjective and objective knowledge of the writer.’ In other words, both ‘factual’ as well as ‘author’s’ own interpretation is crucial in terms of descriptive writing.

Descriptive Writer

Furthermore, a good descriptive writer knows the art of omission and addition. ‘In doing descriptive writing, the writer learns what details to include and what to exclude.’(Bernwell and Dess, 1995, p.129). The ultimate job of descriptive writer is to show, not to tell. He shows only those things which are essential for an impressive visualization in readers’ mind. Furthermore, he organizes his image either by time, visual field (left to right; top to bottom; small to large), details, or procedure.

Teaching Descriptive Writing – Focus on Reducing Anxiety

The first challenge in teaching descriptive writing is to reduce learner’s anxiety and make them enthusiastic. Many factors contribute to ESL writers’ anxiety: high expectations for writing across the curriculum, poor performance on English writing exams, lack of English vocabularies, and fear of doing spelling mistakes, confusion about grammar rules, teachers’ negative expectations, and concern for others’ perceptions. The anxiety ultimately leads ESL writers to avoidance, withdrawal, and procrastination in completing any writing task. Therefore, bringing enthusiasm in writing is important since this is one of the fundamentals for accomplishing any successful writing task. Unless the ‘real interest or ‘feelings’ are brought under consideration, the writers find it difficult to pin down their thoughts in paper. When ESL writer’s anxiety level is low, their feelings are ‘touched’, they feel enthusiastic, they tend to be totally involved in writing which often results in a production above their expected level.

Less Focus on Accuracy or Correctness of Grammar

With a view to lessening writers’ anxiety, an instructor takes a roundabout technique. He or she initiates teaching descriptive writing indirectly, or without having the writers know that they are going through a process of developing their descriptive writing skills. “Trying to get [ESL writers] writing right in every way can inhibit [them] from allowing [their] ideas to flow

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freely and their language develop” (Crème, Phyllis and Mary R. Lea, 2003, p. 6). If the writer knows that they have to undertake a process of writing which requires extensive use of vocabularies, he naturally becomes scared because he becomes conscious about accuracy. ‘Focusing on accuracy is exactly the wrong place to look for writing improvement as there is little evidence to show that either syntactic complexity or grammatical accuracy are best measures of good writings’ (Hyland, 2011, p.11).

Prewriting

There is no one way to teach descriptive writing. However, teacher can organize a set of task and guide his students through various steps. While doing this, he or she should concentrate on prewriting, drafting and reviewing. As a creative teacher, he or she has to be creative all through the process.

According to Donald Murry (1982), more than 70% time should be spent in prewriting. This is the ready- to-write stage (Tompkins, 1990). For descriptive writing, in particular, prewriting proves to be more important since this can provide ELS writers with the right visual aids. In this stage, it is important for the students to gather and organize ideas related to the topic.

In most of the cases, this stage becomes challenging for the teachers. Some teachers start with teaching writing structures, some talk about grammar rules and some other directly want their students to start writing. However, none of these approaches is fruitful since the first two turn ESL writers more anxious and the third one makes them frustrated because they do not know what to write.

Aid for Prewriting

The teacher instead can show an image of an object, animal, human being in a setting related to the topic or any natural scenery to the ESL writers. In addition, the teacher can share some stories or expose some related details so that writers receive some raw materials for a reasonable visualization. The writers then explore further and put some more colors in their visuals. Once the visuals are ready in their mind and they have enough ideas about the subject,

they are ready to step into the next challenge of looking for appropriate vocabularies, phrases and expressions.

Brainstorming

Students can initially start up with brainstorming. They jot down bunches of words related to the subject and then remember more similar words and write down some connected words. The teacher then writes some necessary words and phrases on the board or shows them in multimedia slides. Additionally, he or she approaches individual students with a view to aid them with some more useful and appropriate words and expressions. The process continues until the teacher is satisfied with students' performance. This process of gathering vocabularies, phrases and expressions provide students enough resources based on which they can step up to take a more difficult challenge of listing necessary words according to their sense perceptions.

Appropriate Vocabulary for Sensory Feelings

The next challenge is now to strengthen students' ability to figure out appropriate vocabularies for providing sensory details. Here, one of the best ways is to instruct students to make a table with headings of all senses: sight, auditory, smell, feel and taste. Students then rearrange words and phrases and expressions right under the respective headings. In addition, they remember and collect, from dictionary, some more words which they feel connected to the subject. Additionally, they share their words with their peers and discuss among themselves for new ways of expressions. However, the teacher works as a facilitator here. He or she helps them remember sensory words, presents clues and often provides them with new words and phrases. After successful completion of this challenge, students have enough resources to start writing their first draft.

First Draft

Students then start writing their first draft based on the visual aids, words, phrases and expressions they have gathered so far. Students begin to portray their image in mind freely. "These beginning drafts provide students and teachers with something to work with, and therefore spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and sentence structure should not be stressed" (Poindexter and Oliver, 1998, p.421). Students should be "encouraged to get their words and

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ideas on paper and attempt to spell whatever words they want to use” (Stice et al., 1995, p. 216, quoted in Poindexter and Oliver, 1998, p.421). Donald Graves (1983) researched on children’s writing tendencies and recognized that children seemed to enjoy writing more on unassigned topics as opposed to teacher-assigned topics. The reason behind this tendency lies in the fear of doing mistakes and being corrected. “The previous well-known practice of having [ESL writers] turn in a single draft on an assigned topic to be graded and corrected by the teacher [is] no longer considered good teaching” (Stice et al., 1995, quoted in Poindexter and Oliver, 1998, p.420). Therefore, imposition of any structure, instructions on grammar rules and spelling check in drafting stage can dramatically reduce ESL writers’ ability to produce sensory details.

Self-editing

After successfully completing of the first draft, students revise and edit their piece of writing. Revising deals with the content, while, on the other hand, editing produces a readable text and deals with proofreading. However, at the initial stage revising and editing are often collapsed together. Students therefore read the composition carefully, add or delete words, modify sentences and look for better options. In this stage, it is important for them to understand cohesion and coherence in their writing. The teacher provides clues, helps his or her students to know and understand logical connections among sentences and well structured composition as a whole. Students then rewrite the composition, focus on some structural elements and present the piece of writing as a unified whole. The students, in addition, check spelling, correct grammar, punctuation and capitalization as well. All through the process they take help from dictionaries, grammar books, peers and teachers.

Peer Review

After preparing the final draft students go through the process of peer review. They exchange their composition with each other and provide feedback on the overall idea, organization, grammar and spelling. The teacher provides a check list to the students so that they know the items they are supposed to assess. However, there are opposing views regarding peer reviews. In the primary level it sometimes proves to be useless since the students do not have sufficient ideas to correct others. On the other hand, in secondary and tertiary levels peer reviews prove to be useful; in some cases peer reviews turn out to be close to the reviews of the

professors. In addition, it helps the ESL writers most often to figure out their own mistakes while reviewing their peer's composition. Moreover, the process provides them the scope to share each other's voices and ideas.

After the completion of this review process the students then focus on their own composition again with a view to refine and polish their writing based on the comments received from the peers. When the final revision is over, the composition is now ready to submit to the teacher for final comments.

Teacher's Evaluation

The teacher then reviews each of the compositions carefully and identifies pros and cons of the compositions. Instead of judging compositions according to the grades, he or she provides them detailed feedback. Feedback-giving is as an integral part of teaching writing which helps learners to become aware of any gaps that persist between their desired goals and their current knowledge. In the process of giving feedback, the teacher can maintain a student portfolio to keep copies of student's task along with the feedback. Writing portfolio is effective because it records student's effort, and their problem and progression over a period in time (Weigle, 2007). Writing portfolios also enable teachers with their ongoing feedback which is helpful both for learning and teaching (Gillespie, Ford, Gillespie, and Leavell, 1996; Dysthe, 2008). A copy of writing is finally given back to the students. They read carefully the teacher's comments and make necessary changes in their compositions.

Presentation of Model Compositions

After the successful completion of the whole procedure the teacher presents some model compositions. In some cases, teachers provide some famous extracts from the writings of renowned novelists. However, showing extracts from the writing of famous writers do not always motivate the ESL writers. Instead of carefully observing the piece of writing they rather give up thinking about it since they feel that they never can match up with that perfect piece of writing. As opposed to feeling inspired, ESL writers rather feel anxious and demotivated. Therefore, teachers, at the initial level, should provide model compositions written by the students instead of exposing them to the writings of famous writers. Students feel motivated

when they see quality writing from their peers. Moreover, students seem to believe that they can easily match up with that level of quality.

Reading Plays an Important Role

Students who read more have higher writing proficiency (Janopowios, 1986; Kaplan and Palhinda, 1981, Lee and Krashan, 2002). If teachers facilitate students to read motivating materials, well organized descriptive pieces of writings, if possible, written by their peers, this can dramatically increase their range of vocabularies, sense of organization, understanding of sentence structures and over all confidence.

Teacher's Role as a Facilitator

However, students would only be beneficiaries when the teacher is careful in certain aspects and act as an efficient facilitator. For instance, in choosing the picture which triggers student's visualization, the teacher has to be practical. He or she has to be careful and meticulous in choosing pictures that the students can relate to their lives, context, environment and society. If the picture chosen by the instructor is very foreign, the students would find it difficult to blend it with their thought process, resulting in negative output. Moreover, the teacher has to act promptly by providing them with apt vocabularies in ample amount, helping them in organizing words and thoughts according to the sensory feeling so that the ease of students remain intact giving them low affective filter, resulting in better output in return. However, teachers must remember one thing that, "writing is learnt, not taught, and the teacher's role is to be non-directive and facilitating, providing writers with the space to make their own meanings through encouraging, positive and cooperative environment with minimal interference" (Hyland, 2011, p.19).

To conclude, our goal in this paper was to summarize the aspects of descriptive writing and present procedures to help improve ESL writers' descriptive abilities, guide teachers with some strategies that can prove to be fruitful in guiding students successfully. However, the process of descriptive writing is complex and yet not so complex as to be beyond the reach of the ESL writers. Using the strategies described above, ESL writers will get enough confidence to

begin writing, will feel encouraged to revise and improve it and finally will not hesitate to expose their writing to the readers.

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**A Comparative Study between the Methods of Democracy,
Dictatorship, Idleness and Excessive Protection Used by Parents
from the Viewpoint of the Talented Students in the City of
Jeddah, Saudi Arabia**

**Mohammed Ali Hassan Al-Zahrani, Mohammad Zuri Bin Ghani, and
Aznan Che Ahmad**

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Abstract

The present study aims to compare the methods of democracy, dictatorship, idleness and excessive protection used by parents from the viewpoint of the talented students whose ages range (13-15) years from the male and female and who have been selected according the criteria for selecting the talented students in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The study sample consists of (33%) members of the study community after excluding pilot study sample which comprises (50) male and female students. As such, what is left is (292) students. The study sample has been randomly and intentionality chosen. The scale of democratic, authoritarian, excessive protection and negligence family upbringing has been used after checking the psychometric features. The study has reached into the conclusion that the study sample individuals are distributed between the democratic and authoritarian patterns. Half of the respondents favored the democratic pattern with their talented children and other half favored the authoritarian pattern with their talented children. All the study sample individuals favored the excessive protection pattern with their talented children. None of the respondents have shown interest in using the idleness pattern with their talented children. The study has

recommended that the parents should not use the authoritarian pattern in upbringing the children due to the negative effect on the children. Besides, the parents of the talented students should balance between the excessive pattern and the negligence pattern and not to significantly over use the excessive pattern.

Key Words: methods of democracy, parental acts, impact on talented students, City of Jeddah

Introduction

Family plays an active role in the normal growth of the personality of their children. It is the most influential factor in the health and psychological normality in childhood. It also counts as the basic source of information and skills and the most important institution through which the child receives care, guidance and values (Shinawi, 1998) and through which the child is imbued with the family upbringing, values and standards and oriented-rules for his actions and behaviors. Within this context, the family atmosphere affects the growth of the son and his behavior and trends as well. It is also mostly associated with the patterns and methods through which the parents perform the roles assigned to them (Bin Auf, 2009). In this regard, Al-Jabali (2000) pointed out that the family upbringing marred with various problems and deviations will reflect on all its members and on its cohesion, stability and harmony among its members.

The family has to provide a culturally rich environment to stimulate the talented child and to push him to search for places he wants to visit, things he wants to do, tasks he wants to accomplish and lessons he wants to learn. Moreover, it is useful to stimulate dialogue with the child and to listen to his opinions and views and his participation in addressing the topics

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of his interest (Subhi & Joseph 1992). The normal family upbringing is one of the indicators judging the progress or backwardness of society. Therefore, the rates of infant death, rates of disability and the components of the culture of the child and the rates of disabilities and behavioral deviations among them give the indicators for the comparison between the communities in terms of progress or backwardness. In this regard, Belsky, Steinberg, Halpern and Felsher (2010) argue that the harsh treatment of the mother to her children predicts a behavior oriented towards behavioral riskiness among these children at an early age and having drugs, alcohol, delinquency and patterns of aggressive behavior in addition to increasing the chance of behavioral deviation (Kettani. 2001).

The contemporary Saudi family represents the small social unit of the big systemic functions in the Saudi social construction which consists of two generations (parents and children only) and it performs the biological function by supplying the Saudi society with the human elements (children) and also it performs the role of educator in transferring the cultural heritage to the children so that they acquire the Arabic language, customs, family regulations, religious teachings, and the behavioral practices (Al-Omar, 2006).

Statement of Problem

The family environment for talented students constitutes a source of obstacles they may face. The talented student's character is formed in the family environment as it is the primary source to satisfy his needs. It is through this environment the student receives socialization in accordance with the values and ideals prevalent in the society. If the family does not encourage the talent student, this represents one of the obstacles that hinder the detection of his preparations and creations (Quraiti, 2005). Hence, the family's role starts in developing the talent and this is another challenge facing the families of the talented in order

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to provide a healthy environment for the development of that talent. Many of the problems that appear among the talented students, in general, seem to be based on the family and on the methods used by family members in the family upbringing and this is confirmed by most studies such as Rim and Low's study (1988) about the family relationships and the talent. The correct family upbringing is usually reflected on the talented student so his problems get considerably less. It is worth mentioning that there are talented students who did not achieve success in the school despite the similarity of their life with the life of the successful talented students because they differed from them in the family relationships between the parents. The family relations of the successful talented students are characterized by understanding, love and marital happiness while the relations between parents of the failure talented students are characterized by dispute, conflict and between the students and parents.

The family in Saudi Arabia has gone through changes that are similar to other families in the modern world. Every industry tool affects different dimensions of social life, such as media that transmit violence, moral turpitude, disintegration, nudity, sex, and other social diseases. (Al-Zahrani, 2008).

In Saudi Arabia, certain methods of family upbringing are used including the methods of negative family upbringing among which authoritarianism, excessive protection, negligence, pampering, stirring the psychological pain, cruelty and volatility and differentiation between children. As for the positive methods of family upbringing, they include good ideals, preaching, persuasion and intimidation, the story and proverbs, pheasants and attitudes, the habit and guidance (Al-Qalee, 2003). Besides, the parents in the Saudi family tend to follow some of these methods or all of them during the upbringing of

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their children. These methods include kinds of reward, punishment, and negligence which is made through a process of daily social interaction with the children in order to support their behavior or their actions that are acceptable in the culture of the community and address the mistakes they fall in according to their vision and the principle they take in correcting what their children usually do. Such methods do not start from a vacuum but through the situations of life for the religious and educational family upbringing according to the multiplicity of life situations in the culture of the Saudi society (Al-Maqatee, 1995).

Objectives of the Study

From the objective, the following sub-objectives emerge:

The comparison between the nature of family upbringing patterns used by parents (father and mother) in the age group (13-15) years when dealing with their talented son in the city of Jeddah in Saudi Arabia.

Questions of the Study

This study raises a fundamental question which is: a comparison between the methods of democracy, dictatorship, idleness and excessive protection used in the family and their impact on the talented students.

Importance of the Study

The importance of this study stems from the subject matter which is the family upbringing patterns used by parents.

Theoretical Importance

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The theoretical importance of the study can be stated as follows:

1. The importance of the study stems from the importance of the category covered which is the category of the talented students who are badly in need of care in an attempt to positively guide their efforts away from the behavioral deviations.
2. This study comes in the light of the growing contemporary challenges which pose a threat to education and to various educational institutions especially the school.
- 3 The importance of the study stems from the importance of the moral aspect in the life of nations. This makes the search in this issue one of the priorities of the educational work of the educational institutions.
4. Despite the widespread research and descriptive studies that deal with family upbringing but the studies that focus on the talented students in this area are few according to the researcher's knowledge.

Practical Importance

The theoretical importance of the study can be stated as follows:

1. The results of the present study can be of value in guiding and drawing the attention of specialists in the fields of education and psychology of the importance of these variables.
2. The present study gains another importance that contributes to the creation of the sound environment and educational and psychological climate that develops the normal behavior among the talented children.

3. The present study can contribute to the preparation and development of educational and enriching programs for the talented students to improve dealing with the talented students.
4. The present study can contribute to the preparation and development of educational and workshops and training courses for the parents of talented students about the appropriate family upbringing patterns.

Limits of the Study

The results of the present study are determined by the tools used including the scale of family upbringing, where many scales are used when developing the main scale, Moreover, the present study is determined by the study community and the sample used consists of the talented male and female students of the age group (13-15 years) who have been selected according to the criteria for selecting talented students in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia through a scale designed and suitable for the environment of Saudi Arabia. The study community, according to what is available, consists of (342) male and female students, and one third of the total number of the population will be selected as a sample which constitutes about (33 %) of the study population which responded voluntarily to the scales of the study.

As far as the place is concerned, the city of Jeddah in Saudi Arabia is chosen due to the widespread of the different schools of talented students. While the temporal limits are represented by the time of conducting the study which is the second semester of the academic year (2014-2015 AC). Finally, the present study is determined by the way the individuals respond to the scales after clarifying them.

Definition of Key Terms

The present study contains a number of concepts, the most important of which are:

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Democratic style

This pattern is the paramount example of the parental socialization patterns because parents with this parenting style treat their child with tolerance, respect, and accept their thoughts, feelings, and aspirations. Democratic parents expose the child to experiences gradually through positive attitudes. The children are not hindered or prevented from interacting with the new attitudes and they benefit from them (Awaidi, 1993). The democratic style helps to detect personal components in children, and thus, aids in the discovery of the potentials of children, which could have remained hidden in the absence of a democratic family atmosphere.

A democratic family allows its members to express themselves freely and spontaneously. This family allows its members the freedom to criticize and to express their satisfaction or discontent (Al-Shalabi, 1993). Adler confirmed that democratic parents, who explain and interpret the rules and expectations on the behavior, produce children who are confident about their values and goals, who understand, comprehend, and abide by the law, and who have the autonomy to decide. By contrast, children raised in authoritarian style are characterized by reliability, frequency, and poor self-confidence. Generally, this parenting style is characterized by bullying (Conger & Peterson, 1984). The researcher defines it as the sum of the scores the talented student obtains in this pattern of family upbringing.

Neglect

The pattern of neglect leaves the child without care or encouragement, and conveys to the child that this type of behavior is desirable, not punishable, or considered a mistake. In addition, to leave the child without any guidance can lead to misbehavior in society (Mehrez, 2003).

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Neglect has two forms, namely, physical and emotional. Physical neglect is the failure of parents to provide for the basic needs of the child, such as cleanliness, physical, and psychological. Emotional neglect ignores the feelings and questions of the child or forbids the child to express his emotions. Consequently, the child repeats the same patterns, and becomes aggressive and destructive to satisfy selfish motives (Aldeeb, 1990).

Al Asaad (1994) observed that neglected or ostracized children did not receive the love and acceptance from their parents. These children were insecure and have low self-confidence. Furthermore, they were less adaptable in their social relationships and more pressured than children who received the attention, love, and acceptance of parents.

Excessive protection

Excessive protection and pampering are convenient ways for parents to earn the gratification, satisfaction, and approval from their children. Children gain confidence and pride because of the excessive attention of their parents (Rajaa, 1994). Parents take all the responsibilities for their children, indulge, and meet the demands of their children without any effort from the children. These children will always wait for their parents to intervene for them. Overprotective parents provide the needs of their children beyond the acceptable standards.

Parents overprotect and indulge their children for many reasons. Overprotective parents are often worried about their children to the point of doing everything for them to avoid the risk or difficulty. Indulgent parents may also have weak characters, and allow their children to control and to manipulate them. As a result, the pampered child becomes selfish and

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indifferent adults by defying authority, and lacks sense of responsibility. Pampered children have abnormal self-esteem, and expect others to treat them the way their parents did (Alroata, 2005, pp. 89-91). The researcher defines it as the sum of the scores the talented student obtains in this pattern of family upbringing.

Authoritarian style

Contrary to the democratic style, parents with authoritarian style impose their opinions on the child. They contain the wishes of the child and prevent achievable goals (even if they are legitimate). They always insist on the value of filial piety and prefer punishment as a means to raise their children. Their behavior may continue even as the child grows older. They apply methods, ranging between soft and violent, to impose their views on the work and leisure schedules for their child. These parents dictate everything from how their children should spend money, choose their friends, to the kind of education their children should obtain. Children who grow in such environment are hesitant, weak, and unable to make sound decisions. They are also at risk of developing mental disorders, such as depression, self-contempt, and selfishness (Al-Shurafa, 2005).

According to Watfa and Shehab (2001), the relationship between parents and children is one of physical and psychological violence. The authoritarian style is based on following the principles:

1. Physical violence in its various forms, which are verbal and symbolic
2. Emotional staleness between parents and children, which are the psychological and educational barriers among members of the same family

3. Not allowing children in the family to express their own opinions. These parents direct criticisms whenever it occurs, and the opinions of the child may become sources of ridicule and punishment.

The negative effects of this pattern are as follows:

1. Submission and the inability to enjoy life
2. Loss of self-confidence and inability to confront different challenges
3. Unconscious efficiency
4. Use aggressive methods (Manse et al., 2003).

The researcher defines it as the sum of the scores the talented student obtains in this pattern of family upbringing.

Talented students or outstanding: Al-Sharee (2001) defines the talented student as the student who has unusual willingness or ability or has an outstanding performance when compared to the rest of his peers in one or more of the areas estimated by the society especially in the areas of mental superiority, innovative thinking, academic achievement, and skills and abilities and he needs special care and education the school cannot afford through the regular curriculum (Andijani, 2005). Procedurally, it refers to any student diagnosed by the Department of Education in the city of Jeddah through an individual IQ test, which is Stanford - Binet test, fourth edition, and through the teachers' estimations and remarks that he has talent.

Methodology and Procedures

Study Population and the Sampling

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The study population has been selected from the talented students in the city of Jeddah in Saudi Arabia and the study will be applied to these students' parents (father and mother). The number of these talented students, according to the diagnosis of the Department of Education in the city of Jeddah for the academic year (2015-2014 AC), is about (342) students. The study sample is (33%) of the population after excluding the pilot study which is (50) male and female students and consequently the rest of the sample is (292) students. The study sample has been randomly and intentionally selected

Tools of the Study

The Scale of Family Upbringing Patterns

The scale of family upbringing is developed with the help of the previous studies and the literature review. Among the scales used in these studies, the researcher includes Al-Shalabi's Scale (1993), which consists of two patterns namely the democratic pattern and the authoritarian pattern and Al-Kettani's Scale (2000) which consists of seven parental trends which are the normality, authoritarianism, excessive protection, indulgence, cruelty, negligence, and fluctuation.

The scale consists of two images: (a) which concerns the pattern of the father's upbringing and image (b) which concerns the pattern of the mother's upbringing. Each image consists of 40 items that measure two dimensions: the democratic - authoritarian direction and consists of (20) items starting from (1-20) and the direction of excessive protection – negligence and consists of (20) items starting from (21-40). The scale comprises positive and negative items that will be identified when talking about every direction. The items measure the responses that are most frequently recurrent among the parents of the identified individual as listed and classified by himself.

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This scale measures the following dimensions:

1 - Democracy – authoritarianism direction:

2 - Excessive protection – negligence direction:

Scale Validity

A - Virtual validity

The scale has been shown to some faculty members (raters) which are (8) in number. Such raters have been asked to evaluate the items of the scale with regard to linguistic construction and the affiliation of each item to the field in which it is listed. A standard of (80%) is adopted to make the raters' amendments. After rating the scale, several changes and adjustments have been made especially concerning the linguistic construction.

B – Factor validity

To verify the factor construct validity of the scale of family upbringing patterns, the researcher has applied the scale to a pilot sample consisting on (50) parents of the talented students. Then, the factor analysis was used through the Principle Component Method, and then the Orthogonal Rotation is used through Varimax Method for all the items that constitute the scale in order to provide a better degree of the interpretation of the factor construct extracted before the rotation. The analysis was determined by four factors to check whether the sub-items of the scale get saturated around those factors. The potential root (Eigen Value) was used according to Kaiser's standard where the value of the potential root of the factor is above one. After adopting (0.30) as a minimum to the significance level of item saturation with the factor according to Guilford's standard, the results indicated that the saturations of

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all the items of the scale, which are (37), were greater than (0.30). Table (1) below illustrates the factor construct extracted from the analysis.

Table (1): The values of the potential root and the discrepancy ratios explaining the factors extracted after deleting the items and orthogonally rotating the axes of the family upbringing scale

Factor	Potential root	The explaining discrepancy ratio	Summative discrepancy explaining ratio
First	5.720	15.460	15.460
Second	4.313	11.658	27.117
Third	3.999	10.808	37.925
Four	3.463	9.359	47.285

As it is clear from the above table, the values of the potential roots of the extracted four factors are above one and this explains what constitutes (47.29) of the total variance in the response of the study sample toward the scale. To reveal the nature of the factors extracted and the items saturating on each of them, the saturation values of each item in each factor has been calculated.

C - Construct validity

The construct validity has been calculated by calculating the correlation coefficient between the degree of each item and the total score of the field to which the item belongs.

The coefficients have been represented by table (2) below:

Table (2): Coefficients of the construct validity between the item and the dimensions of the family upbringing scale

Item	Correlation coefficient	Item	Correlation coefficient	Item	Correlation coefficient	Item	Correlation coefficient
1	0.45*	11	0.56**	21	0.60**	31	0.57**
2	0.65**	12	0.31*	22	0.32*	32	0.33*
3	0.57**	13	0.49**	23	0.44**	33	0.59**
4	0.53**	14	0.32*	24	0.49**	34	0.65**
5	0.40**	15	0.65**	25	0.11	35	0.79**
6	0.31*	16	0.48**	26	0.68**	36	0.64**
7	0.56**	17	0.56**	27	0.82**	37	0.59**
8	0.50**	18	0.17	28	0.59**	38	0.68**
9	0.64**	19	0.69**	29	0.68**	39	0.71**
10	0.21	20	0.59**	30	0.73**	40	0.80**

**Level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$ *Level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$

It is clear from the table that all the items are statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ except the following items: 10, 18 and 25 and therefore they have been deleted in the final shape of the scale. Accordingly, the scale in its current form consists of (37) items.

The Reliability: It is verified through

A. Test-Retest Reliability

The scale has been applied to a pilot sample of (40) male and female students from within the study population and outside the sample. Three weeks later the researcher applied

the scale on the same sample. The correlation coefficient between the scores of the two applications was calculated. The correlation coefficients between the scores of each field came as follows: democratic (0.69), authoritarian (0.79), idleness (0.71), and excessive protection (0.65). All the correlation coefficients between the scores of each field of the scale aspects were acceptable and statistically significant at the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.01$) which indicates the reliability of all the fields of the scale. Consequently, the scale is left in its final shape which consists of (37) items.

Describing the Scale in Its Final Shape

The scale consists of (37) items and four fields:

- **Democrat:** It means the extent to which parents use methods based on consultation and cooperation with the son and it is measured by the following items: 1, 3, 7, 12, 14, 17, 18, 21, 24, and 35.

- **Authoritarian:** It means the extent to which parents use methods based on cruelty and severity with the children during their upbringing and it is measured by the following items: 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 13, 15, and 16.

The two dimensions of democracy and authoritarian are dealt with as an independent pattern.

- **Negligence:** It means the extent to which parents use methods based on negligence and disregard for the needs and rights of children. It is measured by the following items: 5, 9, 10, 23, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, and 37.

- **Excessive protection:** It means the extent to which parents use methods of care and attention more than necessary when raising their children and it is measured by the following items: 19, 20, 22, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, and 36.

The two dimensions of excessive protection and idleness are dealt with as an independent pattern.

Based on the items of this scale, the lowest score obtained by the diagnosed individual in the field (democracy - authoritarian) is (18) and the highest score is (72), and so on.

18-36 indicates the predominance of authoritarian direction.

37-54 indicates the level between the authoritarian and democratic directions

55-72 indicates the predominance of the democratic direction.

Based on the items of this scale, the lowest score obtained by the diagnosed individual in the field (negligence - excessive protection) is (19) and the highest score is (76), and so on.

19-38 indicates the predominance of the negligence direction.

39-57 indicates the level between the negligence direction and the excessive protection.

58-76 indicates the predominance of the direction associated with the excessive protection.

Results of the Study

Question: What are the family upbringing patterns of democracy, idleness, dictatorship and excessive protection used by parents (father and mother) in the age group

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(13-15) years in dealing with the talented son from the viewpoint of the student in the city of Jeddah in Saudi Arabia?

To answer this question, frequencies and percentages of family upbringing patterns were extracted for each type:

Table (3) Frequencies and percentages of the types of family upbringing for the talented students in the intermediate stage in Jeddah

Type		Number	Percentage	Total
Democratic–	Democratic	47	49%	98
Authoritarian	Authoritarian	51	51%	
Excessive	Excessive	98	100%	98
Protection–	Protection			
Negligence	Negligence	0	0%	

The table above shows the distribution of the study sample between the democratic and authoritarian patterns. Nearly half of the study sample used the democratic pattern with their talented children, while the other half used the authoritarian pattern with theirs. The table also shows that all the study respondents utilized the pattern of excessive protection with their children while none used the negligence pattern.

Generally, the family plays an active role in the normal development of the personality of their children, which is considered an important influence in their health. shinawi (1998), stated that the family provides information and the necessary skills to the children. Consequently, the role of the family has not changed over time. Although the family is considered the third influential factor in affecting the character of the children, where media and school constitute the first two factors, the family is still an important contributor to

the development and growth of children. Therefore, the role of the family cannot be neglected and its influence on children remains. Al-Jabali (2000), argues that the family is still playing an important role in the lives of its children in that they receive their early training in life through the family because children heavily depend on their parents.

The development of the methods and patterns of family upbringing is often an indicator of the development and progress of the society. The use of physical violence with the children, for instance, is an indication of societal problems. Such problems may later affect the stability, development, and advancement of society. In this regard, Belsky, Sterinberg, Halpern, and Felsher (2010), confirmed that the harsh treatment of the mother towards her children predicts that they may develop deviant behavior at an early age. Their deviancy may manifest in drug and alcohol abuse, delinquency, and patterns of aggressive behavior.

In the same vein, the talented students who grow up within negative family upbringing will undoubtedly reflect the above problems leading to the disruption of their behavior and the decline of their academic achievement. Mauro (2008) and Aldamen (2002), confirmed such aspects in their studies. In return, many of the problems that appeared among the talented students generally seem to be influenced by methods used by family members in their upbringing. This finding is confirmed by most researchers in their studies (Rimm, & Low, 1988), With regard to the relationship between family relationships and talent, a correct family upbringing reflects the ability of the student in managing his problems.

With the advent of Islam, the status of the family was upgraded as Islam presented many instruments that magnify the role of parents. Moreover, the numerous directions in the Qur'an and Sunnah show the role of parents in education, including the words of the Prophet

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(peace be upon him), “You are all shepherds and each one of you is responsible for his flock, the father is the shepherd of his household and is responsible for his flock.” This view is confirmed by Al-Tuwaijri (2000), who also affirmed that Islam is concerned with their use of such methods as being a good example, using the methods of reward and punishment, discussion and dialogue, practice, style of consultation, and cooperation. Imam Ghazali also emphasized the major role of the environment in the formation of personality and the role of the parents as a model for their children (Jayyar, 1990). This is with regard to the students as a whole especially with regard to the talented as they need a special care and a growing attention since some of their characteristics also confirm, as reported by Subhi (1992), that providing an environment that is culturally rich stimulates the talented child.

The result of the question confirmed what Jabir (2000) had stated about the most frequently used methods of family upbringing in the Arab family, which are cruelty, excessive protection, fluctuation in treatment, extreme eagerness, preference among brothers, rejection, and acceptance. These methods may be due to the nature of the hard environment of the desert in the Arab world, on the one hand, and the parental attention concerning the development of children, on the other hand. Parents in the Arab world tend to make their children be like them if not better.

Children in the Saudi Arabia usually enjoy vitality, movement, and love for discovery, which often push them to defy the laws of the family and society and even possibly violate the values, customs, and traditions. Violating the beliefs drive the parents and relatives to deter a lot of behaviors that constitute the acts of violation (Akkam, 2009). Clearly, children then feel that their parents exercise excessive cruelty in addition to the use of the democratic pattern.

The nature and evolution of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia contributed to the outcome of this question. With the advent of the discovery of oil in the second half of the 20th century, Al-Omar (2008) cited that the development increased in all aspects of life, such as the interest of the State in the family. Accordingly, many cultural centers were established and several training courses and conferences that worked on the development of the family were held. Moreover, the interest was indicated in the increase in studying Masters in family counseling, in developing talented students, and in achieving excellence.

The Saudis, like other families, are affected by developments in the society. Undoubtedly, the technological development and the emergence of the media have influenced the lives of the children. Al-Zahrani (2008), confirmed that children are highly attached to the techniques, skills, and modes of communication parents use. As such, the Saudi family has started to use specific methods of upbringing that affected the children. Some of these means include negative methods of family upbringing, such as authoritarian, excessive protection, negligence, pampering, stirring psychological pain, cruelty, and discrimination among children. The positive family upbringing patterns include being a good example, preaching, persuasion and intimidation, stories, proverbs, attitude and habits, consultation and guidance (Al-Qalee, 2003). This factor is important in the upbringing of children and their development. Therefore, positive methods used in raising talented children will reflect positively on the development of their personality. Consequently, negative methods will have undesirable effects on the children.

While the use of negative methods may cause violence in the society, some Saudi families still practice the negative methods, such as negligence (Al-Maqatee, 1995). This point is not reflected in the present study, which has found, in turn, that the parents of the

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talented children show excessive protection and moved away from negligence. Because parents plan for a bright future for their children and expect several achievements from them in the future, parents believe that their excessive protection and attention to provide guidance contribute to the development of the children.

Moreover, parents who use excessive protection must redouble their efforts to improve their children (Habeb, 2000). This point is reflected in the existence of problems among these children. Excessive care may generate problems, and the most important of which are the lack of responsibility and the inability to be independent and to carry out the tasks alone in the future. Al-Ahmedi (2005), confirmed this observation. Family problems associated with family upbringing contributed approximately 13.2% in the occurrence of problems among the respondents.

The present study has shown that the democratic pattern is the prevailing pattern among the parents with a rapprochement between it and the authoritarian pattern. Parents did not trust and did not tolerate their children too much, and perhaps were afraid of them. The use of the democratic pattern would children be more open to their parents, more audacious in addressing them, and in admitting their mistakes. This finding is very true because children usually get away from their parents when it comes to telling the parents about their real behaviors and this may be attributed to the fact that some parents use the authoritarian pattern and cruelty with their children.

Al-Shalabi (1993), believed that using the democratic pattern will help children to uncover the realities of their actions and assist parents to express more freely about their children (Conger & Peterson, 1984). Parents who provided their children with laws and regulations will help them to be more independent, open, and self-confident. These traits cannot be achieved unless the parents move away from cruelty and domination. Yet, the

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responses revealed that parents use cruelty, and accordingly, the children may confess to their colleagues and their friends, and get away from their parents.

Parents who use the authoritarian pattern impose their opinion on the child, reduce his desires, and prevent their achievement even if they are legitimate (Al-Shurafa, 2005), and parents will make the task more difficult rather than accessible to the child. Parents may control their children at the moment, but once they reach adolescence, they go defy the control of their parents. This behavior was observed in the current situation where the children began to exercise behaviors that may be incompatible with the demands of the community and the wishes of the parents.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the present study, the researcher has come up with the following recommendations:

1. Working to have the parents away from the authoritarian pattern in the upbringing of their children due to the negative effect on the children practiced by the authoritarian pattern.
2. Asking the parents of the talented students to balance between the pattern of excessive protection and negligence and not to overuse the pattern of excessive protection significantly.

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Trends in the Development of Rhythmical Hand Behaviours in Infants

**Mili Mathew
Dr. R. Manjula**

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Abstract

Infants are reported to produce large amounts of rhythmical behaviours, like kicking, banging, rocking, waving, bouncing, swaying and such. The present study examined the development of rhythmical hand behaviours, in order to understand the trends in the emergence of these behaviours. Participants included nine infants who were longitudinally studied for the duration of 10 months, between 3 and 12 months of age. The infants were observed for six types of rhythmic behaviours (cycling, bang, swing, shake, flex and twist) as they co occurred with speech behaviors, and a measure of rate of co-occurrence was calculated. Results indicated that rhythmical behaviours were present from the young age of 3 months, with changes in the occurrence rate as they grew older. There were also variations seen in the rates of occurrence with respect to hand preference and some indicators of cultural variations with respect to few of these rhythmical behaviours.

Key words: Rhythmical hand behaviours; longitudinal design; rate of occurrence; growth trends.

Introduction

Rhythmical stereotypes are a part of the behavioral repertoire of insects, fish, birds and is less common in mammals (Schleidt, 1974). In primates, these stereotyped behaviours

are uncommon and are considered pathological. Among non-human primates, these have not been observed in free animals, but are seen in animals caged in small enclosures or those raised in social isolation (Berkson, 1968). In humans, stereotypy is usually associated with not-so-typical populations, like children with autism, individuals who are blind, and those who are emotionally disturbed (Berkson & Davenport, 1962).

When compared to other primates, stereotypy is the hallmark of typically developing human infants during a stage in the lifecycle (Kravitz & Boehm, 1971). Infants are reported to produce large amounts of rhythmical behaviours, like kicking, banging, rocking, waving, bouncing, swaying and such. These behaviours occur very frequently and infants are seen to enjoy and absorb these acts, though it is difficult to ascribe a purpose for these movements.

There has been considerable debate regarding the functions of these stereotypical behaviours seen in infants. Psychoanalysts have suggested that stereotypy could be a sign of emotional development, such as an attempt to recreate rhythmical prenatal experiences or as a result of an infant being confined to a small space (Kris, 1954; Levy, 1944). Piaget (1954) observed that the repetitive movements are 'secondary circular reactions' since an infant repeats activities that have an interesting effect on the environment, thus serving as a sign of cognitive development. It has also been noted that certain rhythmical behaviours are associated with particular stages of neuromuscular maturation, and therefore suggest that rhythmic patterns appear in the transition stages of motor development (Kravitz & Boehm, 1971).

Schleidt (1974) proposed that repetition of a signal could increase its potency for communication, since caregivers may consider these behaviours as intentional. A study on 'fussy' infants reported that the increased levels of arousal in a baby facilitated the release of rhythmic motor output, which in turn accentuated their cry for distress and received a

hastened response from the caregiver (Thelen & Fisher, 1982). This result suggests that rhythmic movements may communicate infant affect.

Thelen (1979) observed 20 American infants between the ages of 4 and 52 weeks and concluded that there seemed to be multiple contexts that elicited rhythmical behaviours in the infants. These were categorized as interactions with caregivers, other people, interest in objects, feeding times, passive or active kinesthetic changes and non-alert states like that of drowsiness. Further, developmental trends in the interactions of these contexts and rhythmic movements were also observed. It was observed that in 3-5 month old infant's interactions with caregivers occurring frequently in object related interactions with older infants served as strong elicitors of stereotypy. . It was also seen that all types of contexts elicited stereotypy during 6-7 months and showed a decline when the infants were approaching 12 months of age. Thelen (1979) also documented a wide range of rhythmical stereotypies that involved various parts of the body such as legs, head, torso, arms and face in infants. Among the movements of legs and feet, rhythmical kicking was observed in early age and was found to persist for a number of months. These bouts were often seen in infants between 6 and 14 weeks of age, when they were in prone or supine position. . The rhythmic movements seen were alternate-leg kicking, single-leg kicking, foot rubbing, both-legs-together kicking, foot flexion, foot stomping and foot rotation.

Movements of torso observed in the study included bouncing, swaying, rocking, hand-and-knees rock, hands-and-feet rock, rocking and bouncing while sitting, kneeling and standing. These stereotypies were observed while the infants were in prone, sitting, kneeling or standing positions as well as when they were supported on hands, knees and feet. These movements were observed in infants at various ages; abdomen movements by 16 to 34

weeks, hands and knees movements by 18 to 44 weeks, sitting movements by 18 to 48 weeks, kneeling movements by 30 to 50 weeks and standing movements by 22 to 44 weeks.

It was also documented that infants performed many bouts of stereotyped movements of the arms, hands and fingers, which were often found to incorporate objects as part of the movement itself. These behaviours included arm waving, arm banging, hand clapping, push-pull movement of elbow (bend), ear/hair rub, flexing of hands, rotating of hands and flexing of fingers. . It was also noted that flexing of fingers was not seen in all infants. Rhythmical movements of arms began by 6 to 22 weeks, movements of hands by 22 to 46 weeks and movements of fingers were seen by 4-16 weeks. Movements of head and face were reported to be infrequent when compared to the rest of the body. Head shake and head nod were seen along with tongue protrusions, tongue swipes, non-nutritive sucking and small rhythmic mouthing movements.

Thelen (1981) concluded that rhythmic stereotypies appeared to be under strong central control. The first evidence that points in this direction is the regularity seen in the age of onset of these behaviours and the close association of these ages to other aspects of neuromuscular maturation. Therefore, the production of these behaviours seem to be dependent on the maturation of the nervous system and these events are intrinsic to the infant. But this does not rule out the variability in the developmental course of these behaviours, which might reflect the influence of factors extrinsic to the infant. However, Thelen (1981) observed that despite the variability, these behaviours develop in an orderly manner. Evidence that also supports this view can be found in the appearance of these behaviours before the infant gains postural control over a new position. For example, rhythmical kicking may precede both the ability to support weight on legs as well as the use of legs for crawling or walking. This might suggest that simple motor patterning actually reflects some degree of

functional maturity of a neuromuscular pathway, even though the pattern is not under complete voluntary control and there is imperfect goal-correction.

Thelen (1981) also suggested that these stereotypies could also be the result of an overload in the neural processing capacity, since the available pathways are immature to process heavy demands; implying that when maturation enhances the processing capacity of the system, the stereotypical behaviours will be replaced by variable and goal-corrected activity. This observation could be extended to human infants since their neuromuscular maturation is much slower when compared to infants of non-human primates. But, it can also be the case that these behavioural 'by-products' are used as per the opportunities by infants and may serve a variety of complex functions when mature behaviours are not available to them.

These views do suggest that there are various aspects of the development of rhythmical movements that are not clearly understood. Since infants are constantly engaged in producing these movements, tracing their development from a very young age could possibly shed some light on the factors that govern the emergence and in some cases there is decline in these behaviours with progress in age. Also, if these movements are a part and parcel of the process of neuromuscular maturation, then it must be deemed important to document the development and patterns of occurrence of these rhythmic movements. This is especially true for hand movements as they form a communicative system that develops in conjunction with the speech/linguistic system. Keeping this background in mind, this study has been undertaken to document the patterns of development of rhythmical hand behaviours in typically developing infants.

Aim of the Study

This study aimed to document the development of rhythmical hand movements in typically developing infants from the age of 3 to 12 months, using a longitudinal design.

Method

Participants

The study included nine typically developing infants, three female and 6 male infants. These infants were followed longitudinally for a period of 10 months, and the first recording was made at the age of 3 months and ended when the infants turned 1 year of age. On an average, there were 8 recordings per child. This was because of unavoidable circumstances where some infants could not be recorded for all the 10 months of the study period. All the participants were full term babies, with no major birth complications, and passed a hearing, vision and language screening test before they were included in the study. They were also from Kannada speaking families with the mother as the primary caregiver.

Procedure

The recordings were done in the homes of the infants while they were interacting with their mothers, using a Sony HDR video and audio recorder. Each recording was done once a month for the duration of 1 hour, when the child was most playful and alert. The recordings were not continuous, since there were breaks when the child was fussy/ uncomfortable. The mother was instructed to talk to/ stimulate/ play with the infant as normally as possible, either when the infant was lying on the floor or when placed on the lap of the mother or sitting independently in the later months. The videos were later edited and only those portions of the data that could be used for the analysis were retained. The average duration of the data

used for the analysis was 10 - 15 minutes per recording, from the 3rd to 6th months and 20-25 minutes per recording for the later months.

Coding of Rhythmic Behaviours

The rhythmic behaviours of the infants were coded using ELAN software (Lausberg & Sloetjes, 2009), which provides a frame- by- frame analysis of the recording. A key for coding all the behaviours was developed by the principal investigator (Appendix 1) and the same was compiled based on a review of existing literature (Thelen, 1981). Each item in the key thus developed was provided with an operational definition, in order to facilitate uniformity in the coding across coders. The coding of the samples was done by three independent coders (speech language pathologists), one being the principal investigator and two other coders who were trained in the use of the coding scheme using the video sample of an infant who was not part of the main study.

Initially, the principal investigator identified and labelled the rhythmic behaviours exhibited by the infants. Then the two coders were instructed to go through the coded samples and indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the annotations of the principal investigator. The coders were required to do this exercise on 10% of the samples, which were randomly selected, i.e.10 videos, and they were asked to carry out this independently. The 10 videos were selected from the data pool, keeping in mind that each month of study was represented in the reliabilities check.

The mean percentage agreement was calculated for both the coders for rhythmic hand behaviours, and this is as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The percentage agreement between coders for gaze behaviours.

Month	Total number of rhythmic behaviours	Mean percentage of agreement (%)
3	66	94.97
4	71	88.67
5	71	86.71
6	98	89.45
7	87	93.49
8	69	91.11
9	61	88.61
10	45	93.73
11	43	91.19
12	54	93.59

Results

The aim of the study was to document the development and patterns of occurrence of rhythmic behaviours between the ages of 3 and 12 months in typically developing infants from Kannada Speaking families. The following hand behaviours were analyzed in the study: ‘bang’, ‘cycling’, ‘shake’, ‘swing’, ‘flex’ and ‘twist’. These were annotated separately for the left and right hands. A measure of *rate of occurrence per minute* was computed. This rate was calculated in ELAN software for each month, and it is defined as the total number of individual rhythmic behaviours divided by the duration of the observational segment for that month.

The means and standard deviations for the rates of occurrence of pre-symbolic rhythmic gestures of the left hand are as shown in table 2 and figures 2 (a, b, c, d, e & f) show the mean rates and the quadratic growth models for each behaviour. Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a significant difference in the rates across the months for ‘bang’ [χ^2 (7, N=937)=47.150; p=0.000], ‘shake’ [χ^2 (8, N=789)=40.738; p=0.000] and ‘swing’ [χ^2 (9, N=1603)=28.355; p=0.001] at 0.001 levels of significance.

The post-hoc analysis revealed that for ‘bang’ gesture, the differences were due to the variations seen in the rates between the means of the 8th and 3rd, 4th and 5th months and in the case of ‘shake’ gesture variations were seen between the means for the 10th and 3rd, 4th and 5th months. For ‘swing’ gesture, the differences were noted between the means for the 4th month and all the months from the 6th month.

Table 2: Means & SDs for rates of occurrence of left hand rhythmic behaviours.

Month	Bang	Cycling	Shake	Swing	Flex	Twist
		0.195		1.582	0	0
3	0 (0)	(0.163)	0 (0)	(0.807)	(0)	(0)
		0.244	0.165	1.96	0	0
4	0 (0)	(0.338)	(0.48)	(1.35)	(0)	(0)
	0.313	0.23	0.226	1.236	0	0
5	(0.538)	(0.176)	(0.195)	(0.433)	(0)	(0)
	0.469	0.444	0.682	0.796	0.072	0.036
6	(0.427)	(0.674)	(0.367)	(0.305)	(0.205)	(0.102)
	0.367	0.224	0.245	0.427	0.086	0
7	(0.179)	(0.263)	(0.202)	(0.265)	(0.16)	(0)
	1.307	0.341	0.419	0.708	0	0.023
8	(1.391)	(0.406)	(0.311)	(0.624)	(0)	(0.048)
	0.675	0.158	0.465	0.29	0.006	0
9	(0.626)	(0.133)	(0.46)	(0.148)	(0.015)	(0)
	0.794	0.199	1.099	0.56	0.087	0.063
10	(0.59)	(0.326)	(1.138)	(0.668)	(0.194)	(0.099)
	0.784	0.454	0.711	0.726	0.012	0.011
11	(0.425)	(0.557)	(0.363)	(0.569)	(0.021)	(0.021)
	0.882	0.267	0.796	0.589	0.013	
12	(0.781)	(0.291)	(0.507)	(0.422)	(0.024)	0 (0)
P	0.000***	0.915	0.000***	0.001***	0.326	0.089

Note: ***p≤0.001

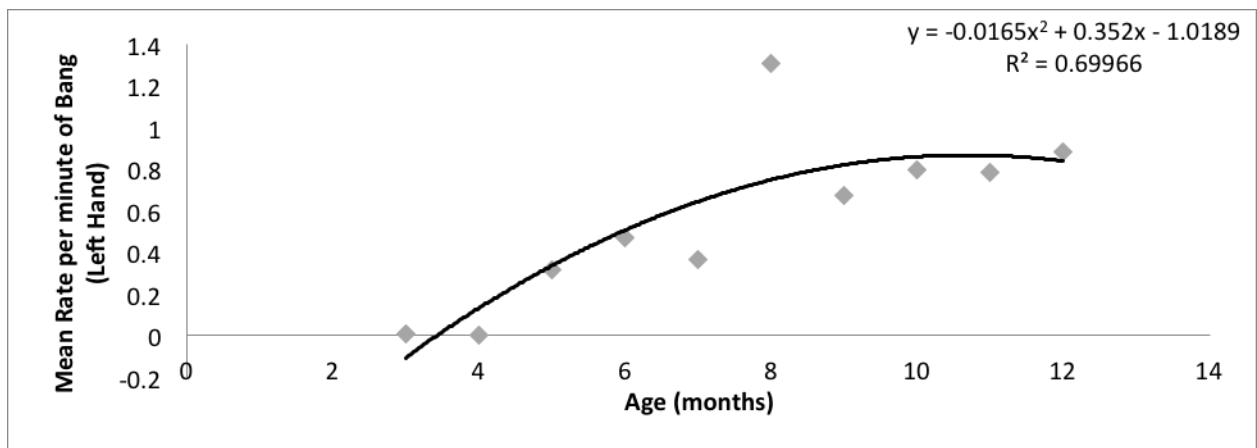


Figure 1(a): Mean rate and growth model for bang (left hand).

From the Figure 1(a), it can be understood that ‘bang’ gesture is only present from 5 months of age in these infants. The rate of occurrence was highest in the 8th month, beyond which there was a decrease seen between the 8th and 12th month. However, there was an overall increase in the production of this behaviour in this age group than when compared to that between 3rd and 7th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted a polynomial growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.6996$). This would then suggest that ‘bang’ is a hand movement that increases with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

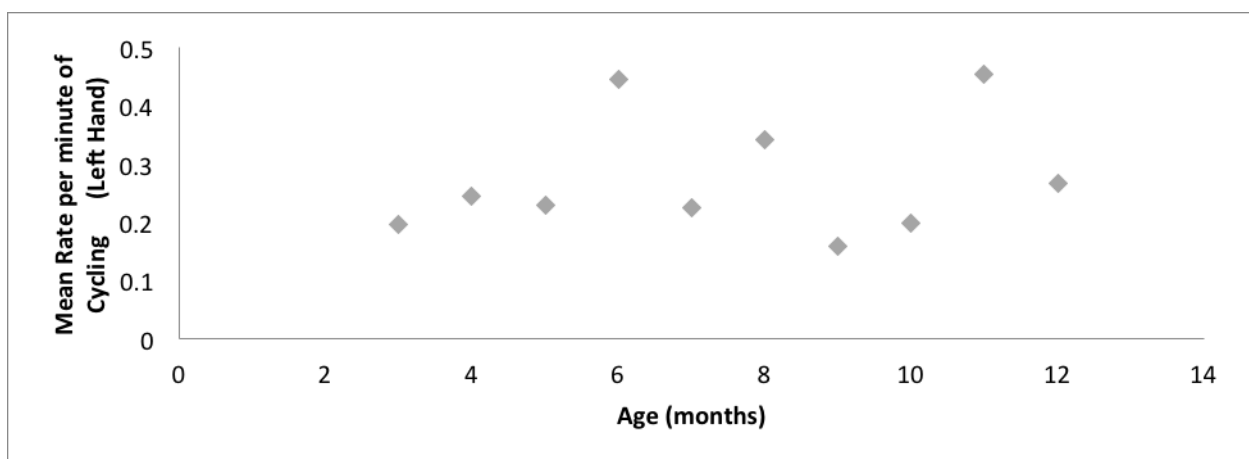


Figure 1(b): Mean rate and growth model for cycling (left hand).

From figure 1(b), it is evident that ‘cycling’ gesture was seen across all the months of study, although there is no clear pattern of increase or decrease in the rates. The highest rate of occurrence was noted in the 11th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trajectory for this behaviour.

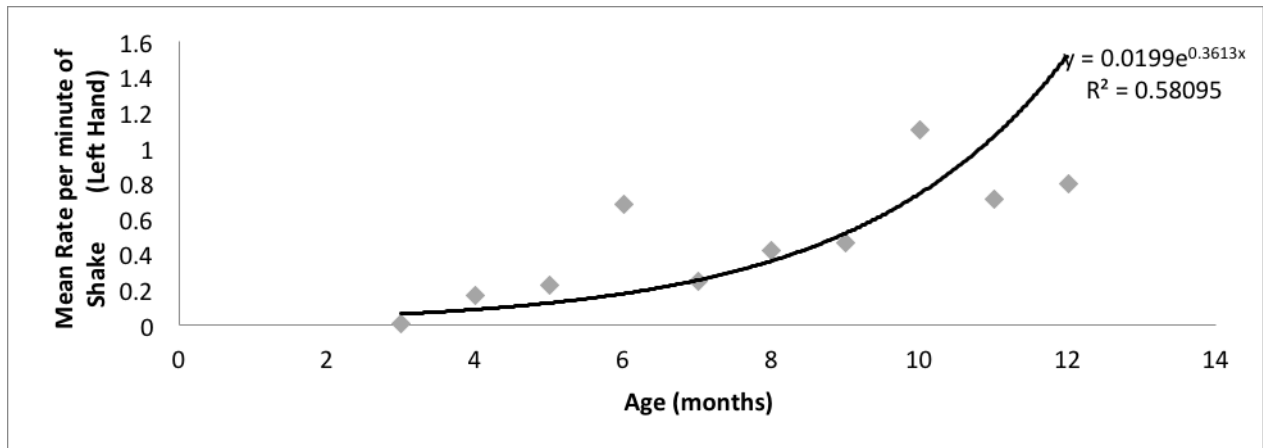


Figure 1(c): Mean rate and growth model for shake (left hand).

From figure 1(c), it can be observed that ‘shake’ gesture was noted from the 4th month onwards in the sample, with a near-steady rise till the 12th month. It was also clear that two months, namely, the 6th and the 12th recorded frequent instances of production of this behaviour, although, the highest rate was seen in the 10th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted an exponential growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a low fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.5809$). This would then suggest that the occurrence of ‘shake’ may vary with an increase in age during infancy.

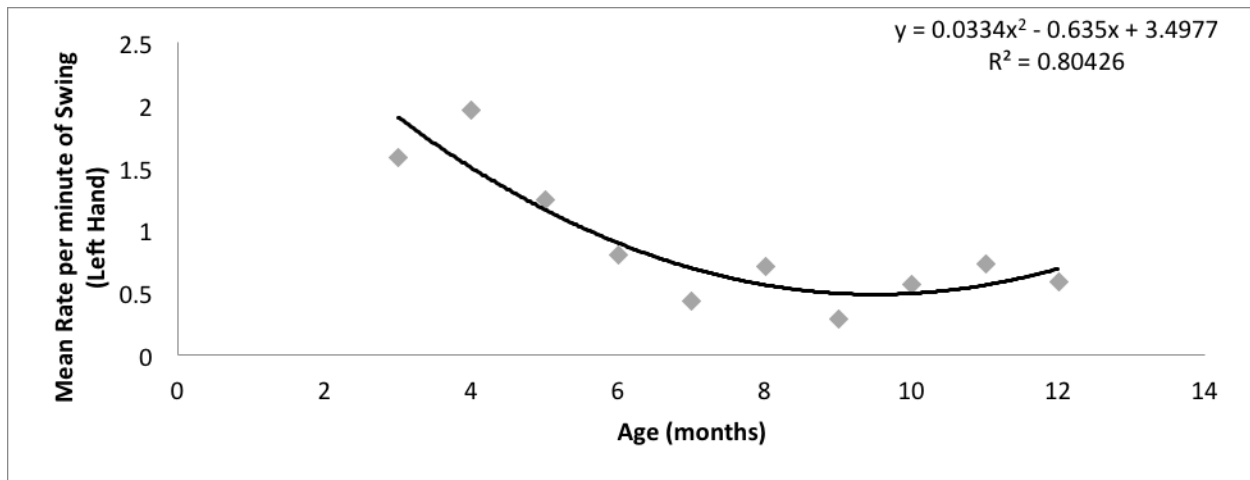


Figure 1(d): Mean rate and growth model for swing (left hand).

From the above figure, it is evident that ‘swing’ gesture was seen from the 3rd month in these infants, and the occurrences seem to reduce as age increases. The highest rate was noted in the 4th month, and thereafter the rates decreased between 5 and 7 months of age. There was also a slight increase in rates observed between 8 and 11 months. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted a polynomial growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.8042$). This would then suggest that ‘swing’ is a behaviour that decreases with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

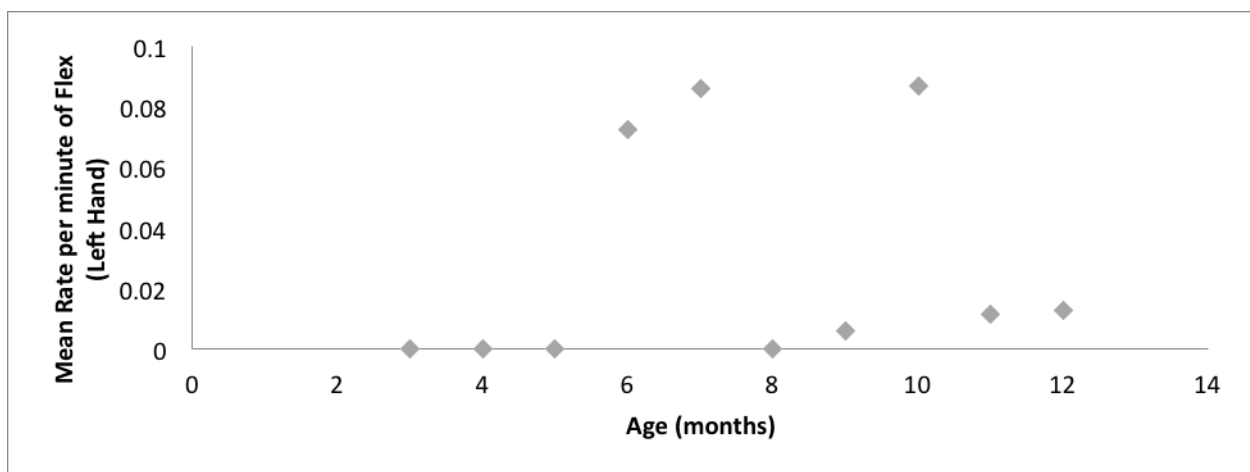


Figure 1(e): Mean rate and growth model for flex (left hand).

From figure 1(e), it is clear that ‘flex’ gesture was not produced frequently by the infants throughout the study period. It was observed only between 6 and 12 months, and there was a lot of variation seen in the occurrence within this age range. The highest rates were seen for both 7 and 12 months of age. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trajectory for this behaviour.

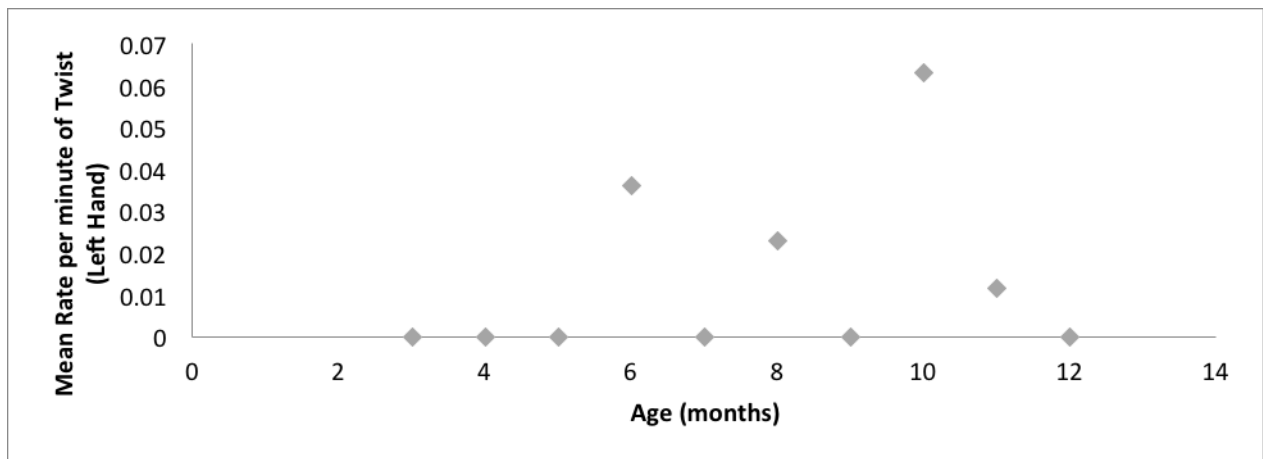


Figure 1(f): Mean rate and growth model for twist (left hand).

From the figure 1(f), it can be understood that infants rarely produced ‘twist’ gesture. It was noted to be present between 6 and 11 months of age, although there were variations in the rates of occurrences within these months. And the highest rate of occurrence was seen in the 10th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trajectory for this behaviour.

The means and standard deviations for the rates of occurrence of pre-symbolic rhythmic gestures of the right hand are as shown in table 3 and figures 2 (a, b, c, d, e & f) which show the mean rates and the quadratic growth models for each gesture. Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a highly significant difference in the rates across the months for the gestures ‘bang’ [χ^2 (8, N=1789)=53.774; p=0.000], ‘shake’ [χ^2 (9, N=1191)=42.515; p=0.000] and ‘swing’ [χ^2 (9, N=1920)=31.332; p=0.000] at 0.001 levels of significance.

The post-hoc analysis revealed that for ‘bang’, the differences were due to the variations seen in the rates between the means for the 9th month and those below the 6th month, and in the case of ‘shake’ gesture, variations were seen between the means for the 10th and all the other months. For ‘swing’ gesture, these differences were noted for the means of the 4th and 3rd months and all the months from the 8th.

Table 3: Means & SDs for rates of occurrence of right hand pre-symbolic rhythmic gestures.

Month	Bang	Cycling	Shake	Swing	Flex	Twist
		0.207	0.036	1.941		
3	0 (0)	(0.187)	(0.068)	(0.936)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	0.006	0.269	0.143	2.033		
4	(0.017)	(0.227)	(0.273)	(1.325)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	0.449	0.228	0.323	1.656		
5	(0.483)	(0.263)	(0.28)	(0.63)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	0.486	0.428	0.459	0.75	0.066	0.01
6	(0.487)	(0.501)	(0.351)	(0.445)	(0.123)	(0.029)
	0.853	0.326	0.469	0.631	0.226	0.027
7	(0.628)	(0.108)	(0.34)	(0.431)	(0.363)	(0.048)
	2.28	0.611	0.883	1.072	0.037	0.032
8	(2.041)	(0.519)	(0.859)	(0.664)	(0.062)	(0.049)
	1.998	0.272	0.878	0.272	0.012	0.006
9	(1.945)	(0.15)	(0.565)	(0.137)	(0.03)	(0.015)
	2.192	0.331	2.306	0.746	0.079	0.036
10	(1.051)	(0.329)	(1.712)	(0.595)	(0.152)	(0.059)
	1.317	0.498	1.035	0.884	0.005	0.016
11	(0.731)	(0.39)	(0.337)	(0.636)	(0.015)	(0.032)
	1.525	0.353	1.094	0.81	0.012	
12	(0.954)	(0.331)	(0.64)	(0.723)	(0.022)	0 (0)
P	0.000***	0.576	0.000***	0.000***	0.101	0.097

Note: ***p≤0.001

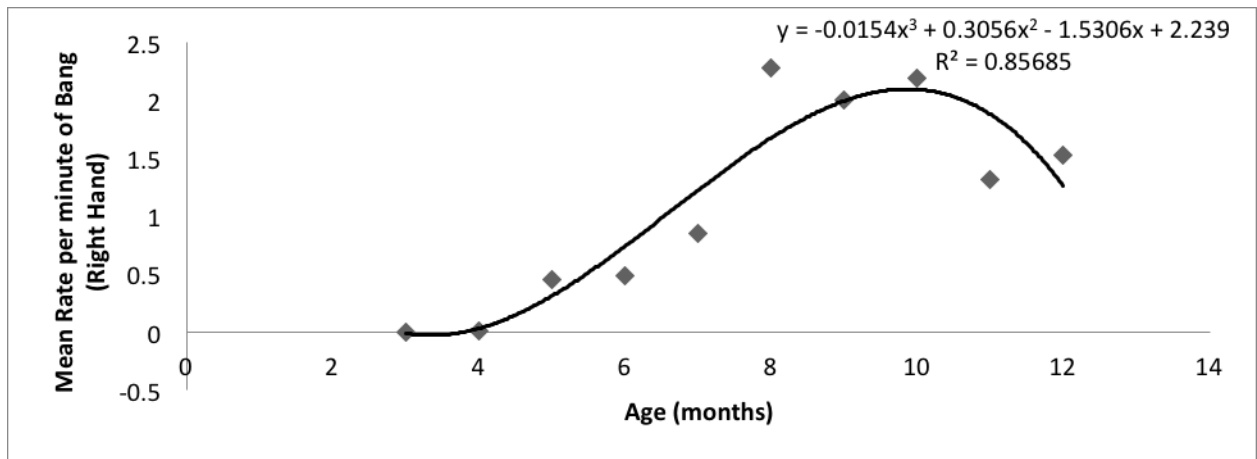


Figure 2(a): Mean rate and growth model for bang (right hand).

From the figure 2(a), it can be understood that ‘bang’ gesture is only present from 5 month of age in these infants. The rate of occurrence was highest in the 8th month, beyond which there is a decrease seen between the 8th and 12th month. However, there was an overall increase in the production of this behaviour in this age group than when compared to that between 3rd and 7th month.

Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted a polynomial growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.9344$). This would then suggest that ‘bang’ is a behaviour that shows an increase as well as a decrease in occurrence with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

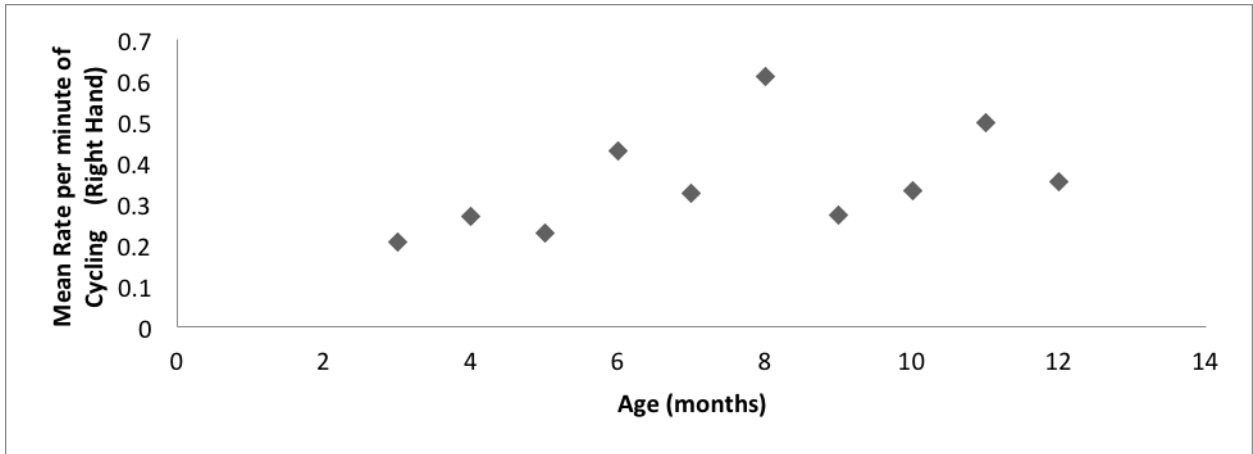


Figure 2(b): Mean rate and growth model for cycling (right hand).

From figure 2(b), it is evident that ‘cycling’ gesture was seen across all the months under study, although there is no clear pattern of increase or decrease in the rates. The highest rate of occurrence was noted in the 8th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trajectory for this behaviour.

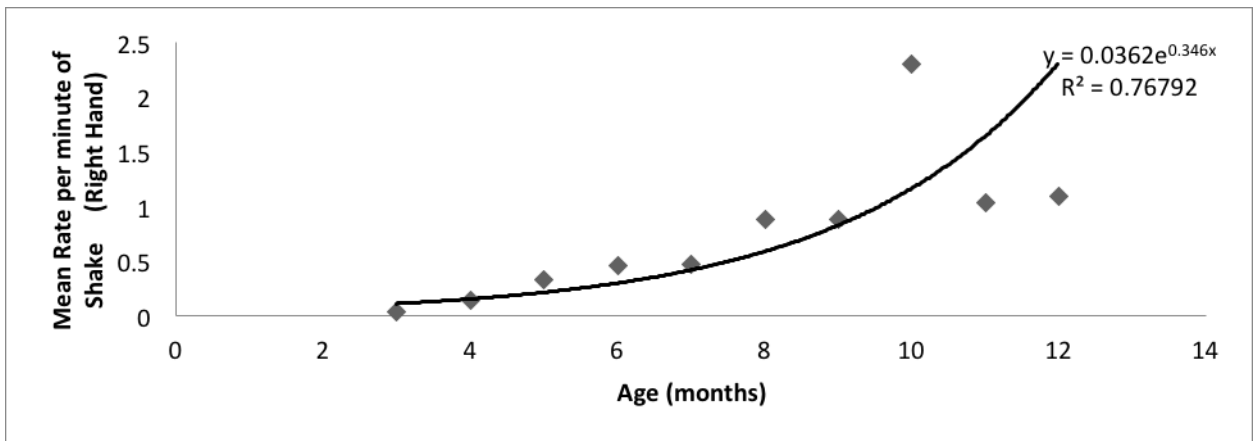


Figure 2(c): Mean rate and growth model for shake (right hand).

From figure 2(c), it can be observed that ‘shake’ was noted from the 4th month, with a near-steady rise till the 12th month. The highest rate of occurrence was seen in the 10th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted an exponential growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.7679$).

This would then suggest that the occurrence of ‘shake’ gesture increases with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

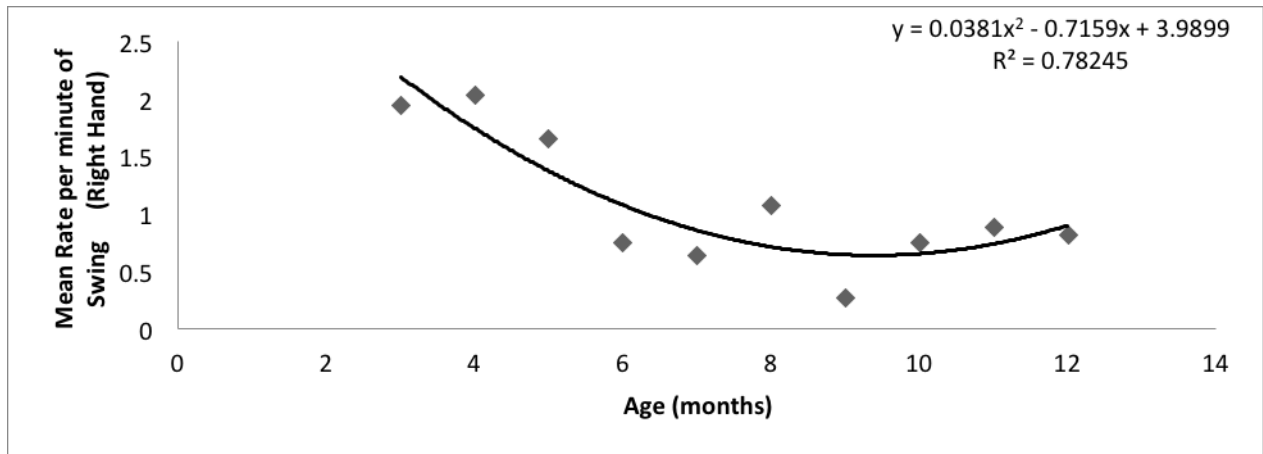


Figure 2(d): Mean rate and growth model for swing (right hand).

From the figure 2(d), it is evident that ‘swing’ gesture was seen from the 3rd month in these infants, and the occurrences seem to reduce as age increases. The highest rate was noted in the 4th month, and thereafter the rates decreased between 5 and 12 months of age, although variations were observed across this age range. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted a polynomial growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.7824$). This would then suggest that ‘swing’ is a behaviour that decreases with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

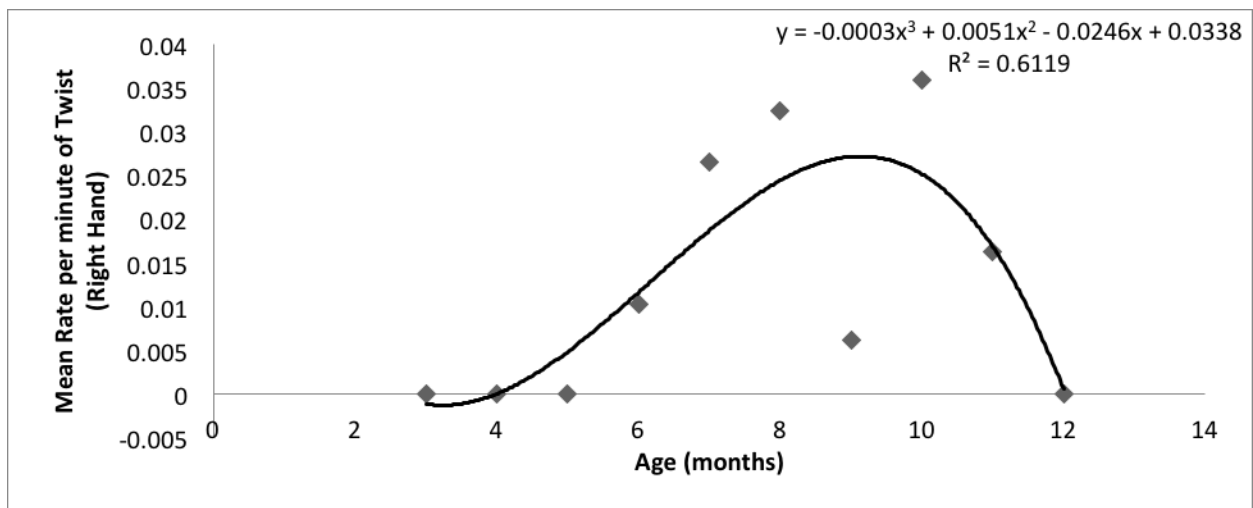


Figure 2(e): Mean rate and growth model for twist (right hand).

From the figure 2(e), it can be understood that ‘twist’ was only seen from the 6th month and it was not observed in the 12th month. There were also variations in the rates of occurrences between 6 and 11 months, and the highest rate was seen in the 10th month. Beyond this age there was a decrease seen in the rates between 11 and 12 months. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model predicted a polynomial growth trajectory for this gesture, with the quadratic regression predicting a good fit for the model ($R^2 = 0.6119$). This would then suggest that the occurrence of ‘twist’ increases and then decreases with a corresponding increase in age during infancy.

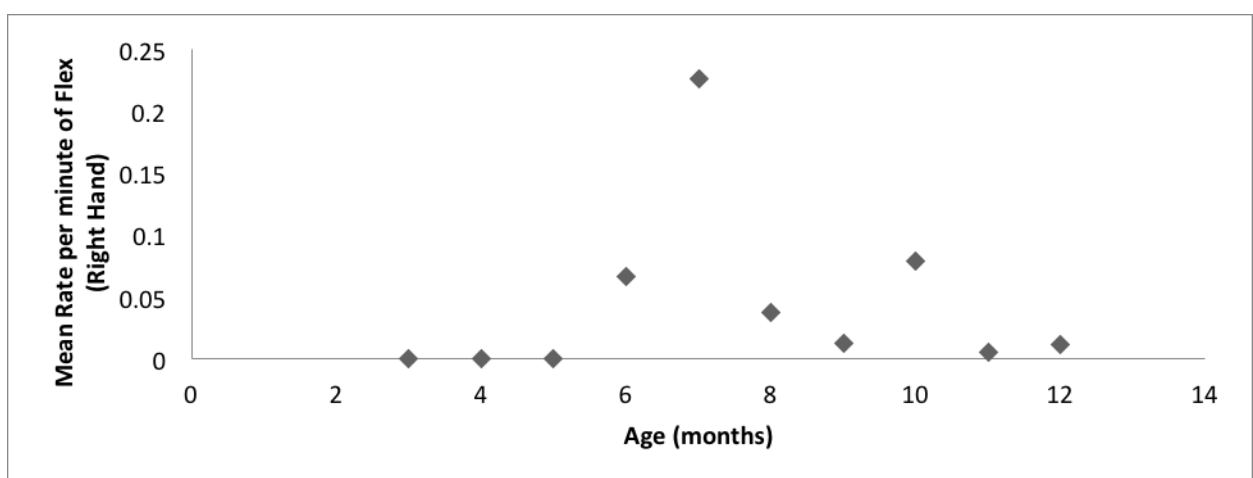


Figure 2(f): Mean rate and growth model for flex (right hand).

From figure 2(f), it is clear that this gesture was seen only from the 6th month and there was an overall decrease in the production as well as variations seen in the occurrence between 6 and 12 months. The highest rate was seen in the 7th month. Correspondingly, the quadratic growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trajectory for 'flex'.

Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was carried out to see if there were significant differences in the rate of occurrences for the rhythmic behaviours produced using the right and left hands. The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the usage of hands for bang in the 9th ($Z=2.201$; $p=0.028$), 10th ($Z=2.023$; $p=0.043$), 11th ($Z=2.240$; $p=0.025$), and 12th ($Z=1.963$; $p=0.050$) months, at 0.05 levels of significance. These differences were also seen for 'shake' gesture in the 7th ($Z=2.201$; $p=0.028$), 9th ($Z=2.201$; $p=0.028$), 10th ($Z=2.023$; $p=0.043$), and 11th ($Z=2.100$; $p=0.036$) months, whereas for 'swing' gesture, these were seen in the 5th ($Z=2.666$; $p=0.008$) and 11th ($Z=2.201$; $p=0.028$) months at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance respectively. The mean rates of occurrences for these behaviours were higher for the right hand for all these months.

Discussion and Conclusions

The present study looked into the emergence of rhythmic hand behaviours in typically developing children from Kannada speaking families, incorporated in a longitudinal design. There were some interesting trends observed for these behaviours in the study. Rhythmic gestures of fingers (cycling) and arms (swing & shake) were seen from the 3rd month, while other gestures of arms (bang) were seen from the age of 5 months and wrist (flex & twist) were seen from the 6th month of age. This goes on to suggest that infants are engaged in

rhythmical activities of the hand throughout the first year, although there were some variations observed in the rates of occurrences of these behaviours.

Infants were observed to produce ‘cycling’ behaviours from the very beginning of the study period, i.e. 3 months of age and were seen throughout the study period. There was a peak in the occurrence of this behaviour produced by the left hand in the 6th and 11th month of age, and in the 8th month for the same behaviour produced using the right hand. However, these trends were not significant to suggest that there was a developmental influence on the occurrence of this behaviour. This finding is similar to that reported by Thelen (1979). In her study it was found that finger movements were produced with equally low frequency throughout the first year of life. In the present study, the growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trend for this behaviour, which provides further evidence to the lack of influence of age on the development of ‘cycling’.

‘Cycling’ was mostly observed when the children were idle, with the arms/hand in resting position or while either looking at object or the mother. Since this behaviour seemed to occur randomly and was not accompanied by purposeful actions, this could have attributed to the variations in the occurrence of these behaviours across the months. Also, it was interesting to note that there was a decline in the rate of occurrence of this behaviour with the emergence of ‘reach’ and ‘grasp’. Previously, Thelen (1981) had also suggested that cycling might precede grasping.

‘Swing’ was behaviour that was observed from the 3rd month of age in these infants. There was a clear trend, which suggested that the rates of occurrence of this behaviour produced by both hands peaked in the 4th month. It was also noted that there was a statistically significant developmental influence on the occurrence of this behaviour. However, this finding is not similar to that by Thelen (1979), where she reported that

rhythmic stereotypies involving hands were seen at significantly higher frequencies at around 6 months of age. This could also point out to possible cultural variations in the development of this behaviour. In the present study, the growth model revealed a polynomial trend for 'swing', which suggests that this behaviour decreases from the 3rd month till the 7th month, after which there is a slight increase in the occurrence.

Infants were noted to produce 'shake' from the 3rd month of age in the study. There was a clear trend which suggested that the rates of occurrence of this behaviour produced by the left peaked in the 6th and 12th month, while that produced by the right hand peaked in the 10th month of age. It was also noted that there was a statistically significant developmental influence on the occurrence of this behaviour. Again, these findings are different from that reported by Thelen (1979). In her study rhythmic stereotypies involving hands were seen at significantly higher frequencies at around 6 months of age. This could also point out to possible cultural variations in the development of this behaviour. In the present study, the growth model revealed an exponential trend for 'shake', which suggested that this behaviour increases till the age of 10 months.

'Bang' was observed to be produced by infants from the age of 5 months in the study. There was a clear trend, which suggested that the rates of occurrence of this behaviour produced by both hands, peaked in the 8th month. It was also noted that there was a statistically significant developmental influence on the occurrence of this behaviour. These findings are different from that reported by Thelen (1979), where she suggests that rhythmic stereotypies involving hands were seen higher frequencies at around 6 months of life. This could also point out to possible cultural variations in the development of this behaviour. In the present study, the growth model revealed a polynomial trend for 'bang', which suggests

this behaviour increases from the 5th month till around the 10th month, after which there is a slight decrease in the occurrence.

Lew and Butterworth (1997) have suggested that, during the early months, the ability of an infant to interact with their environment is limited. This is because infants are often confined to a supine position, even while being held by caregivers due to their poor posture and neuromuscular control. This would explain the early occurrence of behaviours such as ‘swing’, ‘shake’ and ‘bang’ that are easily produced with minimal muscular effort and their subsequent decline over the coming months, when infants are more capable of interacting independently with their surroundings. These may provide the infants with opportunities to explore their surroundings within the constraints of their physical system, and also might serve as trial and error behaviours that pave the way for more stable hand gestures.

It is also possible that the occurrence of these behaviours coincides with a shift in the interaction opportunities due to the maturation of the visual, tactile and neuromuscular systems (von Hofsten, 2007). From the 6th month, almost all the infants were able to sit independently and were able to manipulate and explore their environment effectively. It may be assumed that with age, these skills will get stable, as the child will have better control over these behaviours and will exhibit these movements with purposeful activities based on their internal motives. For example, the children were seen to produce ‘bang’ and ‘shake’ with objects held in their hands.

‘Flex’ and ‘Twist’ were gestures that were produced by infants from age of 6 months. The rates of occurrence of ‘flex’ produced by the left hand peaked in the 7th and 11th months, while that produced by the right hand peaked in the 7th month. However, these trends were not statistically significant to suggest that there was a developmental influence on the

occurrence of this behaviour. The growth model revealed an unpredictable growth trend for 'flex', which provides further evidence to the lack of influence of age on development.

The rates of occurrence of 'twist' produced by both hands peaked in the 10th month, although, these trends were not statistically significant which suggests that there was no influence of development on the occurrence of this behaviour. The growth model for 'twist' produced using the right hand showed a polynomial trend, which suggests that this behaviour increases till the 10th month, after which there is a decrease in the occurrence. However, the same was not seen in the case of 'twist' produced using the left hand. The growth model showed an unpredictable trajectory.

Rhythmic movements of the wrist, namely, flexing and twisting of wrists were seen when the infant was idle and mostly observing their own hands. These were noted to have fewer instances of occurrence throughout the study and were produced only by few infants in the study. A possible explanation for the same could be that, since these were not associated with meaningful actions, the behaviours did not occur at regular intervals; however, their presence might indicate that these are needed for further motor development. Thus, although these behaviours emerged, there was relative instability seen across the months and a subsequent decline in these behaviours towards the end of the first year. This was evidenced in the variations in the rates of occurrences seen across the months.

With regard to handedness, significant differences were only seen for few of these behaviours, namely, 'swing', 'bang' and 'shake', with a notable right hand preference. Previously, Iverson, Hall, Nickel and Wozniak (2007) have reported that there was no shift in the arm preference for rhythmic stereotypes till the age of 9 months. The findings in this study show otherwise, as there were differences seen even in the younger months. However,

one has to keep in mind that there were only few the instances of right hand bias recorded in the study.

Thus, it can be understood that infants were found to engage in rhythmical movements from the first 6 months of their life, although there were slight differences noticed in the ages of emergence of each of these behaviours. However, most of these movements showed a decline in the occurrence towards the end of the first year. Also, all the behaviours that were studied showed non-linear trends in the growth, although the growth trajectories were different for each behaviour. This would then suggest that every behavior in an infant follows a different growth trajectory and therefore, it is important that these are documented and understood especially in the case of atypical infants. Also, this might even suggest that development occurs in stage-like shifts.

Rhythmic stereotypes have been considered as transition or by product behaviours of the normal maturation process (Lourie, 1949; Thelen, 1981). These are assumed to be available to infants when higher-order complex behaviours are not available, although they are simple, repetitive, devoid of goals and are largely not under sensory regulation. This view would therefore propose that all rhythmic gestures are part and parcel of normal maturation and might pave the way for meaningful manual actions. The data from the present study also tends to lean towards this hypothesis. Most behaviours that were studied did have a developmental trend which seemed to vary based on the context and maturation of the neural mechanisms within the infants.

This data also points towards possible variations in the emergence of these behaviours based on culture, especially for movements of ‘swing’, ‘shake’ and ‘bang’. The findings in this study suggest that children from American and Kannada speaking backgrounds may

differ in the ages of acquisition of rhythmic hand movements. However, this could also point out to possible differences in the rearing practices seen in both cultures.

The findings in this study also seem to support the presence of hand preferences for rhythmic arm movements. However, one has to bear in mind that this study included only 9 participants, and therefore, it is suggested that further studies need on a larger population to substantiate these results. But the results of this study sheds light on the need to document the emergence of every skill in an infant which will further advance our knowledge into the understanding of the development of mature communication systems in an infant.

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Appendix 1

Appendix 1: The operational definitions of hand gestures as adopted in the study

<i>Sl No.</i>	<i>Gesture</i>	<i>Operational definition</i>
1	Flex	Bending and extending of wrist
2	Twist	Rotation of wrist back and forth
3	Cycling	Any movement by the fingers; rhythmic tapping, flexing and extending of fingers
4	Swing	Vertical movement of the arm from the shoulder with no object in hand
5	Shake	Vertical movement of the arm from the shoulder with an object in hand
6	Bang	Movement with the hand or object held in hand makes firm contact with a surface

Source: Thelen, 1981

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Development of Vocal and Motor Behaviours in an Infant: Preliminary Findings

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Abstract

Previous work has suggested that oral and manual systems co-emerge in a developing child which leads to the emergence of a more adult-like, precisely-timed coupling of gesture and speech (Iverson & Thelen, 1999). This study aimed to document the frequency of occurrence of vocalic and body movement gestures namely, hand, facial expression, facial movements and eye gaze in infants (using ELAN software) and to understand the emergence of vocal-motor link in a single typically developing child. The child was from a Kannada speaking family and the mother-infant dyad interactions were audio-video recorded once a month, from the 3rd to the 5th month. Results indicated that a typically developing infant is endowed with a repertoire of vocal, facial, and bodily signals and as young as 5 months there is a clear indication of strong vocal-motor linkage in expression.

Keywords

Non-verbal behaviours, vocal behaviour, motor behaviour, speech development, Case study

Introduction

Gestures constitute the nonverbal aspect of communication. Gesture is used by all when they speak, irrespective of the age, culture and social background. Gesture is not only performed with hands, but by other parts of body, such as head, face or arms. Thus, gestures are defined as manual [e.g., waving to say goodbye], facial [e.g., pouting to show displeasure], or other body movements [e.g., miming an object or person], (Capone, 2010).

McNeill (1992) documented four major characteristics of the gestures used by adults along with speech. First, although gesture and speech often convey complementary aspects of an underlying message, they do so simultaneously, temporally linked within the bounds of a single utterance. Second, when adults gesture while speaking, gestures consist primarily of hand, arm, and finger movements (manual). It is relatively uncommon for mature speakers to produce gestures that involve legs, feet or whole body (non-manual). Third, among right-handed speakers (majority of all speakers), coexpressive gestures tend to be unimanual and are produced primarily with the right hand (Kimura, 1973). Fourth, gestures and speech have a constant relationship in time, with the manual movements of gesture either slightly anticipated or occurring in synchrony with co expressive speech.

Connections between the vocal and gestural system has been suggested to be in place early in development in children. Iverson and Thelen (1999) suggested a model of vocal-motor development as an evidence for an integrated view of the origins of gesture-speech timing in infancy. This model suggests that although gesture and speech are produced in order to convey meaning, their co-production requires the ability to produce controlled, voluntary movements in

the two effector systems, namely, the vocal tract and the manual system, and to coordinate these movements in time and space.

Iverson and Thelen (1999) suggested a possible developmental progression characterized by four phases based on the model proposed. The first phase is called *initial linkages*, where hand and mouth activity are loosely coupled from birth. The second phase is *emerging control*, where there is an increase in the adaptive use of hands and mouth marked by rhythmical and sometimes coordinated activities in both manual and vocal modalities. This phase is seen from 6 to 8 months of age. The third phase is *flexible couplings*, which is characterized by the emergence of coupled but not synchronous gesture and speech from 9 to 14 months of age. The last phase called *synchronous coupling*, has adult-like precisely-timed coupling of gesture and speech and is seen from 16 to 18 months of age.

Various researchers have supported the developmental progression as suggested in the model by Iverson & Thelen (1999). Lew and Butterworth (1997) observed that when newborns bring their hands to the facial area to introduce the fingers for sucking, they open the mouth as the hand is moving towards the facial area, in anticipation of its arrival. Trevarthen (1977), followed 5 children from 2 to 6 months of age, and observed that as early as 8 to 12 weeks, hand and finger movements were synchronized with prespeech facial movements such as tongue protrusion and lip contraction. The facial movements, which were usually produced without concurrent vocalization, were accompanied by hand, foot or trunk movements. Among these, hand and arm movements, especially hand waving, finger pointing, and fingertip clasping, were found to be finely synchronized with pre speech movements.

A study on a larger scale conducted with 28 children in the age range, 9 to 15 weeks, reported that manual actions such as index finger extensions, which resemble 'pointing' co-occurred with vocalization or mouthing movements even in this young group of infants. Hand action was found to be systematically organized into sequences with other infant actions (Fogel & Hannan, 1985). They also suggested that manual actions of infants as young as 9 weeks of age may occur in relation to their facial expressions, gaze directions and vocalizations. In a similar study, among older Japanese infants studied between 5 to 9 months, increased production of rhythmical upper limb movements were reported to be related to the age of onset of reduplicated babbling (Ejiri, 1998).

Iverson and Fagan (2004) also reported an age-related increase in frequency of vocal-gestural coordination, with greater coordination in arm (specifically right arm) than leg or torso movements, and a temporal pattern similar to that of adult gesture-speech co-productions, in 6- to 9-month old infants. They also documented that rhythmic vocalizations occurred more with rhythmic manual than non-manual activity in babblers.

Need for the Study

Few studies (Trevarthen, 1977; Fogel & Hannan, 1985; Iverson & Fagan, 2004) thus, have suggested that the vocal-motor system may be linked together, either tightly or loosely, during development in infants. In the Indian context, a previous study by Veena (2010) has addressed the development and communicative functions of gestures in Kannada speaking children from the age of 8 to 18 months. This study focused on hand gestures and found that there were no differences in the age of acquisition of communicative gestures in these children when compared to those reported in other cultures. However, the pre-linguistic development of

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vocal and motor behaviours has not been given considerable focus in India and it is in this context that this study has been undertaken.

Aim of the Study

This study aimed to document the frequency of occurrence of vocalic and body gestures namely, hand, facial expression, facial movements and eye gaze and also to understand the emergence of the vocal-motor link in a typically developing infant.

Method

Participant

One typically developing female infant was included in the study. She was recorded once every month, with the first recording beginning at 3 months of age and continuing till she turned 5 months. The participant was a full term baby, had no major birth complications, and passed a hearing, visual and language screening at 3 months of age. She was from a Kannada speaking family with the mother as the primary caregiver.

Procedure

The infant and the mother were videotaped at their home, using a Sony HDR video and audio recorder. Each recording was done once a month for the duration of 1 hour, when the child was most playful and alert. The recordings were not continuous, since there were breaks when the child was fussy/ uncomfortable. The mother was instructed to talk to/ stimulate/ play with the infant as she normally would, either when the infant was lying on the floor or when placed on the lap of the mother. The videos were later edited and only those parts of the data that could be

used for the analysis was retained. The average duration of the data used for the analysis was 10 - 15 minutes for every month of recording.

Coding

All behaviours of the infant were coded using ELAN software (Lausberg & Sloetjes, 2009). The frame for the analysis was set for every second for the entire data per instance of recording. A key for coding the vocal and motor behaviours was made by the principle investigator (Appendix 1) and the same was compiled based on the review of literature (Fogel & Hannan, 1985; Oller, 1981).

Each item in the key thus developed was provided with an operational definition, in order to facilitate uniformity in the coding across coders. The coding of the samples was done by two independent coders (speech language pathologists), who were trained in the use of the coding system and the keys on a video sample of the infant who was not included in the study. The first coder (principal investigator) identified and labelled the vocal and motor behaviours exhibited by the infant in every second of the frame. The interjudge reliability check for coding was done on the sample of the 4th month. The second coder went through the annotated sample and indicated whether there was an agreement or disagreement with the annotations of the principal investigator. Later, the percentage of agreement between the coders was calculated and it was found to be 86 (N= 377) for the 4th month.

Analysis

The motor behaviours of the infant were categorized as movements of face, facial expressions, gaze, and hand movements. The vocal behaviours were categorized as vocalic,

syllabic, vegetative and periods of silence. The frequencies of occurrence of both these behaviours were calculated. The frequencies of co-occurrence of oral and gestural behaviours were also calculated by noting the different body gestures that occurred during the production of vocal behaviours as well as during those periods when the infant was silent.

Results

The results of this study are presented with regard to the two aims of the study. The first aim of the study was to document the frequency of occurrence of motor and vocal behaviours in the infant for the observation period. The percentage frequencies of occurrence for these behaviours are as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Percentage frequencies of body gestures and vocal behaviours.

MOTOR BEHAVIOURS	MON 3	MON 4	MON 5	MOTOR BEHAVIOURS	MON 3	MON 4	MON 5
Left Hand				Right Hand			
Curl	32	30	4	Curl	31	17	3
Grasp	16	10	17	Grasp	19	20	24
Reach	1	0	20	Reach	5	1	10
Spread	12	42	37	Spread	15	34	46
Hand in Mouth	5	3	3	Hand in Mouth	0	7	10
Swing	2	4	0	Swing	2	4	0
Bang	0	0	13	Bang	0	2	2
Shake	0	0	1	Shake	0	5	0
Index finger extension	14	8	4	Index finger extension	9	8	3
Clasp	17	4	1	Clasp	19	3	1
Gaze				Facial Movement			
Gaze at person	47	31	21	Lip/Tongue Play	33	3	7
Gaze at action	23	1	0	Mouth	24	60	57
Gaze away	11	32	26	Pout	2	1	0
Gaze at object	17	33	50	Tongue Protrusion	33	36	36

Gaze track	2	3	3	Puckered Lips	8	0	0
Facial Expression				VOCAL BEHAVIOURS			
Concentration	4	11	27	Vocalic	40	47	45
Smile	8	63	55	Syllabic	11	18	16
Distress	25	0	0	Vegetative	13	11	13
Interest	63	17	18	Silence	37	24	26
Startle	0	0	0				
Frown	0	9	0				

Note: MON= month

a) Frequency of occurrence of gaze behaviours

Across the three months, there were differences seen in the occurrence of gaze behaviours between the third and the fifth month. Gaze directed towards mother (46%) was found to be more in the third month, while gaze directed towards objects (50%) was found to be frequent in the fifth month. Gaze directed towards an action (23%) was only seen in the third month and gaze directed away (30%) was seen frequently in the fourth month, while gaze track was less frequently seen across all the months.

b) Frequency of occurrence of facial movements

During the third month random lip and tongue movements (33%) at play were observed, and these were not seen in the other months. Mouthing behaviour was found to vary across the months; 24% in the third month, 60% in the fourth month and 57% in the fifth month. Pouting (2%) and puckering of lips (8%) were mostly seen in the third month. Tongue protrusions were noted throughout the months and there were minimal differences seen in the percentage of occurrence (33% in the third and 36% in the fourth and fifth months).

c) Frequency of occurrence of facial expressions

Among the facial expressions, distress (25%) was seen only in the third month, while frown (25%) was seen only in the fourth month. Interest (63%) was observed frequently in the third month. Frequency of occurrence of smile (63%) was noted to be higher in the fourth month while the occurrence of concentration (27%) was high in the fifth month.

d) Frequency of occurrence of hand movements

During the third month, curling of fingers (32%), both in right and left arms, was observed to be more frequent than the other movements. Grasp was found to be more associated with the right arm, and there was an increase in the behaviour with an increase in age (24% in fifth month). Reaching behaviour was seen more in the fifth month (20% for left and 11% for right arms respectively). Spread was also found to increase in the fourth (42% for left, and 34% for right arms respectively) and fifth (37% for left, and 50% for right arms respectively) months,

Swinging of arms was found to be high in the fourth month (4% for both right and left arms), along with hand shaking (5% for right arm). Banging was not observed in the third and fourth months, but in the fifth month it was frequently seen for the left arm (13%). Claspings of hands was seen mostly in the third month (17%) and index finger extensions (14% for left and 9% for right arms respectively) were also frequently observed in the same month. Placing the right hand in mouth was seen in the fourth (7%) and fifth (11%) months.

d) Frequency of occurrence of vocal behaviours

Across all the three months, the frequency of occurrence of vocalic utterances (48%) and vegetative sounds (12%) remained steady. It was observed that there was a slight increase in the

production of syllabic utterances with an increase in age (10% in the third month, 18% in the fourth month and 16% in the fifth month). Also, with an increase in age, it was seen that the periods wherein the infant remained silent decreased considerably from 37% in the third month to 18% in the fifth month.

The second aim of the study was to understand if there was evidence of the proposed vocal-motor synchrony in the behaviour of infant for the observation period. For the purpose of providing a comprehensive picture, the instances of the different types of behaviours were collectively considered under each of the body gestures, namely, hand, face and gaze. Thus, the percentage frequencies of the types of body gestures that co-occurred with the various vocal behaviours and during periods of silence are as shown in Figure 1.

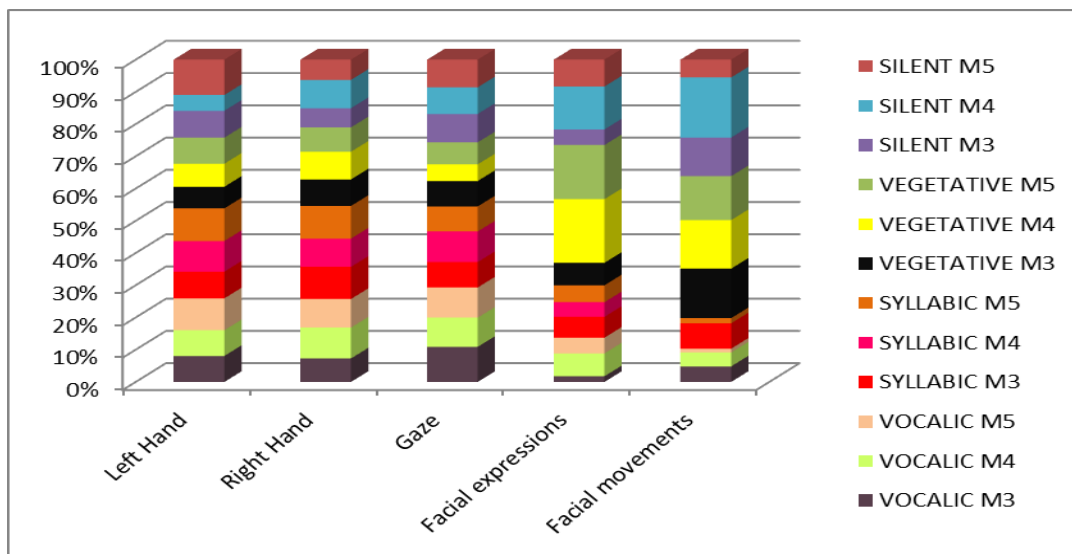


Figure 1: Percentage frequencies of co-occurrence of vocal-motor behaviours

It can be understood from figure 1 that, gestures occurred when the child was exhibiting a vocal behavior as well as when the child was silent across all the three months, although there

were some variations in the patterns seen. On comparison between left and right hand gestures, there were not many differences seen in the instances of co-occurrence. In the fifth month, left hand movements (41%) were seen frequently when the child remained silent, while the right hand movements were seen more during periods of silence in the fourth month (27%) and during syllabic utterances (31%). Facial movements occurred more when the child was silent in the fourth month (18%) as well as during vegetative productions across all months (average 15%). Facial expressions co-occurred with vegetative productions during the fourth (12%) and fifth (10%) months. Gaze behaviours seemed to occur at similar frequencies, both during vocal productions and periods of silence for all the three months (average 27%).

Discussion

The findings of this study points out that an infant as young as 3 months old demonstrates a plethora of motor and vocal behaviours. This is similar to that reported in other studies on infants from different cultural backgrounds (Trevarthen, 1977; Fogel & Hannan, 1985). The results indicate that both motor and vocal behaviours of the infant showed different patterns of occurrence across the ages which were under study. Some behaviours were only seen during certain months while some others were seen across all the months, though with varied frequencies. It was also observed that the occurrences of some behaviours reduced as the age of the child increased.

During the third month, the infant was found to engage more with the caregiver, which is evidenced in the frequent gaze directed at the caregiver as well as towards observations of the caregivers' actions. Moreover by the fifth month, gaze was directed more towards objects, which indicates that as the infant grows there is the tendency to explore and observe objects around

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his/her environment. The infant was also found to track the path of objects to which she was exposed across the three months, though it was not a very frequent behaviour, possibly due to poor neuromuscular control. It was also observed that the instances of the infant looking away from object or person were found to be less in the third month and the fifth months. But, this behaviour was found to be more in the fourth month, where there is a corresponding decrease in gaze directed at caregiver and at any object.

Hand movements were among the most frequent behaviours observed in the infant, when compared to the other motor as well as vocalic behaviours. During the third month, curling and clasping of fingers were frequently observed, and these may correspond to the quiet physiological state of very young infant, where they remain idle for longer periods of time. Index finger extensions were also seen frequently in the same month, and there was a decrease seen in this behaviour for the other months. These were observed as random movements, with neither a stimulus to trigger the act nor a specified target for the behaviour to be purposeful. Thus, these did not resemble the mature 'points' as reported in the other studies on young infants (Fogel & Hannan, 1985).

As mentioned earlier, the child showed interest in the manipulation of toys during the later months, especially in the fifth month. This was also reflected in the increased occurrence of reaching for objects, grasping objects, and spreading of fingers etc. Rhythmic behaviours such as that of banging the object on a surface of contact, swinging of arms and shaking of toys held in hand were seen more during the fourth month, but these were not as frequent as the other hand behaviours.

With regard to facial movements, in the third month random lip and tongue movements were observed and these were not seen in the other months. Similar patterns were also seen for lip pouting and lip puckering. Tongue protrusions were seen across all the months with almost similar frequencies of occurrences. These might suggest that these are very early behaviours seen in an infant, and these may pave the way for mature speech-like movements as the child develops. Mouthing behaviours, which are considered as movements that resemble speech without accompanying vocalizations, were more frequent in the fourth and fifth months.

When compared to other body gestures, namely, gaze, hand and facial movements, the instance of occurrence of facial expressions were comparatively less. Distress was most frequently seen in the third month but it did not occur in the other months. The same pattern was observed for frown, which was again only seen in the fourth month. A reason for these behaviours to occur in the younger months could be the physiological state of the infant; she was found to be very fussy. Smile was seen when the infant was paying attention to the caregiver's actions or smile, and there was an increase in the occurrence of this behaviour with age. Concentration was seen frequently in the fifth month and this was noted while the child was observing an action or while looking at an object or caregiver.

Across all the three months, vocalic utterances and vegetative sounds were produced with similar frequency. It was observed that there was a slight increase in the production of syllabic utterances with increase in age, which again coincides with a similar pattern of increase in rhythmical hand gestures. As age increased, it was seen that the periods wherein the infant remained silent decreased considerably from the third month to the fifth month. Thus, as the infant developed, there seemed to be an increase in the occurrence of mature oral productions,

namely, vocalic and syllabic utterances, and a reduction in reflexive utterances and periods of silence.

With regards to co-occurrence, both vocal and gestural movements co-occurred as early as the third month in the infant, however there were variations in the instances of co-occurrence across the months. During the third month it was observed that hand gestures (both left and right arms), gaze patterns, facial expressions and facial movements were seen during periods of silence and during vegetative productions. Even in the fourth month the same trend was noted. But during the fifth month, these body movements were seen to occur more during vocalic productions as well as periods of silence.

From the data, it was also understood that there were increased occurrences of synchronous vocal-motor behaviours, which could possibly reflect the maturity of both these systems. Motor movements such as hand gestures and gaze were seen to occur during syllabic and vocalic productions. This finding could provide evidence to an age-related increase in frequency of vocal-motor coordination as reported by Iverson and Fagan (2004). Also, the infant seemed to be in the first phase of ‘initial linkages’ from the third month of age. But, this finding has to be considered with some caution since a good percentage of motor behaviours also co-occurred during periods of silence.

There was also little evidence to support the progression to the next phase of ‘emerging control’ in the fifth month. This could be because the infant was found to exhibit fewer instances of rhythmical motor and vocal behaviours in the 5 months. Thus, the data of this study does suggest the presence of a coupled vocal-motor system, but it is not sufficient to understand the exact nature of entrainment in this coupled system.

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Conclusion

From this study it can be observed that both whole body gestures and vocalic behaviours occurred frequently in an infant as young as three months of age. It can also be understood that across the three months there are variations in the behaviours exhibited by the infant, in that, some gestures like random lip and tongue movements, are seen more at a younger age, few others, like gaze track are seen during all the three months and some behaviours, like arm banging, were more frequent when the infant was five months old. This same trend was seen even for vocal productions. Since the data in this study is limited, one cannot draw conclusions regarding the growth trends for both these motor and vocal behaviours.

Co-productions of motor and vocal behaviours were also seen from the third month of age. There were instances of facial, hand and gaze gestures co-occurring with all types of vocal productions, namely, syllabic, vocalic and vegetative productions. However, there were variations seen between the third and the fifth months. With an increase in age, there was near-synchronous occurrence of body gestures with mature oral productions (syllabic and vocalic). But again, this conclusion is guarded since these behaviours were also frequently seen during periods of silence.

Thus, it can be reasoned that a typically developing infant is endowed with a repertoire of vocal, facial, and other bodily behaviours from a very young age and one can observe evidences of a strong link between vocal and motor behaviours as they co-emerge from the third month of life.

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Appendix 1

Appendix 1: Operational description of vocal and motor behaviours that were studied.

Motor behaviours		
Hand movements	Curled	Fingers flexed either loosely, or in a fist
	Index finger extension	Any clear sustained extension of the index finger
	Grasp	The hands / fingers are wrapped around something other than own hands
	Clasp	Any mutual contact of hands or fingers
	Spread	All fingers fully extended or spread apart
	Swing	Vertical movement of the arm from the shoulder with no object in hand
	Shake	Vertical movement of the arm from the shoulder with an object in hand
	Bang	Movement with the hand or object held in hand makes firm contact with a surface
	Hand in mouth	All fingers or any part of hand placed in the mouth

	Toy in mouth	Child places toy held in hand in the mouth
Facial movements	Pout	Puckered
	Puckered lips	'kiss-like' mouth formation
	Mouthing	Lip, mouth or tongue movements similar to when one speaks without phonation
	Tongue protrusion	Tongue extended and placed between lips
	Lip play	Rapid and repetitive movements of lips when at play
	Tongue play	Rapid and repetitive movements of tongue when at play
Facial expression	Smile	Edges of mouth curved upwards
	Distress	Furrowed brows towards eyes and pinched face
	Frown	Mouth slightly open with edges of mouth curved downwards
	Interest	Brows slightly raised
	Concentration	Brows raised at centre of face and lowered at outer edges of face
	Startle	Rapid and sudden blinking of eyelids
Gaze	Gaze at person	Looks at mothers/caregivers/speakers face
	Gaze at object	Looks at toy or any object
	Gaze at action	Looks at the behaviour of mother/object
	Gaze away	Looks at anything other than 'person' or 'object'
	Gaze track	Visual tracking of objects
Vocal behaviours		
	Silence	Periods where the child was not vocalizing
	Vegetative productions	Includes all reflexive productions such as cry, grunt, vocal play etc.
	Vocalic productions	All vowel productions
	Syllabic productions	All combinations of vowels and consonants

Source: Fogel & Hannan, 1985; Oller, 1981

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Development of Vocal and Motor Behaviours in an Infant: Preliminary Findings

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Development of Vocal and Motor Behaviours in an Infant: Preliminary Findings

Concepts of *Difference* and *Differance* A Comparative Study of Saussure and Derrida

Neha Garg
Shivek Kumar
Vaibhav Sharma

Abstract

This paper discusses the implications of *difference* and *differance* in relation to views of de Saussure and Jacques Derrida. While emphasizing on the study of meanings in languages Saussure said that meaning arises only because of the differences between the signifiers which are of two kinds, namely, syntagmatic and paradigmatic. According to Derrida, languages are made up of units that don't contain inherent meaning. Meaning in 'deconstruction' is therefore constantly deferred, which can never be in place, or in other words, be stable.

Key words: *Difference*, *Differance*, de Saussure, Derrida, deconstruction

Introduction

Difference and *differance* are the two important key terms of the post structuralism given by the two prominent philosophers, namely, Ferdinand de Saussure and Jacques Derrida. In order to explain these two terms in a broader way we will try to establish the relations between these two in this paper and will also try to show some differences between them.

In the very first part of this paper we will first explain the two prominent movements, namely, structuralism and post-structuralism which will shape the background of this paper and will also help all of us to understand issues on hand. These two were two different linguistic-philosophic movements started with the prime concern of understanding languages on their own accord.

Structuralism

It was a literary movement primarily concerned with the understanding of how language works as a system of meaning production. In order to answer this question, structuralism turned its attention to form. Focusing on the form or structure of literary work and the particular use of language in the work would allow structuralists to think of language as body of signs.

The primary theorist of this movement was Ferdinand de Saussure, who developed the idea that languages are composed of arbitrary units that were void of concept or meaning until they acquired meaning through a language system that relied on differences between terms within their larger linguistics and social contexts.

Post-structuralism

This is less singularly defined as a movement than that of structuralism. A number of literary theories fall under this movement, of which ‘gender theory and reader response theory’ were more popular. These theories recognized the overarching notion that meaning doesn’t exist outside of the text and that meaning is not fixed but rather contingent and unstable.

This movement evolved alongside Jacques Derrida’s theory of ‘deconstruction’ which emphasized meaning as it functioned in language.

According to Derrida, languages are made up of units that don’t contain inherent meaning.

According to him, meaning in ‘deconstruction’ is therefore constantly deferred, which can never be in place, or in other words, be stable. Post-structuralists recognized the lack of fixed or inherent meaning and have also acknowledged the need of language in order to acquire meaning.

Saussure’s Structuralism and the Concept of ‘Difference’

Saussure was a structuralist. In his book *A Course in General linguistics* which was published in 1916, he emphasised the importance of looking into languages as a living

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phenomenon as against the historical view of studying speech. He also analysed the underlying system of language in order to demonstrate an integral structure and has placed language firmly in the social milieu.

According to Saussure, languages are said to have composed of two important aspects where in the first place languages are studied as a system and in the second one it is the act of speaking. He wanted to move away from the empirical prospects of language. Therefore, defining languages as a system he termed languages as one's opinion.

In order to study language as a structure, he gave three prominent terms and they were "langue", "langage", and "parole" where langue means language which encompasses the abstract and the systematic rules and conventions of a signifying system. According to him, langue is independent and it pre-exists individual users. He said it is a series of speech acts, made by a linguistic subject.

On the other hand, langage is a universal system which has an underlying, fundamental structure so that linguistic communication can work. Parole is the individual speech act.

According to him langue is the rule of playing chess and parole is the individual preference of playing the game. In his later works he also proposed the notions of 'Syntagm' and 'Paradigm' to study of languages as he was primarily concerned with the three important systematic relationships, namely, Sign, Signifier and Signified in languages.

While emphasizing on the study of meanings in languages he said that meaning arises only because of the differences between the signifiers which are of two kinds, namely, syntagmatic and paradigmatic, where syntagmatic relationship refers to the possibilities of combinations and paradigmatic is the functional contrasts which involve differentiations. These provide a structural contexts to a language within which 'Signs' make sense. He said that languages are the structural forms where the 'Signs' are being organised.

The most popular theory in this regard which he proposed was the 'Difference' theory which is also the prime concern of this paper. He says that the difference between things is what makes people understand as to what is said and depicted, and therefore deals with the fact as to how we communicate. Thus, his 'Difference' theory is related to something that creates meaning.

In order to explain this theory in detail he aligned the 'Signifier', i.e., the shape of a word or its phonic component with the chosen 'Signified' which is the ideational component or concept that appears in one's mind after hearing or reading the signifier in order to create the sign.

In his theory of 'Difference' he proposed that the languages are the systems where one thing is defined simply as being different from another. He said that 'Signifiers and Signified' are always different from each other as for example, the word 'ink' itself and its physical image are quite different.

According to him languages are the system of difference where the linguistic identities and its values are purely relational as a result of what the totality of language is involved in each single act of signification.

So, this deduces the fact that, for languages, a sense of totality is required in order to understand them which is only possible through differences. If this feature is not there, then the languages will not constitute as a system and hence no signification would be possible at all. According to him, languages keep incorporating differences from every other 'Sign'. For instance, the word 'Pear' has no meaning in itself or in the intention of the speaker but only due to the fact that it differs from other possible graphic images such as 'fear, Bear,' etc. So, for the structuralists like Saussure, meaning arises from the functional differences between the elements called 'Signs' which are within the system called 'language'.

Saussure as a structuralist has made the way out for the other linguists to study language as a system which is well structured and where the meaning could only be derived from the concept of 'difference'.

For the structuralists like Saussure, 'Signs' are the primary concepts in order to study languages better. A word gets its meaning only in relation to or in contrast with the other signs remaining in the system of signs.

Derrida's Concept of 'Differance'

On the contrary, Jacques Derrida's theory of 'Signs' fits into the poststructuralist movement which was just opposite to that of Saussurean structuralism. Derrida has elaborated a theory of "Deconstruction" that challenged the idea of structure and has put forward the notion that there is nothing called structure or centre, or univocal meaning.

Under this theory he explained that there is no direct relationship between 'Signifier & Signified' as we have infinite shifts in meaning relayed from one signified to another.

Derrida after proposing his theory has rejected structuralism and as a result the Saussurean schema has been rethought. Derrida disputes the idea that a text or a communication has an undergoing, unified meaning. While proposing his theory of '*Diffarence*' he has also challenged the author's intentions and shows that there may be numerous legitimate interpretations of a text produced by an author.

Derrida after proposing this theory has also given the idea of 'deconstruction' where he considered the author as dead or irrelevant once he has completed his written the text as the text has to be analysed and understood through the reader's perspective. So, he means to say that once the text is written the author's input is finished. Under his theory of deconstruction, he claimed that because of the different moods of the person, their backgrounds and their different ways of experiencing things, a word or its meaning will not conjure the same idea to every person.

So, on the basis of this theory he refuted the structuralist theory of constructing and understanding meaning.

With the concept of 'differance' Derrida was mainly concerned dealing with the fact that the opposites interact and meaning becomes unstable.

In order to explain his theory in a better way he has also referred to the concept of 'deconstruction' of binary oppositions under which he proposed that every single term is privileged over the secondary term and this privilege often has to deal with the presence of the first. For instance, in order to explain the concept of speech and writing speech has historically been considered more present, and writing is nothing but a supplement to speech.

Derrida studied 'differance' not as a concept but as a possibility of conceptuality of a conceptual process and its system in general.

Thus, with this theory he tends to describe the situations or conditions under which all identities and meanings can occur so that it can be repeated in an infinite number of potential but undetermined addresses.

Through this theory Derrida wanted to convey the divided nature of signs and also to explain how meaning was both a matter of difference and deferring.

Derrida concludes that meaning is the result of difference between sign & signifier which can also be deferred easily. So, perfect meaning is impossible according to his theory as there is always an element of undecidability in the unstable sign.

So, for the post-structuralists like Derrida meaning can't be understood until and unless deconstruction is done and this deconstruction is applied to the text with the force of 'differance' which is the part of the system of thoughts that gives a meaningful production and correct signification.

Conclusions

Post-structuralists rejected the very notion of the existence of the signs. They talk of meaning in terms of their multiplicity, differance, infiniteness, and deconstruction. All these are

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quite antithetical to the structuralists' position. To indicate the paradigm shift in theory from structuralism to post-structuralism, the French philosopher Derrida introduced the word 'différance' in order to indicate the relation between signifiers as one of both difference and deferral. If a word's meaning is solely the result of its difference from other words, then the meaning is not an additional thing 'present' in the sign itself. On the contrary, 'meaning' is the perennial play of difference between signifier and signifier, a 'slipping from word-to-word' in which each word retains relations to the words that differ from it. Later, language is studied in terms of discourses to get an overall and multi-dimensional aspect of meaning.

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Concepts of *Difference* and *Différance* - A Comparative Study of Saussure and Derrida

A Contrastive Study of English and Manipuri Consonant Clusters

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Abstract

Every language has its own phonotactic constraints. Phonotactics comes from the ancient Greek *phone* which means voice, sound and *taktikos* means having to do with arranging. Phonotactics is a branch of phonology that deals with restrictions in a language on the permissible combinations of phonemes. Phonotactics defines permissible syllable structure, consonants clusters and vowel sequences by means of phonotactical constraints. Phonotactic constraints are language specific. For example, in Japanese, consonant clusters like /st/ do not occur. Likewise, the sounds /kn/ and /gn/ are not permitted at the beginning of a word in Modern English but are in German and Dutch, and were permitted in Old Middle English.

English and Manipuri too have their own phonotactic constraints. The difference in them will create a problem in learning the language vice-versa. The difference will hinder the desired level of pronunciation. Therefore it is a must to study the area of differences and thus identifying the difficulties and hence trying to find out the possible remedies. In this paper, a contrastive study of the consonant clusters in English and Manipuri is done.

The paper is divided into three sections. The first section deals with introduction and the detailed study of English consonant clusters. The second section deals with the Manipuri consonant clusters. The third chapter is the conclusion in which the contrastive study of the consonant clusters of the English and Manipuri are done. In this section the main finds are laid down.

Key words: phonotactics constraints, consonant cluster, initial consonant cluster, final consonant cluster.

Introduction

Consonant clusters are the combination of two consonants within a syllable (intrasyllabic) or in other word it is understood as the utterance of two consonant sounds at a time, for example .pr. in the word pride. Consonant clusters are different from the consonant sequence. Consonant sequence is the combination of two consonant sounds which happened beyond the syllable (intersyllabic), for example ‘p+p’ in the Manipuri word ‘təp.pə’ meaning ‘slow’.

1.1. Consonant Clusters Found in English

The phonotactics possibilities of English consonants in various position of a word are shown below:

Initial	Medial	Final
CC	CC	CC
CCC	CCC	CCC
	CCCC	CCCC

Table 1. English Consonant Clusters.

1.1.1. Initial Clusters

Two member Clusters: English phonotactics permits fifty initial two member clusters in word positions. They are:

p	+	l	r	j								
t	+		r	j	w							
k	+	l	r	j	w							
b	+	l	r	j								
d	+		r	j	w							
g	+	l	r	j	w							
m	+			j	w							
n	+			j								
l	+			j								
f	+	l	r	j								
v	+	l	r	j								

θ	+		r	j	w							
s	+	l	r	j	w	p	t	k	m	n	f	v
ʃ	+	l	r		w				m	n		
h	+			j								

Clusters	Words	clusters	words	clusters	words
Pl	Play	gr	grow	sr	Sri-lanka
Pr	Pray	gj	gules	sj	suit
Pj	Pure	gw	gwen	sw	sweep
Tr	Try	mj	mule	sp	spoon
Tj	Tune	mw	muesh	st	sty
Tw	Twice	nj	new	sk	sky
Kl	Clean	lj	lure	sm	small
Kr	Cry	fl	float	sn	snail
Kj	Cure	fr	free	sf	sphinx
Kw	Quick	fj	few	sv	svelte
Bl	Black	vl	vladimir	ʃl	schlesinger
Br	Brown	vr	vroom	ʃr	shrimp
Bj	Beauty	vj	view	ʃw	schweppes
Dr	Dry	θr	through	ʃn	schnapps
Dj	Dual	θj	thew	ʃm	schmaltz
Dw	Dwarf	θw	thwack	hj	huge
gl	Glade	sl	slow		

1.1.2. Three-Member Clusters

English permits ten three consonant clusters in the initial position of a word. They are shown in the following tables:

S	+	P	+		l	r	j	
S	+	T	+			r	j	
S	+	K	+		l	r	j	w

S			+	m			j	
---	--	--	---	---	--	--	---	--

Clusters	words	clusters	Words
Spl	split	skl	sclerosis
Spr	spring	skr	scream
Spj	spurious	skj	skew
Str	strike	skw	squire
Stj	steward	smj	smew

1.2. Final Clusters

1.2.1. Two-member Clusters

English permits fifty nine consonant clusters in the final position of a word. They are shown in the following tables:

p			t										θ	s	
t													θ	s	
k			t											s	
b						d									z
d															z
g						d									z
tʃ															
dʒ						d									
m		p				d					f		θ		z
n			t			d	tʃ	dʒ					θ	s	z
ŋ				k		d									z
l		p	t	k	b	d	tʃ	dʒ	m	n	f	v	θ	s	z
f			t										θ	s	
v						d								s	z
θ														s	
ð						d									z

s		p	t	k											
z						d									
ʃ			t												
ʒ						d									

clusters	Words	clusters	words	clusters	Words
Pt	apt	md	harmed	lp	Gulp
Pθ	depth	mf	triumph	lt	Melt
Ps	lapse	mθ	warmth	lk	Bulk
Tθ	eighth	mz	comes	lb	Alb
Ts	prints	nt	grant	ld	Old
Kt	Tract	nd	hand	ltʃ	Mulch
Ks	Tax	ntʃ	bench	ldʒ	Bulge
Bd	Robbed	ndʒ	range	lm	Realm
Bz	Cubs	nθ	tenth	ln	Kiln
Dz	Adds	ns	tense	lf	Golf
Gd	Bagged	nz	bronze	lv	Salve
Gz	Rags	ŋk	sink	lθ	Wealth
tʃt	Matched	ŋd	banged	ls	False
dʒd	Judged	ŋz	sings	lz	Calls
Mp	Tramp	θt	worthed	ʃl	Welsh
Ft	Laughed	θs	wealths	st	Test
Fθ	Fifth	ðd	bathed	sk	Risk
Fs	Coughs	ðz	bathes	zd	Raised
Vd	Lived	sp	clasp	ʃt	Wished
Vz	Loves	ʒd	camouflaged		

1.2.2. Three-member Clusters

English permits forty nine three member clusters in the word final position. They are shown in the following tables:

P														s			t
---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---	--	--	---

T															s			
K															s			t
D															s			t
M		p																t
N							tʃ								s			t
ɪ				k											s			t
L		p		k			tʃ								s			t
S		p		k														t
N								dʒ									z	
L								dʒ	m				v					d
P			t											θ				s
T														θ				s
K			t															
M		p										f						s
N			t											θ				s
ɪ				k														s
L				k								f		θ				s
F														θ				s
S				k														s
N						d												z
L					b	d			m	n			v					z
K															s			θ
N																		θ
ɪ				k														θ
L											f							θ

Clusters	Words	clusters	words	clusters	Words
pst	Lapsed	lɪdʒ	bulged	fts	Lifts
tst	Keatsed	lɪm	overwhelmed	fθs	Fifths
kst	Pretext	lɪv	shelved	sps	Wasps
dst	Midst	pts	interrupts	sts	Lists
mpt	Tempt	pθs	depths	sks	Asks
nst	Against	tθs	eights	ndz	Winds
ntʃt	Wrenched	kts	protects	lbz	Bulbs
ŋst	Angst	mps	jumps	ldz	Holds
ŋkt	Instinct	mfs	triumphs	lmz	Helms
lst	Whilst	nts	prints	lnz	Kilns
lpt	Gulped	nθs	ninths	lvz	Shelves
lkt	Mulct	ŋks	sinks	ksθ	Sixth
ltʃt	Filched	lps	gulps	ntθ	Ninth
spt	Clasped	lts	cults	ŋkθ	Length
skt	Risked	lks	sulks	lfθ	Twelfth
ndʒd	Arranged	lfs	gulfs		
nzd	Bronzed	lθs	filths		

1.2.3. Four-member clusters: English permits eight four member consonant clusters in the word final position.

K				s	t		s
K				s		θ	s
M	p				t		s
N					t	θ	s
L			k		t		s
L	p				t		s
L		f				θ	s
M	p			s			s

Clusters	words	clusters	Words
mpts	prompts	lfθs	Twelfths
mpst	glimpsed	ksts	texts
lkts	mulets	ksθs	sixths
lpts	sculpts	ntθs	thousandths

From the above tables, we came to know that final CCCC clusters occurs only as a result of the suffixation to the CCC final stems of a past tense morpheme (: {t}) or a plural 3rd person singular morpheme (: {s}). The analysis of the table came to the following results:

- i. /ŋ/ does not occur at the initial position
- ii. The remaining 22 consonants occur before all vowels.
- iii. /h, r, j, w/ does not occur at final position
- iv. Only /l/ can occur before non-syllabic phonemes /m, n/

2. Manipuri Consonant Clusters

The consonant clusters found in Manipuri in the various word positions are shown in the following table:

Initial	Medial	Final
CC	CC	CC (loan words only)

2.1. Initial Two-member Clusters

Manipuri permits sixteen two member consonant clusters in word initial position.

P	L	r		
T		r		
K	l		w	j
k ^h			w	

p ^h	l	r		
D		r		
G	l		w	
S		r	w	
B	l	r		

Clusters	Words	clusters	Words
Pl	plet 'plate'	gl	glas 'glass'
Pr	pran 'soul'	gw	gway 'name of a river'
Kl	klas 'class'	sr	sro-sro 'noises'
Kw	kwak 'crow'	sw	swayda 'here'
Kj	kyamgei 'name of a place'	bl	blu 'blue'
p ^h l	p ^h lek 'flag'	br	Britis 'british'
p ^h r	P ^h ri 'free'	kh	khwang 'waist'
Dr	drəm 'drum'	tr	tren 'train'

2.2. Final Clusters

Manipuri permits four final two member clusters only in loan words.

k		s
n		s
ŋ	k	
l	k	

ks	politiks 'politics'
ns	brans 'branch'
ŋk	beŋk 'bank'
lk	silk 'silk'

From the above tables the following observations can be made:

- i. The first member of the two member cluster in the word initial position is one of the eight phonemes/p, t, k, k^h, b, d, g, s/
- ii. The second member of the two member clusters in the word initial position is one of the three phonemes /l, r, w/
- iii. The phoneme /l/ is the second member of the initial two member clusters in loan words only.
- iv. Like most of the Tibeto-Burman languages, Manipuri has two member final clusters in loan words only.

3. Comparison of the Manipuri-English Consonant Clusters

	l	r	j	w	p	t	k	m	N	f	v
p	EM	EM	E								
t		EM	E	E							
k	E	E	EM	EM							
p ^h	M	M									
k ^h				M							
b	EM	EM	E								
d		EM	E	EM							
g	EM	E	E	EM							
m			E	E							
n			E								
l			E								
f		E	E	E							
v		E	E	E							
θ		E	E	E							
s		EM	E	EM	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
ʃ		E	E					E	E		
h			E								

For the comparison of English –Manipuri initial clusters, we can classify the following clusters:

1. Clusters with /r/

English	Manipuri
/pr/ pride	/pr/ pran ‘soul’
/tr/ try	/phr/ phri ‘free’
/kr/ crack	/tr/ tren ‘train’
/br/ bread	/br/ britis ‘british’
/dr/ draw	/dr/ ‘drəm’
/gr/ grow	/sr/ sro-sro ‘noises’
/fr/ fry	
/θr/ thread	
/sr/ shrew	

2. Cluster with /l/

English	Manipuri
---------	----------

/pl/	play	/pl/	plet ‘plate’
/kl/	clean	/kl/	klas ‘class’
/bl/	black	/bl/	blu ‘blue’
/fl/	float	/gl/	glas ‘glass’
/gl/	glass	/phl/	phlek ‘flag’
/sl/	slow		

3. Clusters with /w/

	English		Manipuri
/tw/	twenty	/sw/	swaidə ‘here’
/kw/	quick	/gw/	gway ‘name of a river’
/dw/	dwel		
/gw/	gwen		
/θw/	thwart		
/sw/	swell		
/hw/	when		

4. Clusters with /j/

	English		Manipuri
/pj/	pure	/kj/	kyamgei ‘name of a place’
/kj/	cure		
/bj/	beauty		
/gj/	gules		
/fj/	few		
/vj/	view		
/mj/	music		
/nj/	new		

/tj/	tune
/dj/	due
/sj/	sue
/hj/	hue
/lj/	lure

From the above comparisons, the following observations can be made:

- i. Similar or partially similar consonant between the two language are /pl-, pr-, pj-, br-, bj-, kl-, kr-, kj-, gl-, gr-, gj-, sr-/
- ii. Consonant clusters which is found only in manipuri is /b^hr-/
- iii. Consonant clusters which are exclusive to English are /tw-, dj-, dw-, fl-, tj-, jr-, lj-, gw-, mj-, nj-, fj-, vj-, sp-, sm-, sn-, sf-/
- iv. Initial three two and three member consonant clusters with /s/ as the first member is exclusive to English. Therefore, Manipuri speaker tend to add /i/ before pronouncing these clusters. For example,

English word	Manipuri Speaker
School	/iskul/
Spoon	/ispun/
Street	/istrit/

- v. In the initial two member clusters with /w/ and /j/ as the second member, Manipuri speaker tend to add /u/ and /i/ respectively between the consonant. For example,

English words	Manipuri Speaker
Twice	tuwais
Beauty	biyuti
Dwarf	duwap
Cure	kiyor
Twelfth	tuwep

- v. Since Manipuri language does not have final clusters except for the two member final clusters in loan words, all the English final clusters will pose a learning problem.

Conclusion

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Clusters that are absent in Manipuri should be given focus. The articulation of the clusters should be taught to them. Manipuri speaker tends to add /i/ before the clusters with /s/ as the first member initial clusters. They should be taught not to add /i/ before this cluster.

Manipuri language does not have final clusters except four two member final clusters -ks, -ns, -ŋk, -lk which is found only in loan words. The Manipuri speaker tends to simplify the final clusters by dropping the second and third element or member of the final clusters. For example,

English	Manipuri
prompts /prompts/	/prom/
jump /dʒʌmp/	/jəm/

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A Comparative Analysis of Speaking Skills in English of Secondary Level Students from Schools Affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in District Barnala, Punjab

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Abstract

In this paper, the performance of secondary level learners from ten schools affiliated to Punjab School Education Board (PSEB) and Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) in district Barnala, Punjab with regard to speaking in English was examined and compared. 200 participants (100 each from schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE) of grade 10 from ten schools (5 each from the two boards, and 20 students per school) were selected through random sampling procedure. The data, in the form of audio-recordings, was collected by administering a variety of questions to them regarding their day-to-day life. The analysis of the data was done on the basis of five components- Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary, Fluency, and Comprehension. A significant difference in the performance of learners from the schools affiliated to the two boards was observed when 't-test' was applied to the data. Furthermore, the performance of the students from the two boards in five sub-skills of speaking was analysed by comparing their average scores against each skill.

Key words: Speaking skill, ELT, PSEB, CBSE.

1. Introduction

In the present scenario of globalization, knowledge of English is considered as a gateway for participation in national and international life. English is so widely used all over the world that it can no longer be considered as 'owned' by any single nation. Its popularity can be estimated from a prediction that "by 2010, a surge in English language learning will include one
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third of world's people” (Graddol 34). Everybody wants to acquire proficiency in English to get academic advancement and social elevation. People who are able to communicate in English are more likely to win a coveted position of authority and carve a place of eminence for themselves. On the contrary, those who lack expression in English are relegated to backward positions as Kiran Karnik, president NASSCOM also states, “Today only twenty five percent of India’s technical graduates and ten to fifteen percent of other graduates are employable at once.” According to him, the reason behind the unemployment of a sizable percentage of graduates from reputed institutes may be their inability to speak English fluently.

In the case of majority of third world countries where English is not the mother tongue, people still strive to attain proficiency in it for growth in their professional lives which, by no means, is a simple task. A glaring difference can be observed in the way, and at the speed at which people develop proficiency in their mother tongue and in a foreign or second language. They develop communication skills in their mother tongue effortlessly while using it in their daily lives, but it is not so in case of a foreign language which has different semantic and syntactic norms as compared to one’s mother tongue.

Attaining communicative proficiency in a foreign or second language involves control over all the four skills of that language viz. Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. Till about 1980s, more emphasis was laid on developing reading and writing skills in comparison to developing speaking and listening skills; but as globalization gained ground in the decade of the 80s necessitating oral communication, the emphasis shifted to development of listening and speaking skills. Speaking is central, but a complex area of language acquisition as David P. Harris also confirms: “speaking is a complex skill requiring the simultaneous use of different abilities which often develop at different rates” (71).

In the context of Indian students also, it can be seen that learning conversational English is not easy for them due to a number of reasons; the foremost among them being the fact that it is not their first language. Their difficulties are compounded by the fact that the teachers

themselves have studied English as a second language, and many of them may not be adept at subtleties of teaching speaking in this language.

Furthermore, the students who are expected to converse in English at the school or college level use their mother-tongue at home and in their social lives, which influences their pronunciation in English. One also needs to develop certain new muscular habits in order to master the pronunciation of sounds of any foreign or second language as the articulation of the sounds of one's mother tongue is different from the articulation of the sounds of the target language. In addition to this, with limited opportunities for real- life interaction, teaching speaking in English as a second language requires spending a substantial amount of time on part of the teachers in classrooms which becomes extremely difficult in wake of time constraints.

Though a number of studies have been conducted on teaching of speaking in English as a foreign language in India, yet there is a further need to study the level of proficiency in spoken English of learners at primary, secondary and college level in context of Punjab specifically as the proficiency of the learners varies according to different geographical regions with varied socio-cultural-economic set-up and different school education boards which prescribe different syllabi and recommend different teaching methodologies. This research paper aims at analyzing and comparing the performance of secondary level students from the schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in Barnala District, Punjab with regard to speaking skill in English language.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Research Participants

For the present study, 200 students (100 each from schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE) of grade 10 from ten schools (5 each from the two boards; and 20 students per school) from district Barnala were selected through random sampling procedure.

2.2. Research Design

The data was collected in the form of audio-recordings of the responses of the learners to a set of questions (See Appendix). The responses were analysed on the basis of a 'rubric

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assessment' scale containing five criteria recommended by a noted scholar David P. Harris to assess the speaking skill.

1. Pronunciation (including articulation of vowels and consonants, stress and intonation patterns) (skill P)
2. Grammar (skill G)
3. Vocabulary (skill V)
4. Fluency (skill F)
5. Comprehension (skill C)

Harris had designed the scale by taking into consideration all the above mentioned components, which have been further classified on the basis of five short behavioral statements defining the degree of proficiency of the learners. The statements indicating a score of '5' against all the five components of the rubric suggests that there are possibilities of the learners speaking as accurately and fluently in the second language as the native speakers do. In the component titled 'pronunciation', for example, Harris states that the speech of the learners who scored a perfect '5' has hardly any traces which show them to be foreign speakers of the language. Their pronunciation and fluency of the speech is closest to that of the native speakers. Furthermore, with regard to the component of 'vocabulary', Harris states that the learners exhibit a range of vocabulary which they are able to use as precisely and effectively as a native speakers do. With regard to the component of 'comprehension', it has been presumed that the learners can understand and interpret everything as clearly and at the same speed at which native speakers speak. In actual practice, however, young learners find it extremely difficult to perform to the level which indicates a score of '5'. A closer observation of the scale suggested by Harris, however, leads to a conclusion that it might be suitable for application on advanced learners; but the target group for the present study will definitely be very inexperienced, and none of them would be able to score 5 or even 4. It necessitated modifications especially in the behavioral statements corresponding to the top two scores in each component, thus making the assessment more reliable.

Another scale designed by Widya Arun Wicaksani which is based upon the one suggested by Harris, but has incorporated certain modifications which made it more suitable for use for the present study was adopted. The scale is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Modified rubric assessment used by Widya Arun Wicaksani

Sr. No.	Criteria	Rating Scores	Behavioral statements
1	Pronunciation	5	The pronunciation is clear and quite understandable for secondary level learners.
		4	There are some pronunciation problems, but still quite understandable.
		3	Pronunciation problem necessities concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.
		2	Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problem, most frequently be asked to repeat.
		1	Pronunciation problem to serve as to make speech virtually unintelligible.
2	Grammar	5	Errors in grammar are quite rare.
		4	There are few grammatical errors but still intelligible.
		3	Make frequent errors of grammar and word order, which occasionally obscure meaning.
		2	Grammar and word order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrases sentences or restrict him to basic patterns.
		1	Errors in grammar and word order are so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.
3	Vocabulary	5	Almost all vocabularies used are in a proper use.
		4	Frequently use inappropriate terms or must replace ideas but still intelligible.
		3	Frequently uses the wrong words conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.
		2	Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary makes comprehension quite difficult.
		1	Vocabulary limitation so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.
4	Fluency	5	Able to use the language fluently, rare skip, and the speed of speech are at the normal rate.
		4	Speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problem.
		3	Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problem.
		2	Usually hesitant, often forced into silence by language limitation.
		1	Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible.
5	Comprehension	5	Understand most of what is said at average speed.
		4	Understand what is said at average speed, but occasional repetition may be necessary.

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	3	Understand what is said is at slower than average speed repetition.
	2	Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehend only, “social conversation” spoken slowly and with frequent repetition.
	1	Cannot be said to understand even simple conversation.

2.3. Technique of Data Analysis

To discover whether there are statistically significant differences between the average scores of two groups, a statistical test named ‘t-test’ was used. This test is commonly used to examine the truth or falsehood of null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the results of two samples. In the present research, the independent-samples ‘t-test’ was used as a tool for analysis as the sample size from both the groups was equal, the same variable (achievement in speaking skill) was used; but both the groups (from schools affiliated to two boards PSEB and CBSE) represented different populations. The two-tailed ‘t-test’ was used for not hypothesizing a direction in the relationship between two groups and the dependent variable. The following equation was used to calculate the ‘t-value’ in independent samples after applying ‘t-test’ to the responses of the two groups having equal sample sizes (n):

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{SS_1 + SS_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}\right] \left[\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right]}} \quad (\text{Student t-test theory})$$

Where \bar{x}_1 and \bar{x}_2 = the mean of each sample

n_1 and n_2 = the number of replicates for sample 1 and sample 2 respectively.

$$\sqrt{\left[\frac{SS_1 + SS_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}\right] \left[\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right]} = \text{the standard deviation of the difference between the means}$$

In which

$$SS_1 = \sum x_1^2 - \frac{(\sum x_1)^2}{n_1} \quad \text{and}$$

$$SS_2 = \sum x_2^2 - \frac{(\sum x_2)^2}{n_2}$$

Where

$\sum x^2$ = Sum of the squares of each replicate value and

$(\sum x)^2$ = Square of the total ($\sum x$). It is not the same as $\sum x^2$

$(\sum x)$ = Total sum of each replicate value

Then the calculated t value was compared with tabulated values for higher levels of significance (e.g. $p = 0.01$). If the calculated t value exceeds the tabulated value we say that the means are significantly different at that level of probability. By convention, we say that a difference between means at the 95% level is "significant", a difference at 99% level is "highly significant" and a difference at 99.9% level is "very highly significant". This statistical test allows us to make statements with a degree of precision.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. T-test Analysis

As mentioned earlier, the study was conducted on 200 participants (from five schools each affiliated to PSEB and CBSE) with 20 students from each school. While analysing the samples, average score of total marks obtained by the students of one school against all the sub-skills of speaking, were taken as one unit in each sample. In this way, the total numbers of replicates (n_1 and n_2) for each sample (sample 1 and sample 2) were five.

To apply 't-test' on the data collected from the schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in the speaking skill, a null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the performance of schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE, was formulated. The data regarding the overall performance of the learners from schools affiliated to the two boards in speaking skill in English, and application of 't-test' on this data is shown in table 2.

Table 2. Overall performance of the learners from schools affiliated to CBSE (Group A) and PSEB (Group B) in speaking in English and application of the ‘t-test’ on this data

Schools	Group 1		Group 2
1	14.7		10.3
2	18.8		10.5
3	19.75		10.35
4	17.55		12.9
5	19.45		13.8
N	5		5
	18.05		11.57
$\sum x$	90.25		57.85
$(\sum x)^2$	8145.0625		3346.6225
$\sum x^2$	1645.8975		680.3125
$\frac{(\sum x)^2}{n}$	1629.0125		669.3245
SS	16.885		10.988
		3.484125	
		0.4	
		6.48	
		5.489062127	

Plugging all the values into the t-test equation, the t-value based upon the results of the students from the schools affiliated to two boards, was found to be 5.48. Now, to see whether this is significant or not, this value is compared to the critical t value from a t table. For this, first the degrees of freedom for an independent samples t-test were calculated.

$$df = n_1 + n_2 - 2 = 10 - 2 = 8$$

Entering a t-table at 8 degrees of freedom, a critical t score of 2.306 for a two-tailed t-test at the .05 probability level was found. As the absolute value of our calculated t score 5.48 exceeds the critical t score of 2.306, hence the differences between these two groups is

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significant at the .05 probability level. Furthermore, looking at our critical t score table, we can see that these differences are even significant at the .001 probability level, meaning that there is less than 0.1% chance that these differences in scores are simply due to error or chance. It can be concluded that our null hypothesis is rejected and the difference in scores between learners from the schools affiliated to two boards was statistically significant at the 99.9% confidence level. ($t = 5.48$, $df = 8$, $p < .001$).

3.2. An Analysis and Discussion of Comparative Performance of Schools

The comparative performance of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in five sub-skills of speaking skill in English is shown in Fig.1. From the results, it can be observed that the average scores of the learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE are higher than that of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB in all the five sub-skills of speaking in English language.

In pronunciation skill, the average score of learners from schools affiliated to CBSE is 3.57, whereas the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB got an average score of 2.13, lagging behind by a difference of 1.44. The difference in the performance of the learners from schools affiliated to two boards in pronunciation is quite significant. During conversation, learners adopted various strategies such as the strategy of self-repair in order to correct their pronunciation. They followed the strategy of inter lingual transfer when there was a difference between the first and the second language.

In most schools affiliated to CBSE, the impact of technology upon English language learning can be clearly observed. Various audio-visual language teaching aids are used and the learners also get chance to listen to various discourses. These aids prove more effective for language learners in knowing how native speakers of English language use it while communicating with each other.

However, in schools affiliated to PSEB, the learners are more familiar to a particular set of pattern of pronunciation of their mother-tongue. They cannot cope up with the difference in the patterns used in English and that of their mother-tongue. T .R. Kansakar opines in this

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regard: “A non-native learner has problems in pronouncing certain vowel and consonant sounds of English accurately because these sounds do not occur in the mother tongue” (59).

Regarding grammatical skills, where the learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE scored an average score of 3.44, the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB scored an average score of 2.42, lagging behind by 1.02. Majority of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB were unable to produce even a single sentence without grammatical error. They often tried to answer in one word due to their inability to construct grammatically correct and meaningful sentences.

Grammatical competence enables speakers to use and understand the structures of English-language accurately and unhesitatingly, making it fluent. According to Spratt et al., “We can develop learners’ speaking skills by focusing regularly on particular aspects of speaking e.g. - fluency, pronunciation, grammatical accuracy, body language” (50).

Regarding vocabulary component of speaking skill, the average score of learners from schools affiliated to CBSE is 3.96, whereas the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB got an average score of 2.76, lagging behind by 1.20. It was observed that learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB were often in search of an appropriate word which they were unable to find. When they failed to find an appropriate word in their mental lexicon, they coined new words to facilitate communication. In certain contexts, the learners followed the code switching strategy, i.e., they use certain words of L₁ while trying to answer in L₂. Approximation was another strategy in which the learners used the approximate words sharing semantic feature of the correct ones, instead of the correct ones. This may have happened due to their lack of exposure to a range of vocabulary.

Regarding fluency skill, where the learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE scored an average of 3.46, the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB scored an average of 1.78, lagging behind by 1.68. Majority of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB followed the

strategy of voice reduction and overuse of fillers in the process of communication. Their answers in incomplete statements rendered their speech as completely lacking fluency.

In comprehension skill, the average score of learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE is 3.62, whereas the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB got an average score of 2.48, lagging behind by a difference of 1.14. It was noticed that learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB could not co-operate semantically in the conversational discourse with the researcher. Reasons for this kind of semantic avoidance are the learners' linguistic inadequacy as well as ignorance of the semantic norms of L₂ utterances. While answering, they used the strategy of expanding the linguistic resources available to them by one way or another without considering the required response for the question asked. It created disturbance in the comprehension of speech.

Fig. 1: Comparative performance of learners from schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in five sub-skills of speaking skill in English language.

The comparison of overall performance of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB and schools affiliated to CBSE in speaking skill of English language is shown in Fig.2. From the results shown in the Fig.2, it can be concluded that the learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE scored an average score of 18.05, and the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB scored an average score of 11.57, lagging behind by a score of 6.48. It is found with learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB that they make an excessive use of their mother-tongue in productive skills namely- speaking and writing.

When asked about their tactics of performing a speaking activity, the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB confessed that at first, they thought about the topic in their mother tongue, framed what they wanted to say in their mother-tongue and then translated it into English. It resulted in a number of mistakes in their speech. When learners of rural background from the schools affiliated to PSEB were asked to perform a speaking activity, they ended up

saying nothing. Even when they tried to speak, they often made use of their mother tongue making mistakes which further resulted in losing the motive of learning the language.

The most common problem noticed while performing a task in the second language is inhibition. Sometimes, the students possess good knowledge about the concerned topic; yet while speaking, they are worried about making mistakes, or about being criticized in front of the rest of the class resulting either in making mistakes while performing or remain completely silent. Other common obstacles observed are lack of proper vocabulary, under-developed listening skills, quick learners' dominance in the class, and social background etc.

Fig. 2: Comparison of overall performance of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in speaking skill of English language.

The reason for the below par performance of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB in comparison to learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE is the fact that most of the learners of PSEB are the first generation learners and they get very little exposure to English in their daily life. The overall performance of the learners under study from both the boards is dissatisfactory in the productive skill of speaking.

3.3. Strategies Adopted by Learners While Speaking

While conducting the speaking tests, some of the learners avoided communicating in English with the researcher. It was so because perhaps the learners wanted to conceal their linguistic inadequacy in the second language. Further, the anxiety, language shock and cultural shock are some other important factors that are responsible for their usage of the strategy of avoidance. The learners adopted various strategies while speaking that affected their ability to communicate effectively and efficiently with proper pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension.

It was noticed that whenever learners from the schools affiliated to CBSE realized while answering questions that there was something incorrect in their speech, they followed the strategy of self-repair. However, these self-corrected elements were not necessarily correct in all contexts, leading the self-correcting process to the production of wrong linguistic elements also. Voice reduction was another strategy adopted by the learners from both the groups while speaking. They reduced their pitch to the level of getting inaudible.

It was also observed that while speaking, majority of the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB adopted the strategy of responding in elliptical form instead of giving elaborate response. They answered the questions in one word instead of constructing sentence or giving complete answers.

Literal Translation is another strategy adopted by the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB while speaking. Without considering the sentence structure of L₂, the learners translated the L₁ words with the L₂ words which are stored in their mental dictionary.

Another strategy adopted by the learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB was the use of fillers and repetition which literally do not carry any meaning in conversation. The students made use of fillers and repetition to take time to think about the apt word and to conceal the internal process taking place in their inner minds. In some other contexts, instead of using fillers, the learners took long pause. The reason behind using this strategy is that they do not have appropriate vocabulary to express their views. Other strategies adopted by the learners from the

schools affiliated to PSEB while speaking are message abandonment, expansion of resources, and semantic avoidance etc.

Actually, all the above discussed strategies followed by the learners in the process of oral communication as the strategy of avoidance, self-repair, responding in elliptical form, literal translation, and the use of fillers and repetitions carrying no meaning etc., together affects on the overall performance of the learners while speaking in English.

4. Proposed Remedies

The goal of every speaking activity should be to develop the communicative ability of the learners. They should be motivated through various oral practice activities so that their interest level goes up and they also derive fun out of these activities. During these activities, the teacher should play the role of a guide, mentor and facilitator. Beginning should be with simple and easy activities to encourage the slow learners, and boost their morale. Gradually, the difficulty level of activities may be increased; teacher's talk time may be reduced while giving more opportunity to the learners to make efforts to talk so that the learners can express their ideas in the target language "with more confidence as Gurray also states " just as a young bird learning to fly must use his wings even if he falls, the young people must speak the new language, even if his efforts are, at first, inept and incorrect. But like the parent bird, the teacher can foster these early faltering until the bird that is the student, learns to fly (speak English) by quiet patience, clear speaking, and encouragement" (20).

A task-based approach which includes Role play, Games and Groups discussions will prove to be very useful in minimizing learners' inhibition (their worries about making mistakes, being criticized or losing face in front of the rest of the class) and thus enhancing their communicative competence in English.

5. Conclusion

Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that there is significant difference between the proficiency level in speaking in English of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in Barnala district of Punjab. The overall performance of the learners from the

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A Comparative Analysis of Speaking Skills in English of Secondary Level Students from Schools Affiliated to PSEB and CBSE in District Barnala, Punjab

schools affiliated to CBSE is found to be better in all the five sub-skills in comparison to the performance of learners from the schools affiliated to PSEB.

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APPENDIX

The following questionnaire was used for conducting the speaking test:

Sr. No.	Question
1.	What is your name?
2.	How old are you?

3.	What do you do in your free hours?
4.	What do you do to help your mother at home?
5.	Where are you going today evening?
6.	Do you like English? Why?
7.	What will you do if you get first rank in 10 th standard?
8.	What will your father do if you get first rank?
9.	What will you do for the people if you become a doctor?
10.	What will you do if it rains while you are going to school?
11.	What would your father have done if you have failed in 9 th examination?
12.	What do you want to be in future? And why?
Speak About Any One of The Following Topics	
A	Your likes and dislikes
B	Your favourite sports star

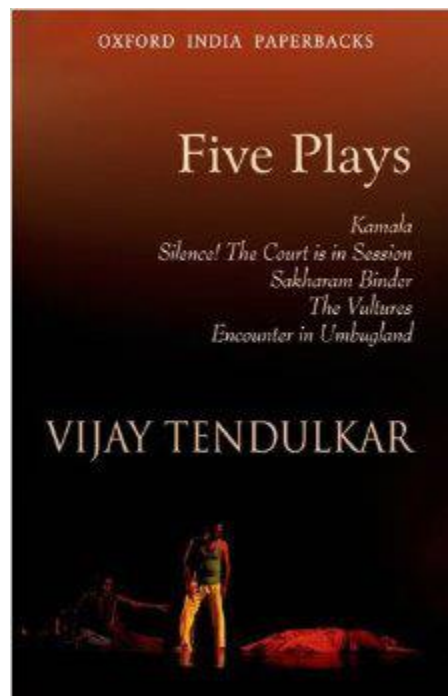
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Harshness, Aggression and Sensuality in Vijay Tendulkar's Works

Raj Kumar, M. Ph.D. Research Scholar
Dr. R. Mummatchi



Abstract

Vijay Tendulkar deals with harshness, aggression and sensuality in most of his plays. The endless decay and harshness in the social mores inexorably impinging upon the man-woman relationship, as well as sex and ethics seem to create a sense of fate out of which there is no escape for man and woman. They are trapped in their helpless condition, left to the battering of cruel and creational forces beyond their control. No rebellion, not even acquiescence is possible. They are subject to a sense of self-destruction and dissipation bordering on despair. No dramatist may find it a proper subject-matter for his plays, for he knows he will inevitably fail to present the tremendous stress involved in this human condition. He may find both logical discourse and literary symbolism inadequate to effectively present the shameless seeking after power, the raw-

violence and the festering social lapses. Harshness is noticed everywhere in Tendulkar's plays - in the aggression, in the cunning game in the form of a mock-trial in *Silence! The Court is in Session*, sexual lust of the protagonist in *Sakharam Binder* in the rude, brutal interactions of the members of the family in *The Vultures*. Therefore, "all these plays, in fact, are spectacles of harshness, overt or covert". (N.S. Dharan, *The Plays of Vijay Tendulkar*, 107).

Key words: Vijay Tendulkar, aggression and sensuality, logical discourse, works of Vijay Tendulkar.

Tendulkar's Charisma



Vijay Tendulkar (1928-2008)

Courtesy: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vijay_Tendulkar

Vijay Tendulkar deals with harshness, aggression and sensuality in most of his plays. The endless decay and harshness in the social mores inexorably impinging upon the man-woman relationship, sex and ethics seem to have created a sense of fatalism, out of which there is no escape for man and woman. They are trapped in their helpless condition, left to the battering of cruel and creational forces beyond their control. No rebellion, not even acquiescence is possible. They are subject to a sense of self-destruction and dissipation bordering on despair.

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No dramatist may find it a proper subject-matter for his plays, for he or she knows they will inevitably fail to present the tremendous stress involved in this human condition. They may find both logical discourse and literary symbolism inadequate to effectively present the shameless seeking after power, the raw-violence and the festering social lapses. They will find them at once crude and anti-literary.

Evolution of the Characters

The crudeness and anti-literary character of this subject-matter impinging upon the willing susceptibility or readiness of the creative imagination of the plays such as *The Vultures* (1959), *Silence! The Court is in Session* (1967), and *Sakharam Binder* (1971) seems to have evolved their own forms: and hit upon an anti-literary, apparently illogical, absurd anti-theatre which is similar in many respects to the forms practiced in the West as the *Theatre of the Absurd*.

Depiction of Harshness against People – Garden Crossings and Gender Crossings

Harshness against people is part and parcel of the day-to-day life in a certain section of society in India. It is a routine matter with Dalit men as well as women. Vijay Tendulkar probes the operations of power, the hidden seams of violence in Indian history and obstacles that stand in the way of social change and modernization. By examining Tendulkar's plays, *The Vultures*, *Sakharam Binder* and *Silence! and The Court is in Session* let us illustrate the concept of 'garden crossings', of 'gender crossings', of masculinities and femininities, in the context of caste and family structures pivotal to the deconstructive dramatic axis of Tendulkar.

Unmitigated Harshness and Selfishness: *The Vultures*

The play *The Vultures* displays the unmitigated harshness arising from selfishness, greed and sinfulness. It depicts harshness, avarice, selfishness, sensuality and sheer wickedness, inherent in man's life. It is a realistic naturalistic play. The title of the play *The Vultures* itself indicates the unpleasant subject-matter of the play. The characters of the play are drawn from a middle class family. The greed and viciousness of Ramakant and Umakant, the degenerate nature of their father, and the sensuality of their sister Manik throw a glare of light on the baser aspects of human nature. In the view of Arundhati Banerjee: " The beating up of the father by his own sons, the two brothers, forcible abortion of their sister's child and the mutual hatred among the

members of the family, underline the fundamental evil inherent in human nature” (Arundhati Banerjee, ‘Introduction’, *Five plays of Vijay Tendulkar*, xii).

Language and Harshness

The play is extremely morbid not only in the portrayal of its characters and their actions but in the setting and language also. The scenes of harshness, the open exhibition of sexual relations, and the abusive language shock the sensibility of the conventional audience. Never has such harshness been depicted nor experienced before in the Indian theatre. It has stunned the audience and made them introspective. The lighting technique also helps to make the characters appear violent and blood-thirsty from the play’s beginning to its end.

The language, the setting and the stage directions make the harshness vivid and the play alive. In the background, there is a huge tree having curved, crooked branches and a big hollow, a drawing room consisting of old, unpolished, worn-out furniture, a small country-yard having a *tulsi-vrindavan* (basil plant on a shrine for god Krishna), and an old garage. When the play opens, there is a constant sound like wind howling over a plain and a shrill screaming of vultures for some time. When the curtain is raised, the lights on the garage and the *tulsi-vrindavan* are green and those on the bedroom and the drawing room are dirty gray, almost black.

The language used is coarse and roughshod. All the characters except Rama and Rajaninath are foul-mouthed. However, as pointed out by Dr. Shriram Lagu, “It is the language of the vultures, not of civilized, cultured people. They have to speak only in such abusive language” (Shriram Lagu, “Gidhade, censorship animee” Narendra Dabholkar (Ed), *Sadhara: Diwali Special*, Pune, 2001, 55).

Representations of Violence

In the play, “The Vultures” Tendulkar reiterates the importance of a range of individualistic representations drawing on ideas of violence, greed, lust and spiritual and cultural erosion. He presents the psychodrama of crude realities of family relationships in *The Vultures*. Jaganmohan Chari and E-Ranuka point out, “This play enacts the goriest of the family relations existing in our society today”. (*The Plays of Vijay Tendulkar, New Quest*, Jan-Feb, 1928, 29).

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We have also witnessed volcanic eruption of violence that normally exists in each of us. It comes to the surface level and beyond only when we are trapped in the cobweb of the post-modern tendencies of fragmentation, frustration and aggression. “Ye dil manage more” encapsulates many of the deadly disease hidden beneath our endless desires from which we are all suffering. The difference lies only in degree. The characters of *The Vultures* are all vulnerable in this disease and Tendulkar has successfully defined the dreadful deformities that form our culture. A crude domestic realism which is an integral part of the cultural milieu of Indian society is portrayed in *The Vultures*. In this play an acute atmosphere of lovelessness and hopelessness is caused by “Violence, avarice, selfishness, sensuality and sheer wickedness” (Arundhati Banerjee, “Introduction”, *Five Plays*, XII).

Drunkenness, Greed and Immorality

The Vultures is a play which displays the unmitigated harshness arising from drunkenness, greed and immorality. Furthermore, it is a play built on contrasting situations. On the one hand, there is the gruesome portrayal of man’s greed and on the other, there is a portrayal of tender love. When the agents of these opposing qualities meet, a conflict of great dramatic significance results: In this play Tendulkar displays a rare genius of mixing the absurd as evident in the cruel and curious relationship obtaining in the relationship among Pappa the father, his two sons Ramakant, and Umakant and Manik his daughter; and the tender but possessive relationship between Rama, Ramakant’s wife and Rajaninath, Pappa’s illegitimate son.

Vulture Psychology

“The Vultures” deals with vulture psychology, which is man’s natural inclination for the macabre, the pervert and violent. No amount of social conditioning can actually hide the vulture hidden in the recesses of a man’s personality. There is harshness in the play not just in terms of content, but also in the use of bold and explicit language.

Operations of Power in *Sakharam Binder*

Vijay Tendulkar’s plays persistently probe the operations of power, the hidden seams of harshness in Indian history and the obstacles that stand in the way of social change and modernization. The play *Sakharam Binder* explores complexities of human nature: “Through the

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character of Sakharam and those of the two women Laxmi and Champa, Tendulkar reaches into the depths of physical lust and harshness in the human being”.

<http://www.chennaionline.com/events/sakharam.asp>

A Three-Act Play Exposing Hypocrisy, Jealousy, Masochism, and Lust

The play consists of three Acts: The first Act depicts the relationship of Laxmi-Sakharam; the second one, that of Champa-Sakharam; and the last one, that of Laxmi-Sakharam-Champa. Sakharam, the protagonist is at the pivot of the situation. Laxmi considers Champa as her rival in Sakharam’s love; the one is a foil to the other.

The play “Sakharam Binder” exposes hypocrisy, jealousy, masochism, and lust of the middle class people. Sakharam Binder, born in a Brahmin family, ill-treated by both his father and mother, runs away at 11, fends for himself and at length finds a job in a press. The bitter experiences he faces in his life leave him rough and tough and foul mouthed. But he is honest. In Tendulkar’s words he is “A coarse but impressive personality”. As he does not believe in the institution of marriage, he brings home helpless, deserted women in the society, not with a view to improving their lot, but to exploit them in the fulfillment of his sexual passion. It is a kind of contractual relationship based on mutual convenience. He does not keep them with him for long. Thus, he spends fourteen years with six women. The play begins when the sixth woman has left him and when he brings the seventh woman, the typical Indian woman, Laxmi to his house. Wine and women are his obsessions.

Aggressive Ego

Sakharam Binder is aggressive in his manner. He projects his ego in order to escape from his super-ego. He always talks of himself as a self-made man who has no respect even for gods. In his own words: “This Sakharam Binder - he’s a terrorHe’s not scared of god or of god’s father”. (126) on seeing Laxmi looking for framed gods he says:

“We’re not saints. We’re men. Worship and prayer can’t satisfy the itch. If you want a thing, well, you’ve got to have it. What’s there to hide? And from whom? From our Father?” (127)

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The relationship of Sakharam and Laxmi cannot last for a long period, as they are totally in contrast with each other. Laxmi is very sensitive, generous, calm and tender-hearted. Sakharam is very aggressive, violent, and sensual. Laxmi fails to fulfil his excessive physical lust and Sakharam remains blind to her expectations. Both cannot satisfy each other, either physically or psychologically.

Laxmi - A Scarecrow

Excess of work and sex make Laxmi a scarecrow of a woman. One day Sakharam explodes and decides to send Laxmi out. In spite of Dawood's intervention, he does so. He does not pay heed to Laxmi's warning:

Sakharam: Then what did you expect me to do?

Be your slave and lick your feet?

Laxmi: You'll know that once I'm gone. (148).

Thus the play *Sakharam Binder* treats varied aspects of sex and harshness. According to Tendulkar:

“Even in the plays of *Sakharam Binder* and *The Vultures*, the theme is not harshness. Harshness comes as a way of life - a natural way of life if you consider the background of the characters. It is there as a part of functioning of a character” (Vijay Tendulkar, “Interview”, *The Indian Express*, March 27, 1983, Magazine section, quoted in Manchi Sarat Babu, *Indian Drama Today*, New Delhi: Prestige Books, 1997, 93).

Harshness is an inevitable aspect of their lives, nature and culture. Therefore, Manchi Sarat Babu is quite justified in stating: “The inhuman violence of the human characters in these plays is only the result of the physical deformity”. (Manchi Sarat Babu, *Indian Drama Today*, New Delhi: Prestige Books, 1997, 93). Harshness characterizes the play; it is inherent in the very lifestyles of the characters.

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Silence! The Court is in Session – A Social Satire

The *Silence! The Court is in Session* is a social satire on the male-dominated society. In this play “a woman can neither get a sympathetic response nor win a man to give legitimacy to her child” (Asha S. Kanwar *Ghashiram Kotwal, A Study Guide*, New Delhi: IGNOU, 1993, 1). The theme of the play revolves round the idea of the game in which Benare, who is in the offensive in the beginning, finds herself entrapped in the game towards the end of the play.

Benare and the Fake Charge

The play begins with a group of artists planning to stage a play in a village. A rehearsal is arranged to acquaint Sumant, a local chap, with the court procedures. At the beginning of the mock-trial, Benare is accused of the charge of infanticide (actually, it is foeticide). Surprisingly at the end, this fake charge turns into a verdict, into a punishment.

Benare, a school-teacher, is sincere in her teaching work and so she is a favourite with her pupils. She also works in the amateur theatre group along with Mr. and Mrs. Kashikar Balu Lokde, Sukhatme, Ponshe, Karnik, Prof. Damle, and Mr. Rawte.

Benare is the protagonist of the play. All the characters, except Sumant, fail to achieve their most cherished goals of life. They seek a vicious pleasure in making others unhappy. In their verbal onslaught on Benare, who is by nature, a jolly teacher, their sadist tendencies come to the surface. All the members in the group, including Mrs. Kashikar have come together to expose the private life of Benare.

In this malicious and spiteful attitude towards Mrs. Benare, their fellow companion, one notices the inferiority complex reflected in their frustration and repressed desires. However, they themselves are not united and share nothing but hatred for one another. While calling upon his first witness Mr. Ponshe, Sukhatme remarks: “My first witness is the world famous scientist Mr. Gopal Ponshe. Well, Ponshe are you happy? I’ve suddenly prompted you to world fame, eh?”(80)

A Symbol of Simplicity, Innocence and Straightforwardness

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The character of Benare symbolizes simplicity, innocence, and straightforwardness and the character of her fellow-companions symbolize meanness, crookedness, and cruelty. Her tragedy reveals the fact that, in the male dominated society, woman's innocence is punished and man's violence goes unpunished. That is why Prof. Damle, despite the fact that he wholly disowns his responsibility, is summoned merely as a witness while,

“Benare remains the prime accused principally because contemporary Indian society with all its roots grounded firmly in reactionary ideas, cannot allow the birth of a child out of wedlock” (Arundhati Banerjee, “Introduction”, *Five Plays of Vijay Tendulkar*, Bombay: OUP, 1992, viii).

Usually the theme of ‘raw’ harshness is rampant in Vijay Tendulkar’s plays. But *Silence! The Court is in Session* is an exception. No doubt, Tendulkar throws light on the evil tendency, the violence inherent in human nature, in the play. The educated and civilized people become aggressive and violent against the fellow-companion and that too, a female. The play deals with the issue of social morality and shows how a young and attractive woman school teacher is trapped and coerced into making a confession about her illicit love affair. Sumit Mitra seems to have voiced the general critical opinion when he said that “the raw brutality and lewdness of Gidhade make a triumphal return in the post - Shantata! Phase, particularly in.....*Sakharam Binder*” (Sumit Mitra, “Vijay Tendulkar: India’s Master Playwright”, *India Today*, December 16-31, 1980, 61). It is evident here that *Silence!* is free from the naturalistic theme of harshness, unlike *The Vultures* and *Sakharam* “(A. Jagannathan Chari and E. Renuka, “The Plays of Vijay Tendulkar,” *New Quest*, 67, January-February 1988, 33).

The Central Theme

The central theme of the play is the plight and predicament of a woman whose feminine wealth is plundered by a gang of selfish men.

The play also deals with the latest harshness and prejudice towards women in the middle class psyche. Kashikar and Sukhatme in *Silence! The Court is in Session*. Jaisingh Jadhav in *Kamala*, Ramakant and Umakant in *The Vultures* represent the harshness and disgruntled

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characters. They turn harsh and deviated because of their respective failures in life. In the *Silence! The Court is in Session* the worst sufferer is a woman, Miss Benare who has to be the victim of men's lust and prejudice. Her incestuous relation with the maternal uncle creates a sense of life-long trauma in the psyche of the heroine. She recalls:

“I was in love with my mother's brother. But in our strict house in the prime of my unfolding youth, he was the one who came close to me. He praised my bloom every day. He gave me love....how was I to knowIf you felt that, just being with him gave a whole meaning to life and if he was your uncle, it was a sin! I did not even know what sin was....I insisted on marriage. So I could live my beautiful lovely dream openly”. (74)

The harshness of *The Vultures* is softened in this play as it is enwrapped with music, dance, movies and such other techniques.

Harshness in the Plays

Thus harshness is noticed everywhere in Tendulkar's plays - in the cruel, cunning game in the form of a mock-trial in *Silence! The Court is in Session*, sexual lust of the protagonist in *Sakharam Binder* in the rude, brutal interactions of the members of the family in *The Vultures*. Therefore, “all these plays are, in fact, spectacles of harshness, overt or covert” (N.S. Dharan, *The Plays of Vijay Tendulkar*, 107).

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Conventional vs. Modern Trends in Testing

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Abstract

This paper makes an attempt to find out the conventional and modern trends prevailing in our assessment procedures of educational system. The text focuses on two aspects, viz., conventional and modern testing trends and their description. It suggests a balanced use of conventional as well as modern method of testing as per the requirement of the job.

Key Words

Written End Session Examination, Course work, Implicit Criteria, Explicit Criteria, Product assessment, Process assessment, Objectives-based assessment, Outcome-based assessment, Content-based assessment, Competency-based assessment, External assessment, Internal assessment, Authentic assessment, Self-assessment, Portfolio assessment, Journal writing.

Introduction

The modern trends of testing are used as a means for educational / examination reform due to the increasing awareness of the influence of testing on curriculum and instruction. The conventional testing often focuses on learner's ability to memorize and recall, which are of lower level of cognitive skills. These tools require learners to display their knowledge in a predetermined way. The conventional tests are very often norm-referenced and single occasion tests and measure what learners can do at a particular time. However, test scores cannot tell about the progression of learners and difficulties the learners had during the test. On the other hand, the modern testing assesses higher order abilities and skills. The students have the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned. This type of testing tool focuses on the growth and the performance of the student. If a learner fails to perform a given task at a

particular time, he/she still has the opportunity to demonstrate his/her ability at a different time and different situation. Since the modern tool has developed in context and overtime, the teacher has a chance to measure the strengths and weaknesses of the learner in a variety of areas, manners and situations.

Objectives

- Identifying the usefulness of modern trends in assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the learners.
- Creating awareness about the influence of testing on curriculum and instruction.

Testing

A test is an instrument or systematic procedure for measuring a sample of behaviour. It indicates the character or attributes that are of interest to the learner. In general, testing is finding out how well something works. In terms of human beings, testing tells what level of knowledge or skill has been acquired. In education, the test is used as a source of information for making decisions within the context of any educational programme. It also makes possible to improve teaching and learning through appropriate changes in men, materials and procedures. Hence, test and examination are tools or devices designed to measure a person's ability or knowledge or skills in a given area within a period of time, on which ultimately value judgment is done (Pon Subbiah, 2008).

Terms Used for Testing

The terms 'test', 'assessment', 'measurement' and 'evaluation' look similar but are different terms and they may be involved in a single process. If we ask learners to answer a series of questions concerning any subject, obtain their scores by counting the number of correct answers, and conclude that the learners progress is in a desirable direction, we are concerned with all these concepts (Gronlund, Norman E., et.al.1990:5). The 'test' is the set of questions, 'assessment' is concerned with the qualitative description and 'measurement' with the quantitative description for assigning of numerals to the test results according to a specific system/procedures (counting correct answers), and 'evaluation' adds the value judgment (concerned with desirable behaviour) based on empirical evidence (Noll, Victor H, 1965:7-15).

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Difference in Conventional and Modern Testing

The modern trends of testing differ from conventional forms of appraisal in several ways. It attempts to measure a comprehensive range of objectives of the modern school curriculum rather than subject matter achievement. It uses a variety of techniques of appraisal, such as achievement, aptitude, personality, and character tests. Thus, there are several types of tests that a student, teacher, or institute might encounter in an educational setting today. We can observe that the modern testing always includes integrating and interpreting various indices of behaviour into an inclusive portrait of an individual or an educational situation (David George,2005:1).

Traditional vs. Recent

Traditional assessments are tests given to the students by the teachers to measure how much the students have learned. Traditional testing presents the type of assessments that people most often think of when they hear the word ‘test’ or ‘exam’. The common forms of traditional testing are multiple choice, fill-ins, matching, essays, and sentence completions, etc. (Semire Dikli, July 2003:13). Traditional methods of testing usually produce a written document, such as quiz, exam, or paper. Standardized tests, most state achievement test, and high school and graduation examination are also examples of traditional assessment. This type of assessment is not the only way nor it is the easy way to evaluate students, but is the most common way because it provides valuable information about the students’ learning.

Now the assessment of students has been receiving much attention of teachers, parents, researchers and educational institutions. This attention has highlighted assessment as integral to the teaching and learning process. The recent testing practices need to reflect changes based on new understandings of learning theories, new curricula that are being developed, new knowledge and skills that are necessary for this century and the accountability requirements of systems and governments. In this respect testing of student achievement is changing as today’s students face a world that demands new knowledge, skills and behaviours that are still developing further. Students, in this fast and ever-changing context, need not only develop deep understanding of the disciplines but also develop the ability to analyse, synthesise and make inferences as well as think critically and solve problems. Assisting students to develop this type of knowledge, skills

and behaviours and become life-long learners requires changes in the testing processes at all the levels of education.

Below are the examples of some conventional versus modern tests with their explanations.

Written End Session Examination vs. Coursework

The written end session examination is a kind of test given to students at the end of a course of study or training or programme to establish students' understanding of the individual course or subject matter. It determines that the student is able to continue with the programme and to take courses for which that knowledge may be a prerequisite. For the programme as a whole, the written end session examination establishes that whether a student understands the body of knowledge required or not. Most schools, colleges, and universities conduct written end session examination at the end of a particular academic term, typically a quarter or semester, or more traditionally at the end of a complete degree course.

Coursework is performed by students or trainees for the purpose of learning. Coursework may be specified and assigned by teachers, or by learning guides in self-taught courses. Coursework can encompass a wide range of activities, including practice, experimentation, research, and writing such as essays, book reports and dissertations. In case of students at universities, high schools and middle schools, coursework is often graded and the scores are combined with those of separately assessed exams to determine overall course scores. In contrast to written end session examination, students may be allotted several days or weeks to complete coursework, and are often allowed to use text books, notes, and the other reference materials for research.

In universities, students are usually required to perform coursework to broaden knowledge, enhance research skills, and demonstrate that they can discuss, reason and construct practical outcomes from learned theoretical knowledge. Sometimes coursework is performed by a group so that students can learn both- how to work in groups and how to learn from each other (Chhaya Shukla, 2004:26-29).

Implicit Criteria vs. Explicit Criteria (of Assessment)

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Conventional vs. Modern Trends in Testing

Implicit is defined as something that is expressed indirectly or in a manner that is not clear, whereas explicit can refer to something that is true and without doubt. The conventional assessment systems keep the criteria for assessment hidden (implicit) and are not revealed to the students. But in the modern trend criteria such as the points on which basis marks are going to be awarded and the skills and abilities which are intended to be tested are properly informed (explicit) to the examinees well in advance and sometimes they are also encouraged to add some more agreeable points to be treated as evidences while quantifying the answer scripts.

However, the implicit criteria are used subsequently to produce precise assessments and are used in the sense of being always independent of the goals to avoid or alter the expression of the attribute to be measured. The explicit criteria assess the quality of learners, because such criteria make possible consistent judgments, clearly arrived at (Marius Bazgam, et. al, 2013:95-99).

Product vs. Process Assessment

Process assessment focuses on the steps or procedures underlying a particular ability or task, i.e., the cognitive steps in performance. Because it provides more detailed information, process assessment is most useful when a student is learning a new skill and for providing formative feedback to assist in improving performance, whereas, product assessment focuses on evaluating the result or outcome of a process. Product assessment is most appropriate for documenting proficiency or competency in a given skill, i.e., for summative purposes. In general, product assessments are easier to create than process assessments, requiring only a specification of the attributes of the final product.

In conventional assessment, stress is on the result of the teaching, but in modern trend the process of learning itself becomes the object of assessment to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the process rather than that of the student. Process is the means and product is the end. The emphasis on the means is to help the students to develop strategies of knowledge seeking rather than knowledge receiving. Product is the assessment of passive learning, whereas, process is the assessment of active learning (Anthony J Nitko, 1996:264).

Objectives-based vs. Outcome-based Assessment

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Objectives-based assessment refers to a set of assessment approaches that centres on the pre-determined objectives, whereas, outcome based assessment is concerned with the all-round effects of learning including the pre-determined objectives and other intended and unintended outcomes considering all of them as the indicators of the growth of the learner in all the directions whether desired or undesired.

Objectives-based assessments are intended results or consequences of instruction, curricula, programmes, activities, whereas, outcome-based assessments are achieved results or consequences of what was learned; i.e., evidence that learning took place. Objectives-based assessment are focused on specific types of performances that students are expected to demonstrate at the end of the instruction. Objectives are often written more in terms of teaching intentions and these typically indicate the subject content that the teacher intends to cover. On the other hand, outcomes-based assessments are more student-centred and these describe what it is that the learners have learnt. Therefore, it seems to be more comprehensive when compared to the conventional ones (Pon Subbiah, 2008:141).

Content-based vs. Competency-based Assessment

The content refers to the knowledge of a body of information that teachers teach and that students are expected to learn in a given subject or content area, such as English language, arts, mathematics, science, or social studies. Content knowledge generally refers to the facts, concepts, theories, and principles that are taught and learned, rather than to related skills such as reading, writing, or researching that students also learn in academic courses.

Content-based assessment is mainly concerned with knowledge and understanding of subject matter and to some extent assessing the ability to apply rules into practice, whereas, competency-based assessment is an approach of establishing occupationally relevant standards of competence. The emphasis is on demonstrated competence in the attributes important to an occupation or profession, rather than measuring knowledge in isolation from skills, or measuring the time that has been spent in formal professional or academic education.

Competency-based assessment is all about providing a way of building the skills and knowledge people need to perform their current job. It is also the key element of the succession

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planning process because it provides a way of developing people for their future roles. It is a continuous process of building knowledge and skills. The key to competency-based assessment is that it is related to actual skills and knowledge that a person can demonstrate in the workplace or in other contexts. This is different to other approaches where there is no requirement to demonstrate knowledge and skills, where people just answer questions as a test of their knowledge and skills.

The problem with this type of testing is that it does not guarantee that a person will be able to do something - it just verifies that they know something. The process starts with persons assessing themselves against a set of competencies. They compile a list of evidence that shows they are competent. A workplace assessor reviews the evidence and verifies the person performing the skill (Gronlund, Norman E, et.al., 1990:455-57).

External vs. Internal Assessment

The external assessments are designed, selected, and controlled by another person or group commercial publishers, district administrators, or state policymakers. Typical examples of external assessments include standardized and commercial tests. External assessments occur less frequently than internal assessments, but they usually have been given greater importance, more authority, and higher stakes to indicate the educational achievement of students.

In contrast, in modern testing, internal assessments are informal, frequent and tied to curriculum and daily instructional routines in the classroom. For example, assessments of children's daily oral language, listening, and question-answering during group reading may be made through teachers' observation. Other internal assessments may be more structured, such as spelling tests, weekly quizzes, journal writing, reports, and projects; but they are all under the control of the teacher and embedded in the curriculum. We refer to these assessments as internal because they are designed, selected, and used by teachers according to the needs of their children. Internal assessments are used to make decisions about instruction and to report progress to the administrators and the parents (Pon Subbiah, 2008:103&74).

Apart from the above mentioned trends there are some other testing trends also which are very much in use now a days such as: Authentic assessment, Self-assessment, Portfolio assessment, Journal writing, etc.

Authentic Assessment

According to the Daniel Koretz, in the late 1980's many changes occurred in large scale testing programme, which fell under the rubric of authentic assessment (2008:59). Authentic assessment is the measurement of intellectual accomplishments that are worthwhile, significant, and meaningful, as compared to other standardized tests. It can be devised by the teacher on his or her own, or in collaboration with the students by engaging students' voice. It refers to an approach for assessment that has been designed to provide a realistic task, simulation, or problem related to that attribute or performance being measured.

Authentic assessments ask students to demonstrate understanding by performing a more complex task usually representative of more meaningful application. Authentic assessments often ask students to analyse, synthesise and apply what they have learned in a substantial manner, and students create new meanings in the process as well. On the other hand, these offer more direct evidence of application and construction of knowledge.

Self-assessment

Self-assessment is an appraisal of one's own personal qualities or traits, as measured by himself /herself with the help of a behaviour checklist or the like. This may involve the student in helping to devise the criteria by which his/her work will be assessed, and also in evaluating what he or she has achieved (Michael Milanovic, 2002:177). Self-assessment requires students to reflect on their own work and judge how well they have performed in relation to the assessment criteria. The focus is not necessarily on having students generate their own grades, but rather providing opportunities for them to be able to identify what constitutes a good (or poor) piece of work. Some degree of student's involvement in the development and comprehension of assessment criteria is therefore an important component of self-assessment.

In the process of self-assessment a form of reflective exercises, such as logs or diaries, is given to the students to assess how well they have met the assessment criteria in more traditional tasks such as essays and presentations. Audits or essay feedback questionnaires that students complete on submitting a piece of coursework are particularly helpful as one can compare his/her perception of work with other students' views on how well they have performed. Self-assessment may be used in a stand-alone context, or in conjunction with peer assessment.

Portfolio Assessment

The alternative aspect of assessing without test is the use of portfolio (K.V.V.L Narasimha Rao, 2013:98). Portfolio assessment (a kind of modern assessment) assesses the process that is based on the collection of student's work created in response to specific, known instructional objectives (such as written assignments, drafts, artworks, and presentations) that represent competencies, exemplary works or the student's developmental progress.

A student portfolio is a systematic collection of student's work and related material that depicts a student's activities, accomplishments, and achievements in one or more school subjects. The collection should include evidence of student's reflection and self-evaluation, guidelines for selecting the portfolio contents, and criteria for judging the quality of the work. The goal is to help students assemble portfolios that illustrate their talents, represent their writing capabilities, and tell their stories of school achievement.

Journal Writing

Journal writing is a testing method based on the ideas that students write to learn. Students use the journals to write about topics of personal interest, to note their observations, to imagine, to wonder and to connect new information with things they already know. In this process a teacher assesses the students how they are engaged in their own learning and how they clarify and reflect upon their own thinking. When students write journals, they can record such things as ideas and feelings, special words and expressions they have heard, interesting things that have happened to them or information about interesting people. Journal writing offers students opportunities to write without fear often associated with marking. Every journal entry is

individualized. Hence, the use of journal is also one of the aspects of assessing without test (K.V.V.L Narasimha Rao, 2013:102).

Conclusion

This article dealt with conventional versus modern trends of testing. First, the concepts of conventional and modern were defined, and then their different types were discussed. Finally, the concept of usability/ utility has been touched upon. These concepts are indispensable parts of test construction. It was pointed out that there is no way to keep apart anyone of them. A balanced approach between conventional and modern assessment is always critical. While deciding what assessment strategy to use, teachers/ administrators need to consider the issues such as content, context, and audience.

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Aspect Marker in Sihai (Tangkhal)

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Abstract

The main objective of this paper is to highlight the aspect marker in Sihai Language. Sihai Language belongs to the Naga groups of the Tibeto-Burman language Family (Grierson, 1904 vol. iii, part iii). It is spoken in the northern side of Ukhrul District, 32 km away from Ukhrul town. The number of speaker of this language is about 1200 (Census of India 2011).

The present paper discusses the following aspect markers in Sihai language: simple aspect, progressive aspect, perfective aspect and irrealis or unrealise aspect. These aspects markers are suffixes which are attached to the verb roots.

Simple aspect expresses the habitual or universal truth of an event which is indicated by the morphemes *-e* and *-i*. These two morphemes have the following allophones *-ke*, *-mi*, *-pe*, *-ye*, and *-ni*.

Progressive aspect expresses an event which is going on and is indicated by the morpheme *-lile*.

Perfective aspect expresses an event which is completed and is indicated by the morpheme *-ne*. Irrealis or unrealise aspect expresses an event which will be carried out in the near future and is indicated by the suffix *-nuroi*.

Key words: *simple, progressive, perfective, irrealis or unrealized.*

Introduction

The term 'aspect' designates the perspective taken on the internal temporal organisation of the situation, and so 'aspects' distinguish different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of the same situation (Comrie 1976:3ff, after Holt 1943:6; Bybee 2003:157). The

'situation' is meant here as a general term covering events, processes, states, etc., as expressed by the verb phrase or the construction.

Four types of aspect in Sihai Language are discussed as below.

Simple Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual meaning and universal truth. Sihai language has two simple aspect markers –e and –i. These two aspect marker have the following allophones *-ke*, *-mi*, *-pe*, *-ye*, *-yi*.

Examples:

1. *e p^hu ce φ*
I rice eat-SIM
“I eat rice.”
2. *e skul ke φ*
I school go-SIM
“I go to school.”
3. *me p^hu p^ha i*
He rice cook-SIM
“He cooks rice.”
4. *caobə ofis t^hoi φ*
Chaoba office go-SIM
“Chaoba goes to office.”
5. *e ca ma i*
I tea drink-SIM
“I drink tea.”
6. *e -nə bol kət^hək ke*

I NOM ball kick –SIM

“I kick the ball.”

Progressive Aspect

It is used for expressing continuation of an action and is indicated by the aspect marker –*lile*.

Examples:

7. *e əhu ce lile*

I now eat-PROG

“I am eating.”

8. *e oho wəttə se lile*

I my work do-PROG

“I am doing my work.”

9. *jek əhu lərikkə pa lile*

Jack now book read-PROG

“Jack is reading now.”

Perfective Aspect

It expresses the completion of an action. The aspect marker is –*ne*. This morpheme –**ne** changes to –**ane** in verb roots ending with vowels.

Examples:

10 *meri skul ke ane*

Marry school go-PERF

“Marry has started going to school.”

11 *e p^hu ce ane*

I rice eat-PERF

“I ate rice.”

12 *e oho wəttə se ane*

I my work do-PERF

“I have done my work.”

If this perfect marker goes with definite marker **-kappa**, then it indicates the certainty of completion of an action, as shown below:

Examples:

1: *me əri lo kappa ne*
He medicine take-DEF-PERF
“He has taken the medicine”.

The semantic difference between the following two sentences can be observed:

1: *meri skul ke ane*
Mary school go-PERF
“Mary has started going to school.”

1: *meri skul ke kappa ne*
Mary school go-DEF-PERF
“Mary has gone to school.”

Example 14 expresses that Mary has started going to school after her absence from school for a few days. There is no indication as to whether she went to school or not today, whereas example 15 is an indication of an event “that she has gone to school today”.

Irrealis/Unrealise Aspect

It is indicated by the marker **-nuroi**. This aspect marker indicates an action that will take place in the near future.

Example:

16 *e ce nuroi*
I eat-IRRE
“I will eat.”

17 *e oho wəttə se nuroi*

I my work do- IRRE
“I shall do my work.”

18 *tʰənəme ənrə kəpʰuŋ ke nuroi*
Tomorrow we hill climb-IRRE.
“We will climb the hill tomorrow”.

19 *əsi ənrə skul ke nuroi*
Today we school go-IRRE
“We will go to school today.”

Conclusion

The present work gives a preliminary findings on the use of aspect markers in Sihai language. The aspect markers are – *e/-i* (five allophones *-ke, -mi, -pe, -ye, -ŋi*), *-lile, -ne* and *-nuroi*. The present work will hopefully serve as a basis for further research.

Abbreviations

SIM : SIMPLE ASPECT
NOM : NOMINATIVE CASE
PROG: PROGRESSIVE ASPECT
PERF : PERFECTIVE ASPECT
DEF : DEFINITIVE MARKER
IRRE : IRREALIS ASPECT

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Aspect Marker in Sihai (Tangkhal)

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Ways of Using Refusal Utterances: A Pragmatic Study of Refusal Speech Act in Manipuri

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Abstract

Communication can sometimes lead to misunderstanding if it is not used in an appropriate situation. So, caution must be taken while using refusal utterances. Since it is a rejection to offer, invitation, request or suggestion which can hurt someone's feeling. Manipuri employs various ways of using refusals because in Manipuri's culture, great importance is paid in maintaining respect to others. Communication should be done in a non-threatening way, saving each other's face to maintain harmony among them.

The present study aims to discover the different strategies of using refusal utterances in Manipuri. First, the paper starts with a general introduction of speech act along with an explanation of refusal speech act. Then, refusal speech act is described under two headings - direct and indirect refusals. Sub-sections under these headings are organized and studied thoroughly. Indirect refusals are studied here in a wider perspective since native speaker of Manipuri uses indirect refusals more frequently than that of the direct one. In this paper, refusals are also analysed under a small section, that is, substantive and ritual refusals. Then, conclusion ends the paper summing up the whole analysis.

Keywords: speech act, refusal speech act, direct refusals, indirect refusals, ritual refusals.

Introduction

To have a complete knowledge of a particular language does not mean knowing only how to utter a number of grammatically correct sentences. One has to know its culture, appropriate context of usage and a total pragmatic competence to have a meaningful and a successful communication. It is very much important to know the various forms of speech act of that particular language.

In pragmatics, speech act occupies an important place. The major contribution to the study of speech acts was done by J.L. Austin, followed by Searle.

“To communicate we must express propositions with a particular illocutionary force, and in so doing we perform particular kinds of action, such as stating, promising, or warning, which have come to be called speech acts” (Cruse, 2004:345).

Here, in this paper, emphasis will be given to refusal speech acts in Manipuri. Refusals also occupy a major part in speech acts.

Refusal Speech Acts

It is the kind of utterance which is spoken out to perform the action of refusal. Refusals are performed frequently in our daily interaction. Proper care should be taken in using them as it is a negative response to requests, offers, suggestions, and invitations. It can lead to misunderstanding if it is used in an inappropriate situation mainly by non-native speakers since culture differs from place to place.

Presently, in this paper, various strategies of using refusal utterance will be analysed. The model employed in this paper has been referred to Ma Yingxin's paper entitled “The Study of the Chinese Speech Act” and Ghazandri, Bonyadi and Malekzadeh's paper entitling as “Investigating cross-linguistic differences in refusal speech act among native Persian and English speakers”. However, the model employed here is somewhat modified in this present paper. It is classified under two criteria - direct and indirect ways. But, more frequently, indirect ways of using refusal forms are used in Manipuri, since it is very significant for the native speakers of Manipuri, most of the time, to pay great importance to maintaining respect in every speech they utter.

This paper describes the topic concerned, that is, the various forms of refusals, the factors which concern their usage and so on.

1. Direct Refusals

Direct refusal is the type of refusal where the speaker declines the offer, request or suggestion of a person directly, without showing much concern about the feelings of the speaker. For example, ‘no’, ‘I can't’, ‘I don't want to’ in English.

In Manipuri, there are also direct forms of refusal but these are used in limited number, because, in Manipuri culture, it is considered highly offensive or impolite to refuse someone's offer or request right away. But such kind of usage still exists in certain situations.

1.1 The forms of direct refusals are –*ṅəm-moi*, *təl-li*

For example: a refusal for a suggestion to read books after dinner

- i) *əy ṅəm-moi* 'I won't be able to do it'.
 I able-neg.

- ii) *əy təl-li* 'I cannot do it'.
 I lazy-prog.

1.2 Offers or requests are also declined by adding –*niṅ* 'wish' and –*de* 'negative marker' to the verb form. For example:

- iii) *pa niṅ-de* 'I don't want to read.'
 read-wish-neg.

- iv) *ca-niṅ-de* 'I don't want to eat.'
 eat-wish-neg.

- v) *təw-niṅ-de* 'I don't want to do it.'
 do-wish-neg.

Slight difference exists between example i, ii and iii, iv, and v. Insertion of '-niṅ' in such direct forms lightens the refusal. However, it is to be noted that such kind of refusal still comes under direct way of rejecting requests or offers.

These kinds of refusals are used among those persons where there is high solidarity between them, that is, between persons of close relationship and of equal status. Younger people are not allowed to use these when expressing their refusal to the elders, but elders can use the same to express refusal to the younger ones. Sometimes, in certain cases, younger person does use such type to elders only if there is a very close association between them, for

example, a child using direct refusal variety to his father because of the close association between them.

Generally, in Meitei (Manipuri) custom, it is found out that usages of indirect forms are higher than direct usage of refusals as they won't offend their requester.

2. Indirect Refusals

Indirect refusal is the kind of refusals where the speaker declines the offer, request or invitation, indirectly. In Meitei culture, to decline an offer or invitation without hurting their feelings is regarded very essential because using the indirect type reflects the refined and cultured nature of the individual. Therefore, indirect refusals are used more frequently than direct forms.

There are many strategies of using indirect refusals which are studied below.

2.1 Wish

For example:

- i) mateṅ-di jam paṅ-niṅ-bə-ni-ne
 help-part-very assist-wish-NMZ-cop-emp.
 'I wish to help you a lot.'

In the above example, some word like 'ədubu' 'but' can also be further added plus giving the reason for the rejection. For example:

- ii) mateṅ-di jam paṅ-niṅ-bə-ni ədubu əy jam t^heṅ-ṅe
 help-part. very assist-wish-NMZ-cop. but I very late-perf.
 'I wish to help you a lot but I am very late.'

This can be used among those of same status, but if it is often used in relation to an elder or a person of higher status or stranger, '-jə' a polite marker is inserted between 'paṅ' and 'niṅ'. For example:

- iii) maten-di jam pan-jə-niŋ-bə-ni adubu əy jam t^hen-ŋe
 help-part. very assist-pol.-wish-NMZ-cop. but I very late-perf.
 ‘I wish to help you a lot but I am very late.’ (Polite form).

2.2 Excuse, Reason, and Explanation

By giving excuses, reasons or explanations, one can refuse an offer of invitation. For example:

- i) əy-həjeŋ-se ərubə t^həbək əmə ləy-re
 I tomorrow-det important work one have-perf.
 ‘I have got an important work tomorrow.’

If it is used to in relation to elders, address terms like ‘khura’, ‘tadə’, ‘mamə’, etc. are added to it, which itself contains a way of expressing politeness.

For example:

- ii) əy-həjeŋ-se ərubə t^həbək əmə ləy-re, tadə.
 I tomorrow-det important work one have-perf. brother
 ‘I have got an important work tomorrow, brother.’

2.3 Statement of Principle

In this condition, the speaker manifests his or her rule or principle to the requester or to the one who is making the suggestion, showing that he or she is not that type to accept such offer or suggestion.

For example:

- i) əy-di mi-ŋon-də hai-jə-də-bə mi-ni
 I-part. Person-towards-loc. Say-refl-neg.-NMZ person-cop.
 ‘I am not the type of person to ask favour to anyone.’

2.4 Promise of Future Acceptance

Here, the speaker turns down an offer by giving a statement of acceptance of doing the present request in the future whether he will do it or not. But as for the present request, it is considered as declining.

For example:

- i) məthəŋ-də-di soi-də-nə təw-rə-ge
next-loc.-part. mistake-neg.-adv. do-dur-inten.
'I will surely do it next time.'

2.5. Conditional 'yes'

In this refusal, the speaker will first show an interest of accepting but gives a condition where it fairly shows that it is a rejection.

For example:

- i) nəŋ-gi-do ja-bə-di ja-bə ədudə əy-se p^hərək ta-re
you-gen-elip. agree-NMZ-det agree-NMZ but I-det problem fall-perf.
'I do agree with your statement but I have got a problem.'

In the above example, the marker – 'do' shows that a previous known statement is embedded in it which makes –'do' an ellipsis marker.

2.6 Statement of Alternative

In this situation, a request or suggestion is being made to a person, where the person replies to the requester by giving him an alternative way, that is, extending the offer or request to a third party, thus declining the suggestion or offer.

For example:

- i) tombə-də oi-nə hai-bi-u
Tomba-loc. be-alt-say-pol.-comd.
'Please say it to Tomba.'

2.7 Formal Refusal Form

Generally, to a higher status person, elders, strangers or acquaintance ‘warəwbibə jade’ ‘please don’t mind’, and ‘ɲakpigəni’ ‘pardon me’ are used to reject. Such forms are also considered very formal. It can be used in a formal occasion like public meeting, TV show, radio program, etc.

For example:

- i) məjam ɲak-pi-gəni, mədu-gi wap^həm-du konə k^hən-nə-bə-nə cum-gəni k^hən-jə-i
everybody support-pol-un.asp that-gen statement-det later think-rec-NMZ-adv
true-un.asp think-refl.-smp.
‘I beg your pardon, but it will be of much better if it is discussed later on.’
- ii) warəw-bi-bə ja-de məjam, t^həwrəm-si ɲəhak lep-cə-ru-re
disappoint-pol.-NMZ agree-neg everybody program-det awhile stop-pol-
comd-perf.
‘Please don’t mind as our program had stopped for a while.’

2.8 Lack of Enthusiasm

In direct refusal forms like ‘təwniŋde’, and ‘caniŋde’, the morpheme -da is added to it making them indirect forms. Because adding the marker ‘-da’ in it raises a question of confusion, whether to do it or not, making the person to hesitate in accepting the request. So, it is a hesitation marker. Therefore, it is considered as one of the indirect refusal forms.

For example:

- i) təw-niŋ-de-da
do-wish-neg-hes.mk
‘I don’t feel like doing it’.
- ii) ca-niŋ-de-da
eat-wish-neg-hes.mk
‘I don’t feel like eating it.’

Again in forms like ‘təwniŋde’, and ‘caniŋde’ the morpheme ‘kəja’ can be added to it turning them into indirect refusal forms. ‘Kəja’ signifies the meaning of the degree of emphasis, where the degree is of lesser quantity.

For example:

- i) kəja ca-niŋ-de ‘I don’t feel like eating.’

In this example, the speaker shows his or her lack of enthusiasm in accepting an offer or request, thus turning it down.

2.9 Criticize the Requester

Here, in such refusals, the request or suggestion of a person is being criticized. Some of the examples are provided below:

- a) mədu natəi cadəbə wanida
- b) nappu cadəbə wanida
- c) nap cadəbə wanida
- d) nappu tade
- e) məwoŋ cade
- f) jugot wajonŋ cade

The meanings of the above examples mean the same, that is, ‘it is not a suitable statement.’ These different forms are used according to different factors like age, person, and community.

2.10 Acceptance Functioning as a Refusal

Here the speaker refuses by giving an unspecific or indefinite reply.

For example:

- i) əy k^həŋ-de-ne əy-bu kərəmkan-də ŋəmdoi-no
I know-neg-emp I-acc when-loc able-intr
I don’t know when I will be able to do that.’

2.11 Avoidance

a) **Postponement:** Here, an offer or suggestion is declined by postponing it by the speaker.

For example: k^həl-lək-k^hi-ge ‘I will think on it.’
think-start-def.-inten.

b) **Non-verbal:** Refusals are also done by gesture like nodding head, eye gesture or simply by maintaining silence.

c) **Repetition of past request:** The word ‘kəi haibə’ (what) is added before the same request in this kind of refusal. Here, the speaker avoids the request or offer pretending not to hear it and then, repeats the same request. It can be also a kind of mockery resulting in the decline of the offer or request.

For example:

- A: həjeŋ t^həbək əmtə təw-min-na-si ‘let us do a work together.’
Tomorrow work once do-together-rec.-let
- B: ha! kəy hai-bə, t^həbək əmtə təw-min-nə-se-ba
what what say-NMZ work once do-together-rec.let-NMZ
‘what did you say, do a work together, huh?’

d) **Topic Switch:** Normally, ‘ŋaikho’ or ‘ədo’ are put in the beginning of the response where the responder usually avoids an offer or request by just switching off the topic. For example:

1. ŋaikho, nəhan-gi-do kəmdəw-k^hra-ge
wait day before yesterday-gen-det how-intr-inten.
‘Wait, how did it go about that previous thing?’ OR
2. ədo, nəhan-gi-do kəmdəw-k^hra-ge
that day before yesterday-gen-det how-intr-inten.
‘How did it go about that previous thing?’

‘ɲaikho’ and ‘ədo’ are the forms which are used to switch a topic, so they are called as a ‘topic shifter.’

e) **Jokes:** Telling a joke by the responder when a request is made to a person is also considered as one of the indirect refusals.

For example:

- (i) hère hère nəŋ wari-si-di ‘what a statement’
interj-interj you story-det-part.
- (ii) ont^hok- ont^hok-pə wa-ta-ni ‘what a statement’
interj-interj-NMZ statement-mode-cop.

3. Substantive and Ritual Refusal

Refusals can be classified under two headings - substantive refusal and ritual refusal. When a speaker refuses an offer or invitation, if he or she means it ‘no’ from inside and outside, then these are known substantive refusals. Different types of direct and indirect refusals are under substantive refusals.

In ritual refusal, the speaker refuses in its surface form but internally wants to accept it. In Manipuri culture, to accept an offer or invitation right away is considered highly unrefined. So, at first the invitee usually declines the invitation or offer but comes to accept it at the end. Such kind of refusal is known as ritual refusal. The forms are - jare, ja-jə-re, ja-jə-re-da, ja-rə-ni-da, meaning ‘it is okay’. It carries a negative meaning of declining in its surface form but internally it carries a meaning of an acceptance. The one who invites normally knows that it is not a refusal but a mark of deference of acceptance, so he or she insists on them resulting in acceptance later on.

For example:

A: ja-rə-ni, pi-rək-lə-nu ‘it is okay, please don’t give anymore.’

Agree-cop give-start-proh.

B: pi-rək-ke pi-rək-ke, puk^ho ‘I’ll give some, just take it.’
give-start-smp give-start-smp take-comd.

Sometimes, in certain situations, these forms can also be under substantive refusal. It can be used to refuse indirectly, both internally and externally.

Conclusion

From the above study, it is found that refusals can be classified under two headings - direct refusal and indirect refusal. The study has confirmed that using direct refusals in Manipuri is considered highly offensive. So, various strategies of using indirect refusals like giving excuses, avoiding, formal forms, statement of principle, etc., are used more frequently by the native speaker. Factors like age, status, and degree of solidarity are considered as important criteria when studying refusal speech.

Again, the paper shows that refusals can be discussed under substantive and ritual refusals. All the varieties of direct and indirect refusals come under substantive refusal. The base form ‘jare’ and its variants come under ritual refusal, which is a type of refusal where there is acceptance inside its speech and refusal in its surface form.

The Meitei community pays great regard to certain social and moral codes. These general norms are laid great importance as the community believes these codes to be inevitable in the progress and social harmony of the whole community. These moral codes shape the personality development of individuals maintaining peace and tranquillity.

Language being the primary medium for social discourses has greatly been influenced by these values. For instance, the honour and respect paid to elders are chiefly manifested through hand-picked, exquisite words. No doubt the Meitei community has been able to conserve a rich heritage of culture and tradition and the chief medium being proper training and love of using refined, courteous language.

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Ways of Using Refusal Utterances: A Pragmatic Study of Refusal Speech Act in Manipuri

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Aravind Adiga as a Novelist of the New Generation

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Abstract

Aravind Adiga's *The White Tiger* and *Last Man in Tower* came out when old set up of society was losing ground. Rise of materialism, advancement of technology, modernization, social mobility, sense of cut throat competition, disloyalty, change in the norms of social institutions, alienation, extent of urbanization, globalization consumerism, and so on are some of the characteristics which constitute the mode of a new generation, causing changes in the psyche of the man of the new era. These factors are solely responsible for social, cultural and economic changes. Balram Halwai alias Munna, the police officer and Mr Ashok (*The White Tiger*) and Dharman Shah and Masterji's co-resident (*Last Man in Tower*) are the major characters through which the wave of the new generation can be seen. This paper attempts to make a study of Aravind Adiga's novels and present how they project a clear picture of contemporary society when traditional set up of society losing its ground very speedily all moral and social values are on the wane.

Keywords: new generation, rise of materialism, modernization, urbanization, traditional society, social values

Arrival of a New Generation

Just as the Restoration period begins with Samuel Butler's *Hudibras*, the Romantic period starts with the publication of Wordsworth's *Lyrical Ballads*, the end of the Second World War marks the beginning of Post Modernism, just as the beginning of the twenty-first century marks the arrival of the new generation. At this juncture, India is passing through a crucial period as never before.

The beginning of the new generation marks the revolt against the traditionally set up of society. Rise of materialism, prevalent corruption, decline of caste system, advancement of technology, Modernization, social mobility, sense of cut-throat competition, disloyalty, change in the norms of social institutions, alienation, extension of urbanization, globalization consumerism, and so on are some of the characteristics which constitute the mode of the new generation, causing the change in the psyche of the man of the new generation. This awakening of the masses projects the mood of a changing society and indicates revolt against the rich.

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Balram Halwai, Ashok and his wife (*The White Tiger*), Dharman Shah, (*Last Man in Tower*) and others are the best representatives of this trend. If these characters are studied in the light of the twenty - first century and as the product of new generation, they seem to be the significant part of this contemporary changing world.

The findings of this research paper will delineate how the new generation is no longer in the mood to bear this load of traditionalism. Due to this, India is passing through a crucial mode never before seen or heard, one of tremendous change. Due to this, everything is in a state of chaos. They do not wish to follow the trodden path, but neither do they know very well how to make their own path.

Lack of Belief in Human Values

Adiga's leading characters like Balram Halwai and Ashok Sharma in *The White Tiger* (2008) and Dharman Shah and Ajwani in *Last Man in Tower* (2011) don't believe in the human values, but are totally mercenary minded. They are always lying in wait to grind their own axes. Public and private offices are projected as the places where common man is exploited physically, mentally, economically, and psychologically. Corruption is a canker which originates, exists and flourishes without check in every nook and corner of our society.

Against Traditionalism

Our democratic government does not pay much attention to the welfare of the masses. But the increased rate of literacy has changed the outlook of the masses. So the men of this century don't want to be the followers of their forefathers who used to play into the hands of the rich, but their offspring strongly resist this ancient cultural trait. This trend of contemporary society indicates that they are no longer in the mood to bear the burden of traditionalism. They have come to know that they can play major roles in the formation of this new world. So they don't want to be exploited at all, but are desirous of breaking out of these old shackles which have been put on them since ages.

Materialism and Urbanization

Rise of materialism and extension of urbanization are responsible for this mode of society. Now the working class, which makes up the major part of the population, has awakened from its lethargy. This awakening of the masses projects the mood of the changing society and indicates revolt against the rich. Balram Halwai, Dharman Shah, and others are the best examples of this trend. If these characters are studied in the light of the twenty-first century and as the products of the new generation, they seem to be the significant part of this contemporary changing world. They don't pay much attention to social and moral values as their forefathers used to do. This trend of contemporary society will lead to the transformation of our traditional society and on to the path of anarchical growth. These aforesaid trends are followed everywhere

in the era of the twenty-first century. Thus these trends constitute the mood of the contemporary world and suggest to us that something serious and decisive is lurking in the offing.

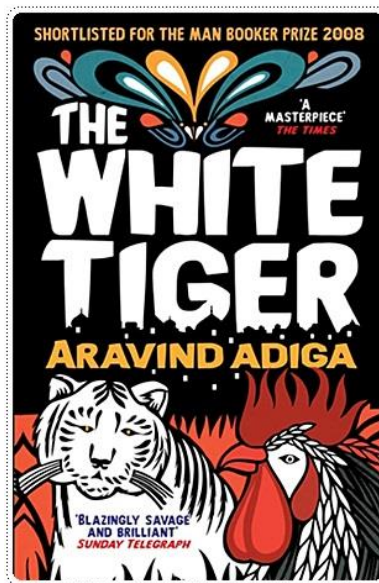
Modern Writers Holding a Mirror to Society

It is said that literature holds a mirror to society. What is happening in society is reflected in the works of art and literature. It is studied from different points of view, but the main purpose of it is to project a crystal clear picture of the concerned period. But the literature of twenty - first century is highly different from the previous periods.

There are so many novelists who write in the contemporary world such as Aravind Adiga, Chetan Bhagat, Amit Kumar, Anita Nair, Kiran Desai, Shiv Kumar, Manju Kapur, Jhumpa Lahiri, Arundhati Roy, and others, who raise the issues of present day society. When these novelists are studied in the light of twenty-first century, they seem more relevant and they do help us understand contemporary society in a better way.

But when Adiga is studied specially as a novelist of the twenty first century, his novels appear to be more appealing and charming for contemporary youth. The youth of the present century more or less have declared a revolt against the social and moral values of traditionally set up society. At present, some old customs, social and moral values are losing their ground very quickly, while the new ones are not coming into being as rapidly. The general decline of faith in traditional values and a new melancholy constitute the mood of the twenty-first century. This strange development causes confusion and projects the lopsided picture of contemporary world.

The White Tiger



Aravind Adiga's first novel *The White Tiger* came out in 2008. Balram Halwai alias Munna is the protagonist of this novel. He comes from a humble background; his father is a

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rickshaw puller and his mother is a bed-ridden sick woman who dies due to the curse of poverty. After this, the protagonist learns driving in Dhanbad. Now he is hired by a Delhi based rich businessman Ashok, who is a politician as well, as chauffeur. As he drives his master and wife to the shopping mall, he becomes aware of the sources of immense wealth and opportunity all around him. This awareness compels him to think over the status of the master and the servant. After this, he becomes worldly and ambitious. This ambition drives him to become a part of this glamorous new India. Ashok's increasing involvement in political corruption and divorce from his wife, provides Balram a chance to fulfil his dream. One day, when Ashok is having seven hundred thousand rupees in cash as money to be given as bribe to a politician in New Delhi, Balram murders him and flees to Bangalore. After this, he uses the loot to bribe a police commissioner and sets up his taxi company. He changes his name to Ashok Sharma and becomes a wealthy entrepreneur.

Indian Village in the Novel

Educational institutions are deemed to be the temples of teaching and learning where the lessons of moral education, and the rule of honesty are taught. But the novelist depicts a different picture of Indian villages where the money of the world's largest midday meal scheme is stolen and government supplied free uniforms to the poor student are sold in the neighbouring villages. These social crimes are committed by the teachers who are deemed to be the role models in the society. The novelist, by highlighting such issues, raises the burning issues of the contemporary India. As the protagonist remarks:

“If the Indian village is a paradise, then the school is a paradise within a paradise. There was supposed to be free food at my school - a government programme gave every boy three *rotis* yellow *daal*, and pickles at lunchtime. But we never ever saw *rotis*, or yellow *daal*, or pickles, and everyone knew why: the schoolteacher had stolen our lunch money. The teacher had a legitimate excuse to steal the money - he said he hadn't been paid his salary in six months” (TWT 33).

Bribe and Corruption Everywhere – Medical Care

As cancer is a fatal disease to a man, likewise corruption works as canker to society. Presently, India is advancing in the medical facilities, but the conditions of the government hospitals in the many areas are still pathetic. Government hospitals are supposed to be giving better treatment to the citizens, but ironically these medical facilities are not utilized for the needy, so the real picture of Indian towns and villages is quite different. The government doctors take their postings in the rural areas so that, by working in the private clinics, they can supplement their monthly income. For this manipulation they have to bribe also. They maintain fake records of the rural patients and medicines in the government hospitals.

When Munna's father is brought to the government hospital during duty hours, no doctor is reported to be there, but they have to bribe the ward boy to know when the doctor will be available. At last, Munna's father dies in want of treatment in the campus of the government hospital. By doing so, the novelist projects the deep-rooted corruption of the government hospitals where the poor are cheated.

The Police Department

Adiga is a highly conscious novelist whose readership is very wide, and he does not spare other departments. Secondly, he takes up the police department where corruption originates, exists and flourishes in different forms. They don't do their duty seriously. On the one hand, if somebody goes to the police, they don't listen to them. If they pay attention to them, they refuse to lodge any of their FIRs against the rich. If in case, by hook or crook, complaint is registered, they are tortured and terrified to withdraw their cases against the oppressor.

When a boy is killed by Munna's employee then the protagonist, by bribing the commissioner, manipulates the case very smartly. Now the police commissioner threatens the brother of the dead boy and tries to pressurise him by saying that at the time of the accident your brother was at fault: "see, at the time of the accident, your brother's bicycle had no working lights. That is illegal, you know". (TWT 309) Now the brother of the dead boy finds himself in a fix, in which he does not know what he should do or not do. At last he becomes very hopeless and expresses his mental agony: "My brother is dead. This man is a killer. I don't understand what's going on here". (TWT 309) But the protagonist remains successful in the game of manipulation with police. He, by manipulating the case of the murder of his master, projects the deep-rooted corruption of the police department and conveys a message that these kinds of cases can be dealt in this way and suggests to us its modus operandi.

As the novelist remarks: "You can give the police all the brown envelopes and red bags you want, and they might still screw you". (TWT 320) This protagonist's remark depicts that corruption is rampant everywhere in our society.

Corruption Exists Everywhere

Corruption exists at every quarter of our society. It undermines the importance of all social and moral values and causes social pollution. The police department has been given special focus as the department where the employees are always lying in wait for a bribe: "The assistant commissioner who sat in the station was a man whom I had lubricated often. He had fixed a rival for me once. He was the worst kind of man, who had nothing in his mind but taking money from everyone who came to his office. Scum". (TWT 308) By doing so, the novelist highlights the crystal clear picture of contemporary world where old set up of society is losing its ground and a new order is coming into being where everything is in a state of chaos. That is clearly visible in the given paragraph.

Corruption in Politics

Adiga is a keen observer who does not spare even the politician. He thinks that they are like leeches who suck the blood of a nation. They accumulate money by illegal ways and deposit it in foreign banks. They are involved in different criminal activities, but our judicial system is too weak to punish them. Money is a tool by which and for which corruption originates and flourishes. The votes of the poor are bought by the rich during election times. Cash for vote and proxy voting are generally afoot during these days. Fake birth certificates are supplied to this illegal task beneficial to the politician. Metro cities are the centres where corruption flourishes freely. Mr Ashok has to bribe a politician to achieve his political goal in Delhi. Poverty and ambition to get power play an important role in shaping the mind of the man of the twenty - first century who always hankers after money. If the rich follow uses the illegal and unlawful methods to meet his ends, so the poor cannot lag behind. The rich, in popular culture, are followed by the poor. So the poor, generally, follow the rich in their daily lives.

Munna is the embodiment of the masses, who sees the height of corruption and follows the footprints of his master. This psyche invites scams such as Harshad Mehta Share scam, the telecommunication scam, the Bofors Scam, Adarsh Building Scam, the 2G Spectrum scam, the Fodder Scam, The Taj Corridor scam, Chit-fund scam, Recruitment scams in different states, Saradha scam, Cash for Vote Scandal, the Commonwealth Game scam, the Coal-mines distribution scam, the National Herald scam, the Augusta Westland VVIP Helicopter Scam, and many more of the same kind.

Criminalization of Public Life

Criminalisation, horse trading, booth rigging, cash for vote and such have been the burning issues in politics. These play an important role in shaping the mode of present day politics. The latest court decision places the responsibility of giving the people a government free from criminality on the PM (Prime Minister) and CMs (Chief Ministers) and it is their moral responsibility also. Here Adiga raises the similar issue of contemporary politics. Such issues are the blots on the face of our democracy.

The leader of the great socialist party has been projected as the boss of the depressed class. There are so many cases of rape, murder, gun-smuggling and so on are pending against him, and still he is regarded a great politician.

Side by side, the novelist raises the issue of black money that is kept in the foreign banks. Black money has been a burning issue of some political parties and of Yoga Guru Baba Ramdev. Recently the Centre has constituted SIT to deal with this complicated issue. As the novelist writes:

“You see, a total of ninety-three criminal cases - for murder, rape, grand larceny, gun-smuggling, pimping, and many other such minor offences - are pending against the Great

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Socialist and his ministers at the present movement. Not easy to get convictions when the judges are judging in Darkness, yet three convictions have been delivered, and three of the ministers are currently in jail, but continue to be ministers. The Great Socialist himself is said to have embezzled one billion rupees from the Darkness, and transferred that money into a bank in a small, beautiful country in Europe full of white people and black money”. (TWT 97-98)

Dominance of Materialistic Approach

Rise of the Materialistic approach plays an important role in shaping the psyche of the man of the new generation. He always hankers after money. This approach makes him so corrupted and selfish that he forgets his loyalty even to his master. He remains so busy that he does not have much time to think about the members of his family. All this happens with him due to the influence of the materialistic outlook. Here the novelist expresses his grave concern over this burning issue.

As the novelist remarks: “It has been a long time since you came to visit us - and an even longer time, a total of eleven months and two days, since you last sent us any money. The city has corrupted your soul and made you selfish, vain- glorious, and evil”. (TWT 262)

Munna – Embodiment of New Generation

Munna is an embodiment of new generation. Social and moral values are no more important to him. He believes that money is all while social and moral values are nothing. He throughout the journey of novel does not show any sign of morality and sincerity. He himself admits that the new generation is completely devoid of morality. As the novelist remarks: “The new generation, I tell you, is growing up with no morals at all”. (TWT 316) So this immorality and psyche of contemporary society produce a white tiger that has no friend and no feeling toward anybody. As the novelist declares: “A White Tiger keeps no friends. It’s too dangerous”. (TWT302)

Munna heralds war and conflict between the rich and the poor. Here the novelist propels the theory of Dialectic Materialism. Here Philosophical idealism and theological conflict are opposed by the theory of dialectical materialism. As the protagonist reflects during his course of action, Munna is the product of the new generation. So Munna does not show any kind of respect for non-material things. Social, religious and moral values are the things of the past for him. Therefore, he satirizes the Hindu religious rituals and practices from the very the beginning:

“Now, I no longer watch Hindi films - on principle - but back in the days when I used to, just before the movie got started, either the number 786 would flash against the black screen - the Muslims think this is a magic number that represents their god – or else you would see the picture of a woman in a white sari with gold sovereigns dripping down to her feet, which is the goddess Lakshmi, of the Hindus. It is an ancient and venerated

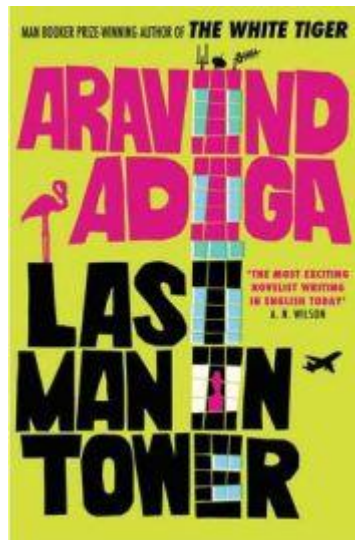
custom of people in my country to start a story by praying to a Higher Power. I guess, Your Excellency, that I too should start off by kissing some god's arse. Which god's arse, though? There are so many choices. See, the Muslims have one god. The Christians have three gods. And we Hindus have 36,000,000 gods, making a grand total of 36,000,004 divine arses for me to choose from". (TWT 8)

Changes in the Norms

As society is changing very fast, it causes changes in the norms of social institutions also. The poor are exploited by the poor. The common man has been the follower of his masters since ages past and presently he is still following them. In this pursuance they follow the path of artificial life, but lag behind on the path of real life.

Here Munna is the follower of his master, Ashok. He wants to break this enclosure of superstructure that is imposed by the rich on the masses and in the formation of this superstructure; these things play a vital role. So he wants to grab more and more money so that he would be able to live a royal life like his master. All changes take place in him only on this basis. The protagonist admits: "All these changes happened in me because they happened first in Mr Ashok. He returned from America an innocent man, but life in Delhi corrupted him - and once the master of the Honda City becomes corrupted, how can the driver stay innocent?" (TWT 197)

Last Man in Tower



Adiga's second novel *Last Man in Tower* was published in 2011. It revolves around two characters named Yogesh Murthy alias Masterji and Dharman Shah. Masterji is a retired school teacher and a respected man in the building. He was one of the first Hindus who was allowed into Vishram Co-operative Housing society. He is generous with books, passionate about

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education and a role model to his society. His wife has died and his single son does not live with him anymore with him.

Dharman Shah – A Real Estate Builder

Dharman Shah, by profession, is a builder. The Vishram Co-operative Housing Society is purchased by Dharman Shah, who wants to transform it into a luxury apartment Complex. He convinces all residents of the Vishram Society to vacate their apartments, but Masterji does not fall for this line. But Masterji is a man of moral values and of his own principles. When he does not vacate his flat, he is harassed by his co-residents and the men of the builder. Shah is a dangerous man. As the demolition deadline looms, Masterji's neighbours and friends become his enemies. During the night, he is threatened by them to vacate the apartment. When he does not vacate the apartment, he is murdered brutally.

Real Estate and Human Psyche

Now-a-days, property is on the boom everywhere. Through this commercial outlook, the novelist wants to highlight how the business of real estate affects the psyche of the modern man. The novel highlights the clash between the ideologies of the old generation and of the new generation. On the one hand, Yogesh Murthy is the embodiment of the older generation who believes in the traditional set up of society. On the other hand, Mr Dharman Shah, Masterji's son and his neighbours are the men of the new generation who are opportunist, selfish and mercenary minded. Through these characters, the writer depicts how the cultural values are being transformed.

Depicting the Degradation of Contemporary Society

The novelist projects the degradation of contemporary society. Masterji's son does not live with his old and widower father. When master ji goes to his son for help, he does not help to his father at all, nor does he give him any kind of assurance for the future. With the help of this, the novelist highlights how the norms of social institutions are being changed. Here the novelist points towards the newly emerged norm of marriage – live-in-relationship. It is the product of the last century, but received popularity in the age of the new generation when the old set up of traditional life is losing ground very fast. Here the novelist condemns this change and expresses his grave concern over its emergence. As the novelist remarks: "Among young people today, it is a common thing for boy and girl to live without marriage... there is no sense of shame in the modern way of life". (LMT 22)

Munna, Balram, et al.

The overall outlook of Munna is materialistic. He counts everything on material grounds. He analyses every situation on the causality of materialistic approach. He, like the rich, thinks that all the social and political system of the country can be controlled by money. The politics,

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the media and the police agencies are always in the pockets of the rich. If the rich feel any kind of problem in maintaining this superstructure which always is determined by the material base, they may take help from the underworld. In this way, a nexus between the property dealers and goons is exposed.

Balram is completely devoid of moral and social values. He follows the path of crime that is shaped by the external world around him. The protagonist is fully aware that the poor are always oppressed by the rich. As he laments his agony: “How the rich always get the best things in their lives, and all that we get is their leftovers”. (TWT 233) This statement indicates that the poor are exploited by the rich and are not given equal importance even in the twenty-first century. As the novelist writes: “The country is full of people like him, I’ll give you that. And we entrust our glorious parliamentary democracy’...to’ characters like these. That’s the whole tragedy of this country”. (TWT 10) The latter get the best things of life. So the nation lags behind in every field of growth and this lopsided growth causes the pitiable plight of the poor. This lopsided picture brings out a new picture of present India where people are bereft of basic amenities. Due to this, the Indian road to progress is blocked by the citizens of this great democratic country: “And our nation, though it has no drinking water, electricity, sewage system, public transportation, sense of hygiene, discipline, courtesy, or punctuality”. (TWT 4)

Hurdles to Overcome

By highlighting these social and economic problems, the novelist points toward the serious issues of present day India which put hurdles on the way of its progress. In this way by highlighting these problems, the novelist conveys a message that it is high time we tackle these issues in a serious manner, or else they would take the shape of monsters:

“There are big issues to tackle: put the economy back on the growth path, ensure that there is enough food, clothing, drinking water, shelter, healthcare and education facilities for the have - nots, take steps to secure the nation against external and internal threat and keep our citizens safe, be generous and kind to the weak and needy and tough and unsparing to the wicked and the crooked”. (Chengappa)

Waiting for the Dawn of Freedom – Coming from Somewhere Else

But side by side, the novelist pays tribute to the great personalities who contributed a lot for the poor, such as Alexander the great, Abraham Lincoln of America, Mao of China and others. Here Adiga indicates that the people of India are waiting for the dawn of their freedom from all of their exploitation. Here the novelist indicates world-wide revolution. As the novelist remarks: “People in this country are still waiting for the war of their freedom to come from somewhere else - from the jungles, from the mountains, from China, from Pakistan”. (TWT 304)

Balram is the embodiment of the poor as well as of the working class which has awakened and wants radical changes in the existing social set up of contemporary society. These

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changes are taking place in Southern Asia, Especially: “It is apparent that India is impatient for change ... not at an evolutionary pace, but a revolutionary one. There is now zero tolerance for corruption, which is most evident in middle-class India. It is as if we have collectively decided that enough is enough. The effete and inefficient are out” (Chengappa).

The Century of Technology and Social Change

The twenty - first century is the century of technology. It has proved a boon to humanity. Due to this, the world has shrunk. But side by side, the novelist makes us aware of its side effects and seems to convey a message, that even when the growth of science seems very charming and appealing, in fact it is not so. This advanced technology invites many fatal diseases such as cancer, impotency, mental aberrations and such: “Then white people use mobile phones too much, and that is destroying their brains. It’s a known fact. Mobile phones cause cancer in the brain and shrink your masculinity; the Japanese invented them to diminish the white man’s brain and balls at the same time”. (TWT 305)

Seeking to Learn Skills

The new generation does not want to follow the trodden path of the previous generations, but it knows how to make its own path. The novelist highlights how the psyche of this generation has undergone radical changes. Here the novelist wants to convey a message to the rich that it is high time to change their outlook towards the masses, because this century is the second renaissance of the new generation without which they would be wiped out. Now the poor have awakened: “you stop being a slave. To hell with the Naxals and their guns shipped from China. If you taught every poor boy how to paint, that would be the end of the rich in India”. (TWT 275)

Life and Culture in Metropolitan Cities

Culture in metropolitan cities is changing very fast. Traditionalism is losing its ground. This outlook of the new generation causes the change in the norms of our social institutions. Religion and caste system are no longer rigid as in the earlier times. With the help of this mode of society, the novelist highlights how quickly the culture of the metropolitan cities is changing and this mode of the new generation points toward a particular aspect of society. As the novelist remarks: “In the old days, you had caste, and you had religion: they taught you how to eat, marry, live, and die. But in Bombay caste and religion had faded away, and what had replaced them”. (LMT 217)

Big Bellies and Small Bellies in Place of Traditional Varnashrama Dharma

Departure of the British in 1947 marks the beginning of the new age for India, but freedom for the masses is still a far-fetched dream. They are still in the clutches of the rich and the politician because they dominate over them in many ways. The avaricious animals called

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men are looting the country. Due to this, our contemporary country has been divided into two classes - Big Bellies and Small Bellies. The rich have converted our country into one of jungle law. As the novelist remarks: “the day the British left - the cage had been let open; and the animals had attacked and ripped each other apart and jungle law replaced zoo law. Those that were the most ferocious, the hungriest, had eaten everyone else up, and grown big bellies...these days, there are just two castes: Men with Big Bellies and Men with Small Bellies”. (TWT 64)

Masterji’s Principle

In his second novel Adiga projects the degradation of contemporary society and expresses his serious concern. In the novel, Masterji is the last man in the tower who refuses to vacate the apartment and he sacrifices his life for his age-old principle. His murder marks the end of traditional view toward human values and the beginning of the new generation that is totally against the traditional set up of society.

Changes in Younger Generation

The novelist is fully aware that the present society is changing rapidly. The wave of modernism is affecting every sphere of life. But the changes are tangible on our social institutions. The norms of our century old institution such as marriage, family, education, economy and so on are being replaced. And the changes in the norms of marriage are very significant. So the new generation does not pay much respect to the earlier ones. This mode of the new generation indicates a particular aspect of society and hints at how quickly society is advancing. As the novelist writes: “Among young people today, it is a common thing for boy and girl to live without marriage, ... there is no sense of shame in the modern way of life,... the modern, shame-free way of living counted for nothing”. (LMT 22)

To Conclude

A changing picture of rural and urban India is projected. It can be said that the prevalent corruption, decline of caste system, rise of materialism, advancement of technology, modernization, social mobility, law and legislator, cinema media, sense of cut throat competition, disloyalty, change in the norms of social institutions, alienation, extent of urbanization, globalization, consumerism and such are the same characteristics which constitute the mode of the new generation and cause the change in the psyche of the man of the new generation. Here the novelist wants to convey a message that it is the poison of casteism, communalism, regionalism, discrimination on social, economic basis etc. which are the obstacles in the way of progress. This mode of the new generation leads us to disharmonious perfection which prevents one from general perfection. Our stock notions and habits, “the want of sensitiveness of intellectual conscience, the disbelief in right reason, the dislike of authority” (Arnold x) take to the path of anarchy. These are not good signs for the coming generations of our country.

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Echoes of John the Baptist in William Shakespeare's *Hamlet*

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Abstract

This paper discusses the possible semblance of Hamlet's story with the last days of John the Baptist as narrated in the New Testament books. Allusions to the life and death of the preacher are made throughout *Hamlet*. The protagonist takes upon himself the role of John the Baptist when he makes some criticism and condemnation of Gertrude. Other contexts are analyzed in light of the allusions.

Key words: Hamlet, John the Baptist, Gertrude, Ophelia

Hamlet's Appeal to Gertrude and John the Baptist's Message of Repentance

"*Confess yourself to heaven; / Repent what's past, avoid what is to come*". (III.iv.140-1, my emphasis) With these words Hamlet urges Gertrude to abandon her sexual relationship with Claudius, possibly alluding to John the Baptist's message:

"*Repent: for the kingdom of heaven is at hand . . . Then went out to him Jerusalem and all Judea, and all the region round about Jordan, And they were baptized of him in Jordan, confessing their sins. Now when he saw many of the Pharisees, and of the Sadducees come to his baptism, he said unto them, O*

generation of vipers, *who hath forewarned you to flee from the anger to come?*”
(Matthew 3:2, 5-7, my emphasis) ¹

Gertrude’s Response

Gertrude’s response warrants attention: “O Hamlet, / thou has *cleft my heart in twain!*”
(III.iv.147, my emphasis)

These words evoke the baptism of Jesus when “John saw the heavens *cloven in twain*”.
(Mark 1: 10, my emphasis) When John warns the crowd of the coming judgment, “the people asked him, saying, *What shall we do then?* . . . Then came there Publicans also to be baptized, and said unto him, Master, *what shall we do?* . . . The soldiers likewise demanded of him, saying, *And what shall we do?* (Luke 3: 10-14, my emphasis)

Similarly, Gertrude asks Hamlet: “What shall I do?” (III.iv.164)

Claudius and King Herod

John is later put into prison by King Herod, whose name is mentioned in Act III. scene ii. 14: “It out-Herods Herod.” Also of note is a name reminding the reader of the itinerant preacher, namely Baptista (III.ii.228) -- a character in a play called *The Mousetrap* within *Hamlet*. Herod had John arrested “for Herodias’ sake, his brother Philip’s wife. For John said unto him, It is not lawful for thee to have her” (Matthew 13: 3-4).

This bears a strong likeness to Hamlet’s attitude toward his mother’s marriage to Claudius, his father’s brother. Eventually Herod had John beheaded: “But when Herod’s

birthday was kept, the daughter of Herodias danced before them, and pleased Herod. Wherefore he promised with an oath, that he would give her whatsoever she would ask. And she being before instructed of her mother, said, *Give me here John Baptist's head in a platter*". (Matthew 14: 6-8, my emphasis)

This description calls to mind two passages. Hamlet reads a sealed letter ordering his execution: "My head should be struck off" (V.ii.26). The other is when Osric tells Hamlet: "But my lord, his Majesty bade me / signify to you that a has laid a great wager on your / head". (V.ii.102-5)

"Wantonness"

Hamlet's ranting at Ophelia also deserves close attention: "I have heard of your paintings, too, well enough. / God hath given you one face and you make yourselves / another. *You jig, you amble*, and you lisp, and / nickname God's creatures, and make your *wantonness* / your ignorance. Go to, I'll no more on't. It hath made / me mad. I say we will have no more marriages. Those / that are married already— all but one— shall live. The / rest shall keep as they are. To a nunnery, go". (III.i.145-52, my emphasis)

An allusion to John's beheading comes into view when reading "wantonness" in the marginal note of Matthew 14: 1: "Here is in John an example of an invincible courage, which all faithful Ministers of God's word ought to follow; in Herod, an example of tyrannous vanity, pride and cruelty, and to be short, of a courtly conscience, and of their insufferable slavery, which have once given themselves over to pleasures; in Herodias and her daughter, an example

of *whore-like wantonness*, and womanlike cruelty” (my emphasis).

“Jig” and “Amble”

Against this background, the aforementioned verbs *jig* and *amble* may bring to mind Herodias’ daughter’s dance. Also relevant here is the word *whore-like* as Hamlet uses the phrase “like a whore” in one of his monologues (III.i.588).

Ophelia’s Death

Finally, some thoughts on John’s particular message may be offered here. He preached a baptism of repentance. Interestingly enough, Ophelia in her madness hands out rue and keeps some for herself — an object symbolizing repentance. “Country folk four hundred years ago,” writes Jessica Kerr, “believed that grace and forgiveness followed repentance, which is demonstrated by the other name given to the plant— ‘herb of grace o’ Sundays’”. (50) In considering how Shakespeare intersperses the play with biblical material surrounding John the Baptist, Ophelia’s drowning may subtly recall his water baptism. Hence one could perhaps argue—at least symbolically speaking—that Ophelia died in a state of grace. It is hoped that such allusions may provide some insight into the interpretation of Ophelia’s death among other subjects in the play.

Notes

¹ All spellings have been modernized. For other biblical allusions in *Hamlet* see Naseeb Shaheen’s *Biblical References in Shakespeare’s Plays* (Associated University Press, Inc., 1999) and Richmond Noble’s *Shakespeare’s Biblical Knowledge* (Octagon Books, 1970).

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A-Z Classroom Management Techniques for Teachers to Teach Technocrats

Dr. Suneetha Yedla

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Abstract

Classroom management is the process of ensuring the lessons to run smoothly despite disruptive behavior by students. Without a set of rules, standards and expectations, teachers risk the intrusion of many distractions that can interfere with the students' learning experience. Classroom management is one of the most overlooked aspects of teaching English for engineering students, but it is one of the most important factors to determine how effective a teacher is in the subject. Usually engineering students' come with their own challenges and they have their own opinions of appropriate classroom behavior due to their previous experiences under different instructors at +2 level. But frankly speaking, engineering students seem to be mainly involved in issues like shoving each other or refusing to sit still for one hour in a classroom. Such being the case, a teacher should be in a position to navigate smoothly with just the skills needed for classroom management, which means a teacher must develop a classroom management style that is appropriate for the class. This article presents some **Classroom Management Techniques** to motivate young students to involve themselves in the lessons in the classroom.

Key Words: shoves, Challenges, Classroom Behaviorism, Classroom Management, Classroom Management Techniques

Introduction

Classroom management is the process of ensuring the lessons run smoothly despite any disruptive behavior by students. Without a set of rules, standards and expectations, teachers risk

the intrusion of many distractions that may disrupt the students' learning experience (Cangelosi, 2014). Classroom management is one of the most overlooked aspects of teaching English for engineering students, but it is one of the most important factors to determine how effective a teacher is in the subject.

Usually, Engineering students' come with their own challenges and they have their own opinions of appropriate classroom behavior due to their previous experiences under different instructors at +2 level. But frankly speaking, engineering students seem to be mainly involved in issues like shoving each other or refusing to sit still for one hour in a classroom. Such being the case, a teacher should be in a position to navigate smoothly just with the skills needed for classroom management, which means a teacher must develop a classroom management style that is appropriate for the class.

Proper classroom management techniques will encourage students to become involved in the lesson. Students could end up being fed up with the lesson and get diverted by irrelevant activities. However, with the right classroom management techniques, a teacher has a chance to motivate his/her young students and prevent disruptions in the classroom. Finding the right classroom management strategies and merging them with a teacher's own personal style will help make him/her an effective teacher.

Common Rules for Effective Classroom Management

- Teachers should develop well-defined classroom rules. Rules in the classroom are effective management tools that help students to understand what type of behavior is acceptable in the classroom. Some appropriate rules for engineering students in classrooms include asking students to turn off their cell phones during class and to inform the teacher if the student is going to be late or absent from class. Once the rules have been developed and taught, the teacher should ensure that they are applied without fail.
- Establish an objective-oriented learning environment. This is very helpful for engineering students as it encourages students to prepare their own academic goals regarding what they wish to achieve. This requires engineering students to monitor their own academic

goals and check their progress throughout the course to observe how well they are performing in the race toward their academic goals.

- Foster a positive and encouraging climate. Teachers should build an environment where positive interactions are the norm and negative consequences are minimal. Teachers have to provide effective feedback immediately after the demonstration of appropriate behavior. Research has shown that positive reinforcement leads to an improvement in behavior. So, Teachers should speak to them in the appropriate tone good for engineering students and not in the manner usually reserved for children.
- Provide students with clear expectations of responsibility. Teachers of engineering students usually have higher expectations of their students compared to young learners. The course syllabus will have outlines of all the projects and assignments deadlines. Engineering students will be responsible for submitting their requirements on time without repeated reminders from the teacher.

Techniques for Teachers for Effective Classroom Management

- Be fair, firm and consistent. Don't try to be the students' best friend. Teacher should be in the classroom to teach, so behave as a mentor and not as students' buddy.
- Establish clear rules from day one and be consistent in applying them. Don't suddenly start yelling at students or engage in irregular behavior.
- Demonstrate the lesson but not too much explanation. Usually, it is better for a teacher to go forward with different teaching techniques such as limiting wordy explanations and opting for more demonstrations. As Celia Oyer mentioned in her book *Actions speak louder than words: Community Activism as Curriculum*, a teacher has to design social action projects as part of the regular classroom curriculum.

- Establish rules and regulations. Try to start and end a lesson in a familiar pattern. Be strict about the rules that have been decided to follow in the classroom. *For example:* Emphasize that gold stars will be given to the students if they have finished their work on time.
- Praise and encourage good behavior. Students respond better to praise than disapproval. Never ever use destructive criticism as this will make them feel worthless. As a teacher, build up self-esteem in students through praise and positive dialogue. Draw more attention to good behavior and give out tasks to students who behave well. Rewarding students is part of the process, but do not resort to bribing them to achieve the desired results. Use ideas that give responsibility to the students such as verbal or written praise or a positive note to the parents.
- Use different teaching styles to reach all the students in the classroom. Don't just stand in front of the class since this will not interest many students. Using a wide variety of classroom techniques will engage the students and tap into their visual, auditory and tactile skills.

A-Z of Classroom Management Techniques for Teachers



Source: Google Images

Animate the course materials to understand easily.

Bring real-world examples and experiences into the classroom.

Contextualize, conceptualize and clarify the lesson.

Develop recognition of, and recording of, collocations.

Emphasis the key points equally from beginning to the end of the class.

Forward field trips that is remarkable.

Group learners are to be allowed imagination and variety.
Help the students to do hands-on activity.
Include the inattentive students with attentive ones.
Justify unpopular classroom decisions.
Keep the students on their toes.
Let communication activities run their course.
Motivate learning through Music intrinsically.
Nodding is not proof of comprehension i.e. Noise Vs Noisy.
Opinions are more than ‘it depends’
Prepare plans Bs, Cs and Ds
Question questionable grammar rules.
Recycle, revise and recap the main points.
Silence should not be mechanically filled.
Test the content of what they learned in previous classes.
Use the students as primary resource.
Vary the interactions to get feedback.
Write student-teacher and teacher-student contracts.
X-tra co-curricular Activities to be initiated to motivate creativity.
You are a special teacher from the ones they are used to, show them why.
Zig-Zagging is often a more interesting path to follow than the mechanical A to B order.

Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs)

As Thomas Angelo stated in his book *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*, “Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) are generally simple, non-graded, anonymous, in-class activities designed to give the teacher and the student useful feedback on the teaching-learning process.” Classroom Assessment Techniques are formative evaluation methods that serve to assess student learning in the classroom. CATs and other informal student feedback techniques are formative assessment methods that help a teacher to manage students’ learning in the classroom. They provide information about the effectiveness of teaching methods used in the classroom. It is better to pose a questions such as “Was my teaching effective?”, or “What is still confusing students?” Formative evaluations provide

information to improve course content, methods of teaching, and, ultimately, student learning. Formative evaluations are most effective and help teachers to make immediate adjustments in the activities of day-to-day operations of the course.

Considerable Criteria for CATs

Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) are very important. As per Lee Haugen's statements in the article *Strategies to check Student Learning in the Classroom*, the impact of CATs in classroom management are:

- provide day-to-day feedback that can be applied immediately;
- provide useful information about what students have learned without the amount of time required for preparing tests, reading papers, etc.;
- allow the teacher to address student misconceptions or lack of understanding in a timely manner;
- Help to foster good working relationships with students and encourage them to understand that teaching and learning are on-going processes that require full participation (Thomas Angelo and Patricia Cross, 1993).
- help the Learner to develop self-assessment and learning management skills;
- reduce feelings of isolation and impotence, especially in large classes;
- enhances understanding and ability to think critically about the course content;
- Foster an attitude that values understanding and long-term retention.

Conclusion

This article brings out the importance of effective classroom management that leads to greater student success in the ESL classroom. David Hawkins' suggestion of a triangular relationship may be considered: "I- Thou-It" triangle of educational relationship - the teacher ("I") - student ("Thou") relationship with the shared information of an engaging subject matter ("It). Awareness of this triangle helps teachers listen to students and to see each one as a whole person. Teachers who listen to students' hearts have fewer classroom management problems and are better equipped to motivate students for life-long learning and success in learning English.

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E- Resources:

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<http://www.google.co.in/images>

<http://www.celt.iastate.edu/teaching-resources/classroom-practice/>



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Group Discussion in an ESL Classroom: A Socio-cultural Perspective

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Abstract

The benefits of Group Discussion (GD) and its importance as a parameter for judging a potential candidate's performance in interviews have long been recognized, and GD has been accorded a place of honour in the 'English' curriculum of engineering colleges.

Recruiters have in recent times used GD as a yardstick for judging a prospective candidate's potential for a job with the company since communication skills have come to be regarded as a requirement for performing well on the job. The globalised nature of work culture implies that soft skills in general and negotiation skills in particular are insisted on by employers and communication skills are increasingly seen as a passport to fulfilling jobs in Multinational companies.

Yet the non-participation of some learners in a GD may be attributed to socio-cultural factors that need to be examined to understand the reasons for non-participation and find ways to invite better participation from the silent learners without making them feel ashamed or alienated in any way.

Keywords: GD, second language classroom, CLT, socio-cultural factors

Scene 1:

Inside campus bus: I was witness to a strange incident while travelling to college by college bus. The bus I was travelling in stopped at a place to pick up passengers *en route* to college and on the particular day, there were several vacant seats since several *three seaters* were occupied by a lone passenger. Yet those who got in, all of them boys were standing at the footboard or huddled near the driver's area. When asked to occupy the vacant seats, they refused. Curiosity set me asking them the reason.

All the boys said in unison: “*Sir, akkada ladies unnaru* meaning (Sir, the seats are occupied by girls). It was evident that these boys followed the general idea of segregation practised all over India, and were simply following what they had been doing all along. None wanted to sit next to girls either from shyness or from fear of being mocked or fear of resistance from girls. The disparity in world views in major cities and other parts of the world could not have being more striking.

Scene 2:

ELCS lab: A GD session in progress; several students keep mum or simply say, “Sir, I don’t want to speak.” Among whom are passengers who refused to sit next to girls. Despite threats of poor marks for non-participation, they refuse to open up. The bus incident floats in my mind’s eye and I refuse to read defiance in their reaction. I suspect it may be for reasons beyond my purview and I choose to investigate.

Role of Group Discussion

Group discussion has a crucial role to play in improving learners’ fluency in a second /foreign language. The advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as a popular teaching approach only aided the reverence with which CLT was held by curriculum designers. CLT advocates the teaching-learning of a second language in a natural setting where learners learn a second /foreign language in a non-threatening environment. As has been rightly observed by Freeman (2008), “The most obvious characteristic of CLT is that almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent (p.129). It is therefore an approach that believes that “students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions “(Freeman, 2008, p.126) so that through active participation in communicative activities with the teacher as facilitator, a lot of authentic speaking happens and there is negotiation of meaning between and among learners.

Team Activity

Of the several activities available to learners to choose from in order to improve their spoken English, GD is perhaps the most convenient and sought after because it is a team activity that “encourages cooperative relationships among students. It gives students an opportunity to work on negotiating meaning (Freeman, 2008, p.127).

Job-winning Performance

The importance of Group Discussion may be gauged from the fact that companies like Amazon, IBM, Broadcom, and Schlumberger recruit employees based on their performance in GD. Business schools look for communication skills and GDs are often the clinchers. Then again, several organizations look for PR personnel who apart from excelling in academics and on the job, need to reveal to the public the human face of the company or organization.

GDs, debates, and JAMs therefore play a vital role in determining a candidate's success in landing that plum job, a promotion or posting abroad. English departments thus have a special job on their hands - promoting GD as an activity involving all learners and ensuring a learner-friendly ambience. The idea is to minimise teacher intervention or interference and maximize learner participation. GD encourages team work, tolerance and adapting to several points of view while sticking to one's own. It is for this GD counts as an important soft skill.

Green et al (1997) very appropriately list out what it takes to make a GD successful in any context, be it ESL or EFL:

Discussions depend for success primarily on the willingness of all the participants to make substantial and coherent contributions to the process. Individual contributions depend on a knowledge or experience of the topic under discussion, willingness to express oneself in the target language and personality type (p.137).

Silence versus Speech

The question is therefore one of finding out why learners prefer silence over speech. To read silence as arrogance, defiance of authority or simply indifference is to indulge in unnecessary paranoia and treat GD as the be-all and end-all of language acquisition, which is not the case. Silence on the part of learners may be embedded in the socio-cultural milieu in which learners have grown up and been educated. It was abundantly clear that learner silence was indeed a problem that transcended the limited world view of a teacher, prone to see it as learner non-cooperation or indifference.

Present Study

This study was conducted to decode the ‘speech’ behind silence, and the student-teacher reaction to teacher speech. The study is not the first of its kind since “classroom silence, particularly among Asian EFL learners, continues to attract discussion” (Harumi, 2011, p.260) and Indian students are not alone in being seen as scapegoats for what is a socio-cultural phenomenon.

Informal talk with students outside the classroom brought to light factors other than what has been commonly but mistakenly attributed to learner silence in the language lab.

The Study

The study was conducted on 40 students in their first year of engineering in a college affiliated to a state university in Telangana State. I had been teaching them lab for over a month and the silence I encountered consistently from a group (of about 20 *stubborn* learners) led to the study. The study was in the form of informal talk with the learners to find out the reasons for reticence. Data analysis revealed a plethora of reasons for their unwillingness to communicate, almost all of them showing a tendency to reticence because of cultural or acquired or inherited traits.

Lack of Confidence

The first reason was “lack of confidence in self-expression” (Harumi, 2011, p.264). This is a cultural basis since in the Indian context, it is always the tradition for the teacher to talk and learner to listen and take down notes. A teacher who is eager to let students *seize* control of the class room is viewed as lazy, ignorant or incompetent. As classrooms have remained teacher-fronted for as long as anyone can remember and throughout history, it is but natural for students to remain ‘passive’ and let the teacher take over.

Harumi (2011) observes that in Japanese EFL classrooms learner-silence “stems from the presence of other students or the classroom atmosphere” (p. 264). This was particularly true in the ESL lab which had a sizeable number of girl students. It was simply unbearable for boys to subject themselves to assessment or review of their performance in the presence of girls. It is understandable considering the high levels of patriarchy.

Assumption of Unequal Contest

Learners who were silent saw the discussion activity as an unequal contest between the most able and the least, which was true. It was a heterogeneous class that had learners whose levels of linguistic competence were high just as there were learners who were only then coming to grips with English. Weak users of English saw GD as a context pitting gun fighters against knife throwers. They were hesitant to share their views or opinions in poor English. They wanted an opportunity to use their mother tongue, at least in the first few classes, to get over their shyness and inhibitions. The silence was neither a result of ignorance nor defiance or indifference but one resulting from diffidence.

Low Self-esteem which Led to Preference of Silence Over Participation

Learners who preferred silence to participation, it came through, had low self-esteem. They didn't want to lose face by coming off badly through participation. They blamed it on their poor grammar, fewer vocabulary, limited powers of expression and the attendant tension as reasons for non-participation. It was also a sign from the learners for the teacher to pitch in and help them out at crucial junctures such as helping them with ideas, supply words when they are lost for it, add ideas or supplement ideas so as to assure learners that with a little help, they too can perform well.

Respect for Elders

The fourth reason for silence was again cultural: Learners had been taught from childhood that respect for elders was of the essence and that one's own views must be subordinated to those of one's teachers and parents. They were thus naturally inclined to accept teacher's views as paramount and preferred to listen than butt in or participate all too enthusiastically. No student wanted to be seen as a Mr. Know-it-all and embarrass the teacher.

An Expression of Unity and Solidarity

Surprisingly, silence was used by the group members as an expression of unity too. All the learners applauded themselves in the thought that collective insults were not all anything to fret about. They sought and had security in the group they identified themselves with. This is very similar to though not a replica of a "Japanese cultural norm, wa (harmony) or 'groupism': the opinion of a group is valued more highly than that of the individual"

(Harumi, 2011, p.265). Thus, even if a few members of the group are in a position to answer or take part in GD, the unwillingness of others condemns them to silence too. This “distancing strategy” (Flowerdew, 1998, p.323) somehow seemed to work well to take the guilt off non-participation.

Implications and Suggested Measures

GD being an inevitable part curriculum and a necessary component of English language lab, one mustn't look for reasons that can explain away learner non-participation. Instead a few measures may be put in place that address the issue of non-participation in GD and suggest measures to overcome reluctance and diffidence in learners.

a. It is a great help to start any GD with a preface; classroom observation holds that teachers plunge straightaway into GD and hand out topics for learners to speak on. In some cases, the dos and don'ts of GD are never given to learners, leading them to treat the whole exercise with indifference. The usefulness of GD and its place in the recruitment process should serve as an incentive for learners to participate actively in it; besides, learners would also be told how it would lead them to improving their social skills, such as turn-taking, modulation of voice, adjusting body language, etc.

b. Judicious use of L1 must be allowed; an L2 classroom often jettisons L1 use. This results in learners being deprived of a rich resource to use and benefit from. Learners who have had all their education in regional medium schools deserve better than being forced to use English from the very beginning of their school year. Everyone including the fluent users of English must be asked to use L1 even if occasionally so that none feels ridiculed for using L1. In any GD outside the classroom, code switching is very common and it doesn't hurt to use one's mother tongue.

c. Learners learn best when they have a free hand in choosing discussion topics, “deriving principally from their current professional, academic or developmental concerns” (Green et al, 1997, p.137). This gives them a sense of freedom and responsibility. It lets learners draw up points, brainstorm and contribute positively to GD than if topics are chosen by the teacher.

d. Finally, silent learners must be grouped into one category and encouraged to come out of their shell. This will “lead the more introverted student away from his or her concern with rule obedience and correctness to a more unself conscious and fluent expression of personal knowledge and views” (Green et al, 1997, p.137).

Conclusion

It hardly needs emphasising that while GD as an essential component of lab is needed for conversational fluency and making the learners job-ready, the socio-cultural aspects need to be taken into account to achieve the objective. To make participation in GD inclusive measures suggested above may be adopted. These measures will render the activity meaningful and productive for all.

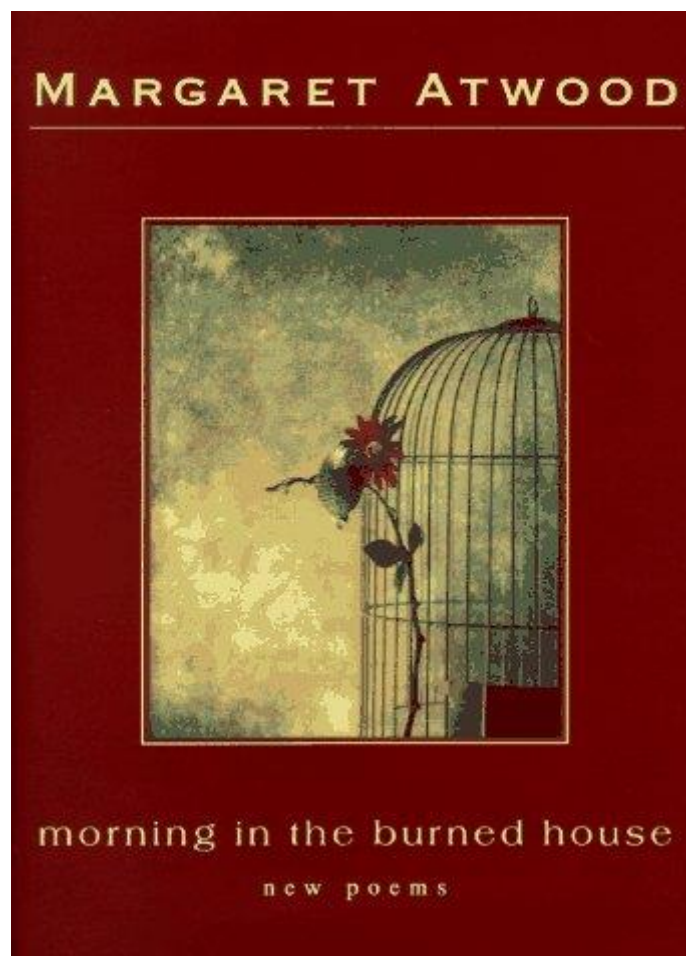
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**Blurring Identities in a Changing World:
A Perspective on Margaret Atwood's Select Poems**

Dr. Olive Thambi



Abstract

Margaret Atwood explores different facets of human personality in her short stories, poems and novels. Most of her characters are seen grappling with formidable issues. Her characters do things for self-gratification and for a general recognition of themselves as someone of importance in society. The concept of identity is explored at different levels by the author. Atwood is of the opinion that language alone cannot suffice for the expression of

one's feelings. Unspoken words count as much as spoken words. There are certain things which are left unsaid and which people may never get to find out -- certain feelings which words can never adequately express. This paper attempts to discuss the underlying question of identity that seems to hurt and harass the young and the old in this ever-changing loveless world.

Keywords: Human personality, Formidable issues, Unspoken words, Question of identity

Diversity in Canada

Canadian culture is shaped by a range of languages in vogue and by wide variations in demographics, First Nations' cultures, immigration patterns and proximity to Europe, Asia, and the USA. Consequently, the "Canadian voice" is not consistent throughout. Despite all differences, Canadian writers do bring many shared thoughts to their representations of nature, culture, and human interaction, whether at home or abroad. Some critical approaches to Canadian literature have tried to identify national or regional characteristics in literature. Canadian literature is, in fact, heterogeneous in nature as it is a conglomeration of the writings of people of many nations put together. Therefore, Canadian literature does not restrict itself to a particular set of topics, terms, or even Canadian settings, nor does any set of topics and terms constitute an essential ingredient in a Canadian book.

Concept of Identity

Margaret Atwood explores different facets of human personality in her short stories, poems and novels. Most of her characters are seen grappling with formidable issues. Her characters do things for self-gratification and for a general recognition of themselves as someone of importance in society. The concept of identity is explored at different levels by the author. Atwood is of the opinion that language alone cannot suffice for the expression of one's feelings. The unspoken words count as much as the spoken words. There are certain things which are left unsaid and which people may never get to find out -- certain feelings which words can never adequately express.

A Misnomer

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Blurring Identities in a Changing World: A Perspective on Margaret Atwood's Select Poems

The concept of identity is a misnomer today. From a child to an adult, everyone craves attention and recognition. The desire to be loved and adored is inherent in most people. The ever changing world with its different trends and changing lifestyles has had a huge impact on minds, both young and old. Margaret Atwood captures it all in her heart-rending poems which speak volumes about the human psyche.

Focus of This Article

The paper deals with two profound poems “A Sad Child” and “This is a Photograph of Me”. The poem entitled “A Sad Child” is about a child who yearns for love and attention from her parents. The opening lines of the poem which are presumably, a retort from a parent to a sad child, go like this:”You're sad because you're sad. It's psychic. It's the age. It's chemical”. (4) Obviously, there is a lack of warmth and understanding on the part of the parent, unable to perceive an underlying problem which could be resolved amicably through a lot of love and care.

***A Sad Child* – An Autographical Strain**

The child is sad because she is not given enough love and attention. Instead of reassuring the child of their care, the parents coax and cajole the child into buying a pet or a coat. They even suggest she take up dancing to forget her gloom. As the poem progresses, the reader learns the child has come to realize that she is not the favourite child. The poet describes a touching scene where the child rushes back from a lawn party, all decked up in a new dress with a new ribbon, with an ice cream smear on the face and her mouth full of sugar, regretting rather remorsefully that she is not the favourite child of her parents after all. Critics discern an autobiographical strain in this poem and also suggest the failure of most parents to help children in their formative years. There is a definite lack of emotional connection, or intelligence on the part of the parents.

Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman has dealt with the aspect of emotional intelligence in his book

Emotional Intelligence, published in the year 1995. He says in his book, *Emotional Intelligence* that “our deepest feelings, our passions and longings, are essential guides, and that our species owes much of its existence to their power in human affairs. That power is extraordinary”. (3) In the poem, the parents are described to be people lacking in emotional intelligence because of which, they fail to respond to their child’s needs appropriately. It is clear that the child’s strange behaviour indicates the presence of a problem, which has to be sorted out in a suitable platform. When the child feels slighted and neglected by her loved ones, she feels lost and forlorn. There is nobody to give her an identity. Her identity seems to be in a state of flux all the time.

Growth of Our Identity

Man gets his first identity at home, when he is given a name. As he grows up, he gets different labels. Julia. T. Wood, in her book, *Communication in our Lives*, says, “in the earliest years of our lives, our parents tell us who we are. You are so smart. You are so strong. You are such a funny one”. (14) People see themselves through the eyes of others. When this image is denied to them, they find themselves at a loss. They are perplexed and confused, because they really do not know who they are and whether they would ever gain acceptance in society.

Importance of Nonverbal Cues

Allan Pease says in his book, *Body Language*, that non-verbal cues also play a crucial role in shaping children’s personalities. Children observe the adults around them and attach meanings to their actions. Psychologists in general believe that children imitate the actions they observe in their growing years and reinvent themselves. Here in the poem, “A Sad Child”, the child makes her own assumptions more from the actions of her parents than their words.

Longing for Love

Actions speak louder than mere words. Just a few words from her parents urging her to do something different like buying a coat or a pet does not reassure her of the love she so

longs for. Perhaps just a hug or some other physical display of affection would have worked wonders. The child is so insecure towards the end, that she takes cover in a wash room and just speaks to herself regretting she was not the favourite child after all. Don Colbert says in his book, *Deadly Emotions*, “people who have stuffed emotions very often have grown up in which they have felt unloved or rejected as children. In some way, they have not experienced the security and bonding of a normal parent-child relationship”. (54)

Identity Crisis

The identity crisis can happen even in adulthood amidst an ever changing scenario. “This is a Photograph of me” is yet another poignant poem of Atwood, which captures the thought in all its profundity. The photograph, which was presumably taken years ago, has the narrator in a reminiscent mood. The opening lines of the poem go like this:

It was taken some time ago
At first it seems to be
a smeared
print: blurred lines and grey flecks
blended with the paper; (1-5)

Blurred Lines and Grey Flecks

The photograph of the narrator is not clear at first glance. A cursory glance can only reveal “blurred lines and grey flecks” merging with the paper. Then a closer look may reveal a house, some hills and a lake. In the words of the narrator,

(The photograph was taken
the day after I drowned.)
I am in the lake, in the center
of the picture, just under the surface. (15-18)

Stripped of Individuality

Then the narrator goes on to say that it is difficult to discern her exact image from the photograph. This is because she is submerged under the water and the effect of the light gives a false image of her. As can be seen, the real image of the narrator is different from the one seen in the photograph. According to the poet, a woman is stripped of her individuality in a patriarchal society. She has no identity of her own. She is just exploited in different ways to such an extent that her real self gets blended with the environment she lives in. She is more of a commodity than a human being.

The Drowning

John Wilson Foster in his article, 'Poetry of Margaret Atwood' says that the concept of drowning in the poem could refer to a loss of identity. People's real selves can get eclipsed by domineering people. A woman is usually overshadowed by the people around her in different ways. Expectations are very high and the woman succumbs to the wishes of her loved ones. She surfaces later and slowly emerges from the waters that had submerged her. But this time she is quite unrecognizable. She has no identity of her own. She has to just point out a few characteristic features in the photograph which give a remote resemblance of her.

Identities Get Blurred

Identities do get blurred in a social milieu where altruistic love is missing. The world today is devoid of love, compassion and empathy. Anything done in a spirit of love can mean a world of difference to people. Margaret Atwood aptly encapsulates the loss of identity and the sense of helplessness right from infancy to adulthood. The problem is in fact universal and not just confined to Canada. The world needs to be really friendly, more understanding and sincerely compassionate. It all begins with the heart -- the heart that is willing to love.

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Cultural Shock: A Major Issue in Bharati Mukherjee's Novels

P. Rajeswari and Dr. K. Balamurugan

Abstract

Bharati Mukherjee is a Third World Feminist writer whose preoccupation is dealing with the problems and issues related to South Asian Women, particularly India, though she claims that her feelings are more like those of the women of North America. She differs from other writers in the way she deals with her heroines (Indian women immigrants), predominantly with their cultural shock that that overthrows them in life directly or indirectly. This is illustrated very clearly by Tara Banerjee in 'The Tiger's Daughter', Dimple in 'Wife', Jyoti in 'Jasmine' and Devi in 'Leave it to me', three sisters - Padma, Parvathi and Tara in 'Desirable Daughters' and Tara in 'The Tree Bride'. Though the heroines are described as bold and assertive, they do not escape from this particular behavior born of 'culture shock'. They have the strong potentiality for adaptability; they stand on firm ground to change their lives really, if necessary, and/or accept the bitter truth of their lives anyhow. This paper tries to capture the main reason, the quintessential concept behind the dilemma of all the heroines of her novels.

Keywords: South Asian Women, Cultural shock, Women immigrants, Feminist writer

Introduction – A New Kind of Pioneer

The Indian born (Bengali) writer Bharati Mukherjee is one of the popular Indian writers in English from America. The immigrant writers are of two categories. First come the "Willing Immigrant Writers" who are settled in America from Europe and Asia and who have made it their home. The second category consists of the "Unwilling Immigrant Writers" (Banerjee 1993) of American origin whose forefathers were brought to America in some slave ships. But Bharati Mukherjee has gone on record saying that she considers herself an American writer, and not an Indian expatriate writer. In an 1989 interview with Amanda Meer, Mukherjee said: "I totally consider myself an American writer, and that has been my big battle: to get to realize that my roots as a writer are no longer, if they ever were, among Indian writers, but that I am writing about the territory about the feelings, of a new kind of pioneer here in America. I'm the first among Asian immigrants to be making this distinction between immigrant writing and expatriate

writing. Most Indian writers prior to this, have still thought of themselves as Indians, and their literary inspiration, has come from India. India has been the source, and home. Whereas I'm saying, those are wonderful roots, but now my roots are here and my emotions are here in North America."

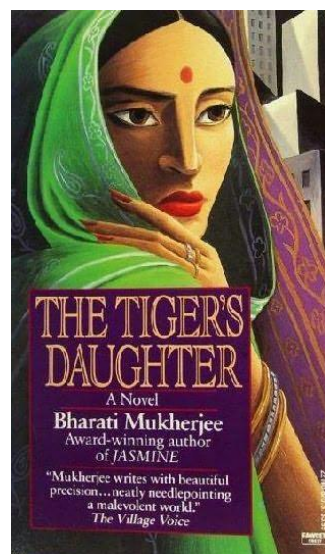
Bharati's Heroines and Their Role

Bharati's heroines, however, are immigrants and undergoing cultural shock, but they try to stand strong with their own identity or individuality. This may be the reason for Bharati Mukherjee to have had significant attention, getting both positive and negative criticism from all corners of the literary world. Though she claims that she writes of expatriates with the feeling of a North American, she has written all the novels with predominantly feminist views. She portrays women characters as the victims of immigration, and yet actually the problems are not caused, because they are immigrants, but because the women characters fight for their rights as women and then as individuals just as the other feminist writers' heroines.

A Tantrum over Culture?

Our examination is to be searching for who the Mukherjee's characters are, especially, the heroines, whether or not they throw a tantrum over culture and its rules against the particular gender. She (Bharati Mukherjee) has always been trying to create her women as those who prepare themselves to be their own gravitational force, beyond the domination of patriarchy. Let us examine, the novels of Bharati Mukherjee based on this concept. (Banerjee, 1993)

The Tiger's Daughter



The Tiger's Daughter is the first novel by Bharati Mukherjee. The protagonist Tara Banerjee returns to India after a significant stay in the US. The story is of Mukherjee's own experience and might be of her siblings also, who had gone for study in America. When Tara

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lands at Bombay airport, she is not comfortable with her relatives as they are not in a position to accept a woman who is not accompanied by her husband, David.

According to Indian tradition, a woman should be led by her husband. He plays a protective role. Travelling alone, living alone and moving alone are part of an unfamiliar terrain in many parts of India. In the Indian tradition, one should marry within his own caste. If anyone marries one from another caste, he/she will be treated as an outcast or a sinner. But the protagonist Tara, violating these rules, marries a foreign man who is a Jew. She totally forgets her caste and religion through her marriages. Ironically, Mukherjee criticizes the narrow-minded attitude of Indians who are crazy about foreign things and clothes, but do not approve of marriage with foreigners. In the presence of her mother, Tara feels alienated. Within herself, Tara becomes mentally disturbed and expedites her return to the USA. Thus, in the first novel one finds the feeling of alienation taking root in Tara.

Wife

In the Novel *Wife*, Dimple the protagonist, a typical young Bengali Girl who starts dreaming of modern life in America when she is to marry a guy – Amit Basu—who is about to settle in the US. Dimple feels that she has lost her identity in this marriage since her husband expects her to be a traditional Indian wife. Her mental agony goes unattended and untreated and finally she kills her husband and commits suicide. She resents being wife in the Basu family and rebels against wifedom in many ways. One such way is the one including a miscarriage by skipping herself free from her pregnancy, which she views as Basu's property even in her womb. He needs her only for sexual indulgence. She feels it's some sort of guilty. (Banerjee, 1993)

Culture Shock

Here on track with the topic 'cultural shock', these two heroines of the novels reflect the psychic vibration called 'cultural shock'. It is to be noted that both heroines are typical Indians maybe in their minds, but tend to behave more in the western style. They struggle against these inner and outer feelings. Of course they succeed in their attempt, but it is only partial success, since both are not able to change themselves to be fully western. Dimple commits suicide and Tara becomes mentally disturbed. If they were typical western women, they would have behaved in a different manner. (Banerjee, 1993) Dimple would have gotten her divorce and Tara would have ridiculed the relatives instead of becoming mentally upset. All the heroines of Mukherjee, are of Indian roots one way or the other. It could be seen in her other novels *Jasmine*, *The Holder of the World* and so on.

Jyoti in Jasmine

Jasmine, her third most read novel is the story of a Punjabi rural girl, Jyoti. Prakash, an energetic and enthusiastic young man enters into Jyoti's life as her husband. Jasmine is a typical Indian girl who gets along with Indian tradition and customs; accordingly she reacts when Prakash prepares to go to America, saying, "I'll go with you and if you leave me, I'll jump into a well". A woman has to accept, the path of her husband. Renamed as Jasmine, joyously sharing the ambition of her husband, she looks forward to going to America, a land of opportunities, but this dream gets shattered by the murder of Prakash on the eve of his departure. (Dayal, 1993) She decides to go America and fulfill Prakash's mission and perform "Sati". Having learned to "Walk and Talk" like an American, she grabs every opportunity to become American. In the end she kills Sukhawinder, the Khalsa lion who killed Prakash. After that she goes to Iowa assuming a new name "Jase". (Dayal, 1993) There are myriad roles played by Jasmine as Jase, and Jase abuses the power of a woman. This power could be colossal, which should have been channelized to destroy evil and fight against all ills of mankind. Jasmine has broken away from the shackles of caste, gender and family. She has learnt to live not for her husband, nor for her children but for herself. Jasmine is a survivor, a fighter and an adaptor. She fights against unfavorable circumstances, comes out a winner and carves out a new life in an alien country.

The Holder of the World

Bharati Mukherjee's succeeding novel *The Holder of the World* symbolizes expatriation as a Journey of the human mind. Like Jasmine who travels westward, Hannah Estean's 'Voyage to the Orient' tells us about the protagonist's latest tensions, aspirations and ambitions. Hannah is born in Massachusetts and she travels to India. She becomes involved with a few Indian lovers and eventually a king who gives her a diamond known as true 'Emperor's Tear'. The story is told to the detectives searching for the diamond from Hannah's view point. The physical journey of the female hero not only leads to probing of the self, but also makes her recognize a new side of herself. She returns to her native land, not as a reformed American, but a rebel living on the fringes of society. In her next novel, 'Leave it to me', Bharati Mukherjee tells the story of a young woman sociopath named Debby Dimartino, short name Debi who seeks revenge on the parents who abandoned her. The story reveals her ungrateful interaction with kind adoptive parents and a vengeful search for her real parents (described as a murderer and a flower child). The novel also looks at the conflict between Eastern and Western worlds and at mother-daughter relationships through the political and emotional involvement of the chief character in her quest for revenge. (Pandya, 1990)

Conclusion

Women have experienced through marriage and/or travel abroad, tremendous physical and mental changes in their personal lives. Though they seem to be well suited for adaptability in an alien culture, the shock they go through initially is indispensable. The reason is they all are born Indian and brought up very much immersed in Indian traditions to feel and behave as custom demands, but at the same time they want to break out of it and live like western women,

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looking forward to it with a dreamy and tinted glass outlook. They speak of feminism and liberation easily, but stumble in living the same. This is what is found to be the main struggle in the lives of all of Mukherjee's ladies.

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P. Rajeswari and Dr. K. Balamurugan
Cultural Shock: A Major Issue in Bharati Mukherjee's Novels

A Case Study on Consonant Clusters in Meiteilon and Bengali

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Abstract

Meiteilon is a Tibeto-Burman language, and Bengali belongs to the eastern group of the Indo- Aryan branch of the Indo-European language family. One of the goals of this paper is simply to highlight the consonant clusters found in Meiteilon and Bengali. In spite of belonging to two different language families, both share much in common, not only as verb final languages but also in consonant clusters. Interestingly, Meiteilon borrowed Bengali script for writing. Thus, it is important to discuss the similarities and differences of consonant cluster between the two languages. This paper also reflects the changes undertaken in writing the consonant cluster in Meitei *mayek* or the indigenous script. Nowadays, Meitei mayek writing system has been introduced to the schools of Manipur. In Meitei mayek writing system the consonant graphic variant is not adopted, instead Apun khudam (Ligature) is used to show consonant cluster.

Key words: Meileilon, consonant cluster, Meitei mayek, initial, medial, and borrowed.

1.0 Introduction

Meiteilon is spoken in the state of Manipur and also in the adjoining northeastern states of India. The word *meiteilon* is the local name of Manipuri language. Bengali is the language native to the region of Bengal, which comprises present-day Bangladesh and the Indian states West Bengal, Tripura and southern Assam. It is written using the Bengali script. With about 220 million native and about 250 million total speakers, Bengali is one of the most spoken languages, ranked seventh in the world (Bengali Language in Asiatic

Society of Bangladesh 2003). While Meiteilon is spoken by about 12 million native speakers (*Students Britanica India* 2000:361-366) and it is the lingua franca of many different ethnic tribes of Manipur. It is also the official language of Manipur state along with English. Meiteilon has two writing system viz. i) using Meitei mayek or indigenous script and ii) using Bengali script. Before the advent of Hinduism in Manipur in the eighteenth century, the ancient Manipuri literature was written in Meitei mayek. The use of Bengali script was introduced only after the introduction of Hinduism. Since then using Bengali script for literature and newspaper is used. However, Meitei mayek writing system has been introduced in the schools of Manipur from the academic session 2005-2006 onwards in a phased manner (Surmangol, 2007).

2.1 Consonantal Phonemes

Since Meiteilon and Bengali language belong to two different language families, their inventory of consonants as well as vowels must have certain differences. The following tables illustrate the inventory of consonants of both the languages.

Consonantal phonemes of Meiteilon

	Bilabial		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
	V.less	V.ed	V.less	V.ed	V.less	V.ed	V.less	V.ed	V.less
Stops: Unaspirated	p	b	t	d	c	j	k	g	
Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h	t ^h	d ^h		j ^h	k ^h	g ^h	
Nasals		m		n				ŋ	
Fricative					s				h
Semi-vowels		w				y			
Lateral				l					
Trill				r					

Table 1. Meiteilon consonantal phonemes

Consonantal Phonemes of Bengali

		Labial		Dental		Palatal		Retroflex		Velar		Glottal
		un-asp	Asp	un-asp	Asp	un-asp	Asp	un-asp	Asp	un-asp	Asp	
Stop	Voiceless	p	p ^h	T	t ^h	c	c ^h	ʈ	ʈ ^h	k	k ^h	
	Voiced	b	b ^h	D	d ^h	ʃ	ʃ ^h	ɖ	ɖ ^h	g	g ^h	
Nasal		m		N						ŋ		
Lateral				L								
Flaps				r				ɽ				
Spirant/Fricative				S		ç						h

Table 2. Bengali consonantal phonemes
[Adapted from: Dimock, Bhattacharji & Chatterjee, 1976]

The consonants of Meiteilon are 24 (twentyfour) in number. All consonants occur in initial position. But, the voiced aspirated and unaspirated, i.e., /b d j g b^h d^h j^h g^h/ can occur in the initial position in the borrowed words only. In Meiteilon there is no retroflex sound. On the contrary, Bengali language has retroflex sound in Stop and Rhotic. There are 29 (twentynine) consonantal phonemes (Dimock, Bhattacharji & Chatterjee, 1976).

2.2 System of Clustering in Meiteilon

In Meiteilon, clusters of two consonants is possible. The first member is commonly Stop phonemes and also the Fricative /s/. The second member may be either semi vowel or liquid, i.e., /y w l r/, but they cannot occur in the initial position. In native words, the initial clusters are confined to a few phonemes in a small number of instances, that also with /k and k^h/. It is to be noted that it is possible for other phonemes like /k p t b p^h t^h g m n ŋ c and j/ can occur in the

initial position with /r w y/ as second member, but those are commonly onomatopoeic words. It is marked with an asterisk (*) in the following illustration.

Illustration

Meiteilon			
Initial Cluster	Examples	Medial Cluster	Examples
1.	kwak 'crow'	1.	həykru 'gooseberry'
w-	krək-krək 'tightly'*	kr-	caŋk ^h rəŋ 'a kind of weeds'
2.	kyamgəy 'name of a place'	2.	məŋgra 'sweet potato'
r-	k ^h waŋ 'waist'	k ^h r-	sugnu 'name of a place'
3.	k ^h rək- k ^h rək 'extremely dry'*	3.	ŋgakcrəw 'a kind of fish'
y-	k ^h yaw 'dry quickly'	gr-	məyjrəw
4.	gway 'name of a river'	4.	kəptreŋ 'spinning machine'
^h w-	grəŋ-grəŋ 'roaring sound'*	gn-	laŋt ^h rəy 'a kind of plant'
5.	ŋrəŋ- ŋrəŋ 'buzzing'*	5.	mət ^h way 'soul'
^h r-	ŋyaw- ŋyaw 'mewing'*	cr-	kaŋdrum 'a ball'
6.	crok-crok 'sound of moving water'*	6.	ədwaydə 'around there'
^h y-	jri-jri 'slippering'*	jr-	məwpwa 'younger brother'
7.	jway-jway 'showering'*	7.	pomp ^h ri 'a kind of blanket'
w-	trəŋ-trəŋ 'shining brightly	tr-	cumbrəy 'peach'
8.	(sun)*	8.	ləymram 'name of a place'
r-	t ^h rək- t ^h rək 'shaky'*	t ^h r-	laysrəm 'a surname'
9.	prəp-prəp 'quickly'*	9.	
r-	p ^h rəŋ- p ^h rəŋ 'sudden jump or fly'*	t ^h w-	
10.	brəŋ-brəŋ 'billowing'*	10.	
y-	myaw- myaw 'mewing'*	dr-	
11.		11.	
r-		dw-	
12.		12.	
r-		pw-	
13.		13.	
w-		p ^h r-	
14.		14.	

15.	r-	15.	br-
16.	^h r-	16.	mr-
17.	r-		sr-
18.	^h r-		
19.	r-		
	y-		

Some borrowed words are found with /p t k b d g p^h/ as first member and /l r/ as second member as initial clusters. For example; p + l = plet ‘plate’; t + r = tren ‘train’; k + l = klas ‘Class’; p^h + l = p^hlait ‘flight’; etc.

Similarly, in the case of medial cluster also, only a maximum of two consonants are found. In Meiteilon, the medial clusters are formed by the consonantal phonemes /p t k p^h t^h k^h b d c j g m s/ as first member and /r w/ as the second member. There is no final cluster in Meiteilon.

Under the native situation vowel epenthesis may occur between the two consonants of the consonant clusters, e.g., English ‘front’ = Meiteilon ‘p^hərən’; English ‘club’ = Meiteilon ‘kələp’; English ‘horn’ = Meiteilon ‘horon’

2.3 System of Clustering in Bengali

According to P. Masica (1991), native Bengali (tôdbhôb) words do not allow initial consonant clusters except for borrowed (tôtshôm) words, i.e., words directly borrowed from Sanskrit, and also in the borrowings from foreign languages. Clustering of more than two consonants is also quite common in Bengali. The maximum syllabic structure is CVC and speakers often carry this restriction over to loan words. For example, geram (CV.CVC)

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instead of gram (CCVC) for the Sanskrit loan word ‘village’ or iskul (VC.CVC) instead of skul (CCVC) for the English word ‘school’ (Kar, 2009).

Final consonant clusters are rare in Bengali. Most final consonant clusters were borrowed into Bengali from English, as in lip^ht ‘lift, elevator’ and bēṅk ‘bank’ However, final clusters do exist in some native Bengali words, although rarely in standard pronunciation. One example of a final cluster in a Standard Bengali word would be *gônj*, which is found in the names of hundreds of cities and towns across Bengal, including *nôbabgônj* and *manikgônj*. In some eastern (Purbo) dialects, final consonant clusters consisting of a nasal and its corresponding oral stop are common, as in *chand* ‘moon’. The Standard Bengali equivalent of *chand* would be *chād*, with a nasalized vowel instead of the final cluster.

According to Linda, the cluster of Stops and Sonorants are acceptable clusters to the speakers of Bengali. The phoneme /ŋ/ and /r/ do not occur as first member and /h/ not as second member. The occurrence of syllable initial cluster is very restricted and coda clusters are generally disallowed (Linda, 2013). Medial consonant cluster are very common in Bengali language. Some consonant clusters found in Bengali language are listed as follows.

Bengali			
Initial Cluster	Examples	Medial Cluster	Examples
1.	krimi ‘worm’	1.	bakra ‘twisted’
r-	klanti ‘fatigue’	kr-	agra ‘front’
2.	k ^h ris ^h tan ‘christian’	2.	bajra ‘thunder’
l-	gram ‘village’	gr-	b ^h adra ‘sober’
3.	glas ^h ‘glass’	3.	ab ^h ra ‘sky’
^h r-	tren ‘train’	jr-	bykta ‘expressed’
4.	draib ^h ar ‘driver’	4.	syamal ‘green’
r-	tris ^h ‘thirty’	dr-	hyapa ‘trouble’
5.	d ^h rubotara ‘north star’	5.	sab ^h yata ‘civilization’
l-	nritotto ‘anthropology’	bhr-	mad ^h yam ‘medium’

6.	proshno ‘question’	6.	patt ^h ya ‘readable’
r-	plabon ‘flood’	byk-	balya ‘childhood’
7.	brishti ‘rain’	7.	kabya ‘poetry’
r-	blauj ‘blouse’	sy-	hatya ‘murder’
8.	mrittu ‘death’	8.	bisvas ‘faith’
r-	stri ‘woman’	hy-	ujjval ‘bright’
9.	snan ‘bath’	9.	jihva ‘tongue’
^h r-	spriha ‘desire’	b ^h y-	udvayi ‘evaporating’
10.	sromik ‘laborer’	10.	udvrta ‘excess’
r-	hridoe ‘heart’	d ^h y-	
11.		11.	
r-		t ^h y-	
12.		12.	
l-		ly-	
13.		13.	
r-		by-	
14.		14.	
l-		ty-	
15.		15.	
r-		sv-	
16.		16.	
tr-		jjv-	
17.		17.	
n-		hv-	
18.		18.	
pr-		dv-	
19.		19.	
r-		dvr-	
20.			
r-			

2.3 *Apun khudam* (Ligature)

In Meitei mayek orthography, consonant clusters are indicated by *Apun khudam*. *Apun khudam* is a horizontal line below the clustering consonant graphemes to indicate the consonant cluster. Unlike in Bengali writing system, there is no change in the graphic structure of the consonant graphemes during the clustering. The change in graphic structure happens only to Lonsum mayek or syllable final consonant graphemes in Meitei mayek orthography. In the case of Bengali writing system, there are many instances in which we notice changes of graphic structure during consonant conjuncts or changes to show consonant clustering.

No consonant clustering is found in the final position. But, many Manipuri writers who use Bengali script use final clustering as similar to Bengali in writing borrowed words. This convention could not be realized in Meitei mayek orthography. For example: In Bengali *bulb* is written as *bālb*, in final clustering. In Meitei mayek orthography, it will be written as *bələp*. So, near pronunciation is the only means to write the borrowed word. The following table shows some more examples.

Cluster	Source	Bengali	Meitei mayek
-st	last (English)	laṣṭ	las
-st	dost (urdu) ‘friend’	dost	dos
-lt	belt (English)	beṭṭ	bel
-mp	lamp (English)	lêmp	lem

3. Conclusion

To conclude we can say that Meiteion has a limited number of consonant clusters in native words except in borrowed words. Similarly, Bengali language also has a limited number of possible clusters except for borrowed (*tôtshôm*) words. Despite the fact that these languages belong to different language families, the two languages share common features such as limited numbers of clusters in native words. Meiteilon literature written in Bengali script reflects similar patterns of writing clusters within the norms of the Bengali language.

The differences between the two languages are seen obviously in Meitei mayek writing system. Vowel epenthesis is another phenomenon common to both.

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Attaining Motivation and Learner Autonomy to Encourage Independent Study

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate the student-teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy where English tends to be a target language. The idea of learner autonomy is not new. Yet it has been widely referred to in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) only over the last decade. Previously, the term referred more directly to practical interventions or *situations* of learning which were more favoured within ELT: 'individualization', and 'learner independence'. The overall study in this article indicates that student-teachers should have a positive approach towards the adoption of learner autonomy principles. Most student-teachers, however, do not want their future students to take part in the decision making process concerning the time and place of the course and the textbooks to be followed. In the light of the previous research done by the researches, teacher-educators are recommended to encourage their students to engage in out-of-class tasks, to involve them in decision-making on the learning or teaching processes and to employ portfolios and teacher logs for the development of practical knowledge and thinking operations. There is an important role for teachers in this process since the ability to behave autonomously for students is dependent upon their teacher creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted.

Key words: Learner Autonomy, Motivation, Independent Learning

Introduction

Scharle and Szabó raise the questions: How do you describe a responsible learner? Do they always do their homework? Are they good team workers? Or do they volunteer to clean the blackboard? Are they diligent and obedient? They also suggest that the responsible learners may

not always have the same tendencies or traits. We do not think of responsible learners as role models, but as learners they accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly (3).

Responsible learners do not have to be especially keen on team work, but they are willing to cooperate with the teacher. They “accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly” (Scharle and Szabó 3).

Responsible students may not always do their home work, but whenever they fail to do it, they are aware of missing an opportunity to expand their knowledge of the foreign language. This is because they consciously monitor their own progress, and make an effort to use available opportunities to their benefit, including class room activities and homework.

Autonomy and Responsibility

In context, the two concepts of autonomy and responsibility are more difficult to distinguish. In both these contexts the role of the teacher is to be only a facilitator to guide the students. The autonomy and responsibility are the attitudes which the students possess in varying degrees. The teacher needs to consciously monitor the work of the students, making them to understand the available opportunities in their real life, including classroom activities; this last point leads us to the question of defining autonomy.

Autonomy in Language Learning

Benson and Voller point out that in language education the term is used in at least five different ways:

1. For situations in which learners study entirely on their own.
2. For a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning.
3. For an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education.
4. For the exercise of learners’ responsibility for their own learning.
5. For the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning. (1-2).

Freedom from Teacher-centred Learning

The concept of autonomy adds a meaningful dimension to that process of learning and teaching since it gives students responsibility for their own learning, which renders them more active during the process. Unfortunately, there is an inclination towards teacher-centered learning, and the students are considered as passive receivers of information. However, with the introduction of the notion of learner autonomy, students have grasped more rights independent of the teacher, and they have begun to take an active participatory role in their own learning (Gökçe Dişlen 126).

Learners' Contribution Essential

The saying goes: you can bring the horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink. In language teaching, teachers provide all the necessary circumstances and the input, but learning can happen if learners are willing to contribute. Their passive presence will not be sufficient just as the horse would remain thirsty if he stood still by the river waiting patiently for his thirst to go away. And, in order for learners to be actively involved in the learning process, they first need to realize and accept that success in learning depends as much as on the students as on the teacher (Scharle and Szabó 4).

Some degree of autonomy is also essential to successful language learning. The best way to prepare students to engage in task is by helping them to become more autonomous. Individuals will experience pleasurable sensations when they are performing tasks which are initiated to be challenging enough. It is nourished by, and in turn nourishes, their intrinsic motivation and the proactive interest in the world around us.

Solving the Problem of Learner Motivation

As Scharle and Szabó explains that intrinsically motivated learners are more able to identify with the goals of the learning (7). This explains how autonomy solves the problem of learner motivation: autonomous learners draw on their goals when they accept responsibility for their own learning and commit themselves to develop the skills of reflective self-management in learning; and success in learning strengthens their intrinsic motivation. In contrast to intrinsic

motivation, extrinsic motivation lies on the continuum from non-self-determination to self-determination.

Self-confidence and Autonomy

Apart from reinforcing motivation, self-confidence contributes to the development of responsibility in its own right. The learners must believe that they are capable of managing their own learning and they can rely on themselves, and not on the teacher. Precisely, autonomous learners are motivated and reflective learners, their learning is efficient and effective. All learning is likely to succeed to the extent that the learner is autonomous. And the efficiency and effectiveness of the autonomous learner means that the knowledge and skills acquired in the classroom can be applied to situations that arise outside the classroom in real life.

The autonomous learner shows initiative regarding in learning, and shares in monitoring progress and evaluating the extent to which the learning is achieved. The deconstruction of traditional language classrooms and courses all over the world has underlined the growing interest in autonomy in recent years. What's more, with the innovations that centre on the learners, learner autonomy, inevitably, has become an exhilarating concept in the field of foreign language learning over the last three decades. Likewise, more recently, learner autonomy has met with renewed interest as the educational sector is witnessing an enormous and rapid development in terms of new technologies, and the past few years have seen the importance of learner autonomy.

Promoting learner autonomy refers to encouraging students “to determine the objectives, to define the contents and progressions, to select methods and techniques to be used, to monitor the procedures of acquisition and to evaluate what has been acquired” (Holec 3). Through this process, eventually, the autonomous learner establishes a personal agenda for learning by setting up directions in the planning, pacing, monitoring and evaluating the learning process. Autonomous learners can freely apply their knowledge and skills outside the immediate context of learning.

Self-access Settings

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A majority of teachers in the English language learning field has been focusing largely on completing the syllabus for their examinations, but little has been done to look at what makes learners become more self-determined enough to take control of their own learning, and the factors that differentiate successful and less successful self-access users. However, learner motivation and autonomy in self-access settings within the curriculum have not been adequately addressed in the literature.

Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions the students engage in consciously or not, to learn new information. The goal of teaching learning strategies is to help students to consciously control, how they learn so that they can be efficient and motivated and independent language learners.

Steps to Remove the Barriers to Learn the Language

With the usual high costs of enrolling in a comprehensive program to learn a language, many students look for ways to improve their linguistic skills without having to make significant financial sacrifices. In addition to financial constraints of learning language, many professionals are unable to dedicate the several hours a week needed in order to make significant improvements. These barriers to learning are reflected in the question often asked in the English classes: "How can I improve my English outside the class?"

The first step towards developing the ability to take charge of our own learning when we accept full responsibility for the learning process, acknowledging that success in learning depends crucially on ourselves rather than on other people. This acceptance of responsibility entails that we set out to learn in a systematic way the skills of reflection and analysis that enable us to plan, monitor and evaluate our learning. But accepting responsibility for our own learning is not only a matter of gradually developing metacognitive mastery of the learning process. It has an equally important affective dimension in their commitment to self-management and their generally proactive approach where autonomous learners are motivated learners.

Autonomous Language Learning Activities

Journal Writing

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Journals are flexible and tolerant to ambiguity and can expose the process and the progression of knowledge. They provide authentic evaluation, described as thoughtful, reflective, considered and specific to circumstances. This method is often recommended to students looking to improve language as a skill on their own time is to keep a reflective journal. To make this even more applicable to the needs of the student they could focus their journal on events that occurred during school, work, travel, social activities or an event that involved an exchange of cross-cultural information. At the very least, a journal logging the general events of the day increases writing ability and it provides an effective means to focus on areas where the learner may experience problems in their speaking, allowing the student to rectify mistakes.

Using Internet and Technology

With the use of the Internet and computers increasing around the world, it seems obvious that electronic means will provide the learning environment of the future. Instant messaging has been quite popular for some time and the rate of usage around the world is increasing. Other forms of communication over the Internet include discussion boards, interactive blogs, and online forums. In addition, many English students are downloading English music, movies, and TV shows that allow them to get exposure to different accents and expressions from around the world. Social networks such as Facebook, twitter and Second Life have the potential to create awareness about language that will drive people at a very young age to become involved in learning language.

Other technological means that can be used to improve language ability are voice-chat programs such as Skype, google talk and messenger programs such as MSN and Yahoo. These voice-chat programs allow people to talk to others around the world in real time and they are free of cost to use. Users can then use these voice programs to call each other and practice oral skills by applying new language items learned through writing and reading. Many students and professionals around the world have lengthy commutes to and from school or work, downloading podcasts onto a listening device makes exposure to spoken English possible on a train, bus, or even while stuck in rush-hour traffic.

Benefits of Autonomous Learning

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The students who are more introverted and concerned about privacy issues, the use of virtual worlds to encourage learning is an attractive option. Instead of sharing personal information with strangers, the learner can instead share information about their virtual character that they have created based on their fantasy and interests. This would be a great way to build both confidence and networking skills with a foreign language. Again, the merits of this approach rely on the studying goals of the learner. In an autonomy-focused classroom, the teacher introduces a range of learning activities and tasks by taking the students' needs and interests into consideration as opposed to a non-autonomous classroom where students are exposed to the activities they are expected to perform.

Conclusion

Autonomy in learning is a process and not a product that many students seek today. Autonomy requires understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses and accumulating a diverse set of resources that will maximize exposure and improvements in speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

It is difficult to improve language skills exclusively through autonomous learning. Skills can be learned by studying independently and with other EFL students, but skills are only truly assimilated when they can be confirmed and responded to by a qualified mentor. In most cases, this is achieved in a formal classroom environment. This benefits the students by preventing false reinforcement of mistakes and encouraging critical thinking when using public means to communicate such as chat sites and Internet forums. By using the activities mentioned in this paper and by becoming more educated about the opportunities presented to bilingual learners and professionals, an increased interest in independent and formal language learning should ensue with great benefit.

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