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Pause Duration in Typical Speaking Malayalam Children

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Pause Duration in Typical Speaking Malayalam Children

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Speech as a complex highly skilled motor act of which the complexity and stabilization will continue to adolescent years. It comprises three components that are voice, articulation and fluency. (Kent, 1976)

Speech is the expression of ideas and thoughts by means of articulate vocal sounds or the faculty of thus expressing ideas and thoughts.

[//http.wikipedia.com//](http://http.wikipedia.com//)

Fluency according to ordinary usage, is the ability to speak a second language rapidly and continuously and without any effort or thought. The term fluency is derived from the Latin for “fluere” describes what the listener perceives when listening to someone who is truly adopted at producing speech.

American Speech and Hearing (ASHA, 1999) Special Interest Division (SID) 4 defined Disfluency as Speech that exhibits deviations in Continuity, smoothness and ease of rate and effort.

Speaking Fluency is also an important component of communication competence because the ability of Speaking fluently can help the speaker to produce continuous speech without comprehension difficulties for the listener and to maintain the communicative ideas. Disruptions in the forward flow of speech may consist of:

- Repetitions: repeating of a syllable, sound, word, or phrase (e.g., “li-li-li-like this”).
- Prolongations: holding onto a sound for an extended period of time (e.g., ”lllllike this”).
- Blocks: no sound is produced then a “burst” of tension is released when the speaker is able to vocalize (e.g., “----like this”).
- Interjections: extra words (e.g., “um,uh,like”).
- Revisions: Speech is revised during and utterance (e.g., “I have to go...I need to go to the

store”).

Pauses refer to silent intervals in the flow of speech and they may be voluntary, circumstantial, meditative or involuntary. Except Silent prolongation the remaining three types of pauses are not distinctive of stuttering (Wingate,1964). Similarly involuntary interjections can be identified either as an audible prolongation (a--) or repetition (-uh-uh-uh'). Presence of pauses and other hesitations can make a speaker disfluent but not necessarily a stutterer. There are two types of pauses.

Filled pauses and **Unfilled pauses** is an articulation by the speaker that may be encountered between utterances but is not to be mistaken for a lengthened sound within a word. The duration of filled pauses diminishes rapidly from kindergarten to second grade and then continues to diminish more gradually during the rest of the school years. Unfilled pauses are silent intervals in speech that is a pause not filled by hesitation form is unfilled pause. (Connel and Sabin, 1975). Silent pauses include intervals of silence within stretches of speech. However, not all silent intervals necessarily count as hesitation phenomena. Many of these silent pauses are simply juncture pauses (e.g., corresponding in writing) or pauses for articulatory reasons.

There are evidences to show that the child's speech becomes more and more continuous from age two (Yairi,1981)Kindergarten children's speech is two percent more disfluent than that of high school children (Connel and Sabin,1975) But there is a discontinuity that school children show (Starkweather,1987).

Sabin, Clemmer, O'Connell and Kowal (1979) indicated a sharp decrease in pause frequency and duration from kindergarten to 2nd grade and another, gentler decrease from 6th to 8th grade. Such results align nicely with age-dependent increases in speech rate age-dependent decreases in segmental durations and of course with the general increases in cognitive processing and language abilities that occur during childhood. He also added that the largest developmental difference in pausing occurs between kindergarten (5 and 6 years old) and 2nd grade (7 and 8 years old).

Cooper and Paccia-Cooper (1980) agreed with the assumption that silent pauses reflected time needed to plan upcoming language, they also noted that the pausing (and lengthening) were affected by preceding linguistic structure.

Nagapoornima (1990) studied the disfluencies in 12 Kannada speaking normal children between the age range of 3-4 years. Results indicated that these subjects had maximum number of unfilled pauses, followed by filled pauses, parenthetical remarks, repetitions and false starts. The disfluencies were more for the picture description task and they occurred more in initial position, except for parenthetical remarks, which were seen more in storytelling task and in the medial position. Disfluencies were also found to be more before content words especially nouns.

Redford (2013) suggest that differences in child and adult pausing reflect differences in child and adult language but not in the cognitive resources allocated to language production.

Verbal fluency is necessary for optimal communication and for normal social and occupational functioning. The information obtained from word fluency has been used to understand the vocabulary size, lexical knowledge, speed of lexical access in both healthy and disordered adults and children. Thus, there is a need of studying fluency in various language.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The term fluency, derived from the Latin word “fluere” meaning to flow (Guillot, 1999).

Fluency means the non-stuttered and forward flow of verbal utterances in terms of both content and production (Starkweather, 1987). Most people experience instances of disfluency in their speech that would not be considered stuttering. Normal disfluencies reflect a temporary stage of language learning and communication development. Distinguishing between disfluencies that are normal and those that represent the danger of incipient stuttering is a critical skill for speech-language pathologists. Interruptions in the flow of speech commonly referred to, as disfluencies are the most obvious features of stuttering. Further, disfluent events are obligatory signs of stuttering and have been the most frequently used parameter to describe, define and measure the disorder. Disfluencies, however, are also found in the speech of speakers who are not regarded as exhibiting stuttering.

Regardless of age, gender, ethnic background, socioeconomic status, religion or creed, human speech is usually fluent. Speech disruptions occur in the steady flow of spontaneous discourse; these include silent pauses and vocal hesitations (Connell and Sabin, 1975). *Silent pauses* are the periods of time when no phonation is being made during spoken discourse. In research on speech disruptions, silent pauses typically refer to the silent intervals that are equal to or greater than 250ms (Eisler, 1968). Silent intervals of fewer than 250 ms are considered to serve an articulatory rather than cognitive function in speech production and are not counted as silent pauses.

Classification of disfluencies given by Johnson(1961).

1. Interjection of sounds, syllables, words or phrases: Refers to extraneous utterances in the flow of connected speech, such as sounds(“um”, “uh”, words (“well”, “okay”), or phrase (“let me see”, “excuse me”). They may be considered as essentially sound filled pauses, for they constitute a temporal interval in the flow of a speech sequence to which they are not integral. Though these occur in normal speech also. In stutterers, these have

the character of a prolongation or an elemental repetition. It may also occur at inappropriate places and at grammatically unlikely loci.

2. **Part-word repetitions:** -These included repetitions of syllables and sounds. Ruh-Ruhrun p-p pens etc. Are examples of part word repetitions.

3. **Word repetitions:** This category includes repetition of words, including those of one syllable Saw-saw, but-but etc.

4. **Phrase repetitions:** This refers to repetitions of two or more words I.e. a word string. e.g. He gave -he gave this.

5. **Revisions:**-These kinds of dysfluencies represent changes in pronunciation, wording, grammatical structure or content of what is said. e.g. He do-he does not know.

6. **Incomplete phrases:** - This is one in which the thought or context is not completed and this is neither considered as an instance of phrase repetition. e.g,- she was and after she got there he came.

7. **Broken words:** - This type of fluency disturbance is exemplified in the sentence. This can be considered as an instance of silent prolongation, occurring within a word rather than between words.

8. **Prolonged sounds:** This is used to refer to extension of sounds beyond its appropriate duration. Temporal length is thus the essential dimension for discriminating these. These are very often associated with visual or auditory cues.

Western Studies

McDaniel, McKee and Garrett (2010) measures non-fluency patterns in elicited utterances of varied syntactic type. We describe and interpret several regularities in these patterns for two groups of children ('young': three-five-year-olds; and 'older': six-eight-year-olds) and an adult comparison group. The evidence indicates a strong correspondence of adult and child responses to structural complexity, both in terms of global fluency measures and in terms of more detailed indicators of planning load. Children are also reported to pause more frequently at clause boundaries than elsewhere in a sentence.

Korvick (2010) studied on the effects of the pause procedure on classroom engagement and suggests that the introduction of the pause procedure during the lecture/discussion portion of upper level nursing classes at a small, private, liberal arts university will have no effect on cognitive load.

Tanaka, Sakamoto and Suzuki (2011) analyzed on the interaction between pause duration and speech-expansion in spoken language comprehension and it is stated that higher sentence intelligibility was obtained with a relatively short time expansion (i.e., 100 ms) when the pause between phrases was long enough (i.e., 300 and 400 ms) in both younger and older listeners. By inserting a pause between phrases, participants can use more time for higher cognitive processes.

Redford (2013) suggest that differences in child and adult pausing reflect differences in child and adult language, not in the cognitive resources allocated to language production.

Marklund, Lacerda and Schwarz (2014) compares parental pause and utterance duration in conversations with Swedish speaking children at age 1;6 who have either a large, typical, or small expressive vocabulary, as measured by the Swedish version of the McArthur-Bates CDI which states that pause duration varies with the vocabulary size of the children, and as a result durational aspects of the language environment to which the children are exposed also varies. Parents of children in the large vocabulary size group respond faster to child utterances than do parents of children in the typical vocabulary size group, who in turn respond faster to child utterances than do parents of children in the small vocabulary size group.

Hedenqvist, Persson, Robert and Eklund (2015) investigated on the prevalence of disfluencies in a group of 55 (25F/30M) Swedish children with typical speech development, and within the age range 6;0 and 6;11. Results showed that girls produced significantly more unfilled pauses, prolongations and sound repetitions, while boys produced more word repetitions. However, no correlation with lexical development was found.

Rosa (2018) done a descriptive analysis on how student translators and professional translators managed the pauses in a translation process. It was found that student translators took the longest pauses in the drafting phase spent to solve the

problems related to finding out the right equivalent for the ST words or terms and to solve the difficulties encountered in encoding their ST understanding in the TL; meanwhile, professional translators took the longest pauses in the post-drafting phase spent to ensure whether their TT had been natural and whether their TT had corresponded to the prevailing grammatical rules of the TL.

Brundage and Rowe (2018) investigated the typical disfluency rates at 30 months old in a large group of simultaneous bilingual children and also investigate the relationships between disfluency rates and linguistic complexity (mean length of utterance in words [MLU-W]), vocabulary diversity (VocD), and speaking rate (utterances per unit time). The study states that the typical disfluency rates of a large group of simultaneous Spanish–English bilingual children at 30 months of age reported to be lower than those monolingual children of similar ages.

Matzinger, Ritt and Fitch (2020) investigated whether non-native speakers pause ‘with a foreign accent’. They recorded native English speakers and non-native speakers of German or Serbo-Croatian with excellent English reading out an English text at three different speech rates, and analyzed their vocal output in terms of number, duration and location of pauses. Overall, all non-native speakers were identified by native raters as having non-native accents, but native and non-native speakers made pauses that were similarly long, and had similar ratios of pause time compared to total speaking time. Furthermore, all speakers changed their pausing behavior similarly at different speech rates. The only clear difference between native and non-native speakers was that the latter made more pauses than the native speakers. Thus, overall, pause patterns contributed little to the acoustic characteristics of speakers’ non-native accents, when reading aloud.

Silvén, Lehtiö and Eggers (2020) studied the speech disfluencies of 54 typically fluent Finnish-speaking children: 14 children randomly selected from a longitudinal study (age levels 2, 3, and 4 years), and 40 children from a cross-sectional study (age levels 6, 7, 8, and 9 years). No significant within-age effect was found for the total frequency of disfluencies or disfluency types among the 2- to 4-year-olds. Across the 6- to 9-year-olds, between-group differences were found for the total frequency and type of disfluencies.

Indian Studies

Ram and Savithri (2007) analyzed to identify the disfluencies such as Frequency and types of disfluencies and the effect of gender on disfluencies. Results showed that majority of the children had almost all the disfluency types. The most prominent disfluency type was sound repetitions.

James (2011) studied on nature of disfluencies in typically developing Malayalam speaking children with the age range of 3-6 years and the results revealed that speech of 3-6-year-old normal speaking children contains almost all the dis fluency types. High proportions of silent pauses, sound or syllable interjections, whole word interjections and whole word and part word repetitions are the most frequent disfluencies occurred in short story narration, song recitation and general conversation.

Abraham, Janet, Arya and Kumaraswamy (2015) studied on the difference in filled and unfilled pause duration in typically developing Malayalam speaking children across the age group of 6-8years in tasks including conversation and picture description. The study states that there is not much variation in the filled pause duration whereas the unfilled pause showed a consistent general progression across the age group for conversation task. In picture description task, there was no significant difference for the filled and unfilled pause duration across the age group.

James and Gopinath (2015) has developed a model for analyzing the factors that affect pause duration in Malayalam languages and the preceding and succeeding phrase length effect on pause duration. The results showed that the position of the pause influence pause duration and also the duration of preceding and succeeding phrase has an effect on pause duration.

Ram and Savithri (2015) studies on the pause patterns present in storytelling style speech based on the modes of discourse: narrative, descriptive and dialogue to capture the story-semantic information. Analysis of pause patterns are carried out for children stories in Hindi language. We analyzed the pause patterns and classified pauses into three different categories: short, medium and long pauses for each mode of discourse. A three stage data-driven method is proposed to predict the position and duration of the pauses. The subjective evaluation connotes that the subjects have perceived an improvement in speech quality in terms of storytelling style.

Rathika, Kanaka, John and Rajashekar (2012) states that pauses had the maximum percentage across all the age group. There is a decrease in trend been observed among pauses where as the age increases there is a decline in filled and unfilled pauses produced.

Joseph (2015) investigated 1) the frequency of disfluencies, and types of disfluencies exhibited by 3 – 5 year old typically developing Telugu speaking children, 2) whether age, gender or speech elicitation tasks have any impact on disfluencies. : The study suggests that disfluencies are greater as age increases (from 3 to 5 years old). Males showed the highest values of total disfluencies than females. Picture description task is more disfluent than other two speech elicitation tasks. Among the disfluencies, the pause has the highest frequency of occurrence regardless of age or gender.

Sarkar and Rao (2015) studied on the three stage data-driven pause prediction model to learn the pause pattern present in storytelling style speech based on three discourse modes. The CART models are evaluated both by conducting objective and subjective measures where the perceptual evaluation indicates that the proposed method is effective in imposing pauses in synthesized speech utterance.

Jeena (2019) studied on the pause prediction during synthesis of speech and devised a new approach and an IPU - based TTS system is proposed for Indian languages, based on this a new approach to pause prediction during synthesis is devised an IPA based TTS system is proposed for indian language

Pachaiappan, Sowmya and Remya (2020) studied on identifying pattern of disfluencies in school going Tamil and English medium children. The study state that the mean percentage of occurance of disfluencies were found to be more in English medium children when compared to Tamil medium children.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Research evidences done on early speech disfluencies across the indian subcontinent (Nagapoornima, Indu and Yamini, 1990; Rajendraswamy, 1991; Sharma,1991; Joby, 1998; Paulene and Bhoominathan,2008), there data are diverse. Since stuttering and other fluency disorders are observed universally across culture and languages, there is a need to study the development trends in fluency in children belonging to culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. The study may provide a tool in future for differentiate between normal non fluency and developmental stuttering in children.

Verbal fluency is necessary for optimal communication and for normal social and occupational functioning. The information obtained from word fluency has been used to understand the vocabulary size, lexical knowledge, speed of lexical access in both healthy and disordered adults and children. Thus, there is a need of studying fluency in various language.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Aim of the study

The present study aimed at analyzing the difference in filled and unfilled pause duration in typical children speaking Malayalam across the age group of 10-15years for tasks like conversation and picture description.

Objectives of the study:

1. To investigate whether any variation for duration in filled and unfilled pauses across 10- 15years during conversation and picture description.
2. To study the changes in filled and unfilled pauses across age group for conversation and picture description.

Participants

A total of 45 children further divided into three groups i.e 15 (10-11.11 years), 15 (12-13.11years) and 15 (14-15.11 years). All the children were native speakers of Malayalam and had no history of Speech, Language, hearing and/or neurological conditions.

Procedure

The recording was carried out in a natural well illuminated environment and the responses were audio recorded. Children were made to sit comfortably on the chair with one feet distance from the recorder placed on the table. Two different tasks (Picture description and Conversation) were recorded to understand the pause duration in children.

Analysis

The recorded speech samples was analyzed for Pause duration and values were tabulated and analyzed statistically using Paired 'T' test and Bonferroni test for significance.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to analyze the duration of filled and unfilled pause in typical children of 10-15 years. The data was analyzed and the results are discussed below.

Picture Description

Figure 4.1:

Shows the statistical values for Filled and Unfilled pauses in Picture description task.

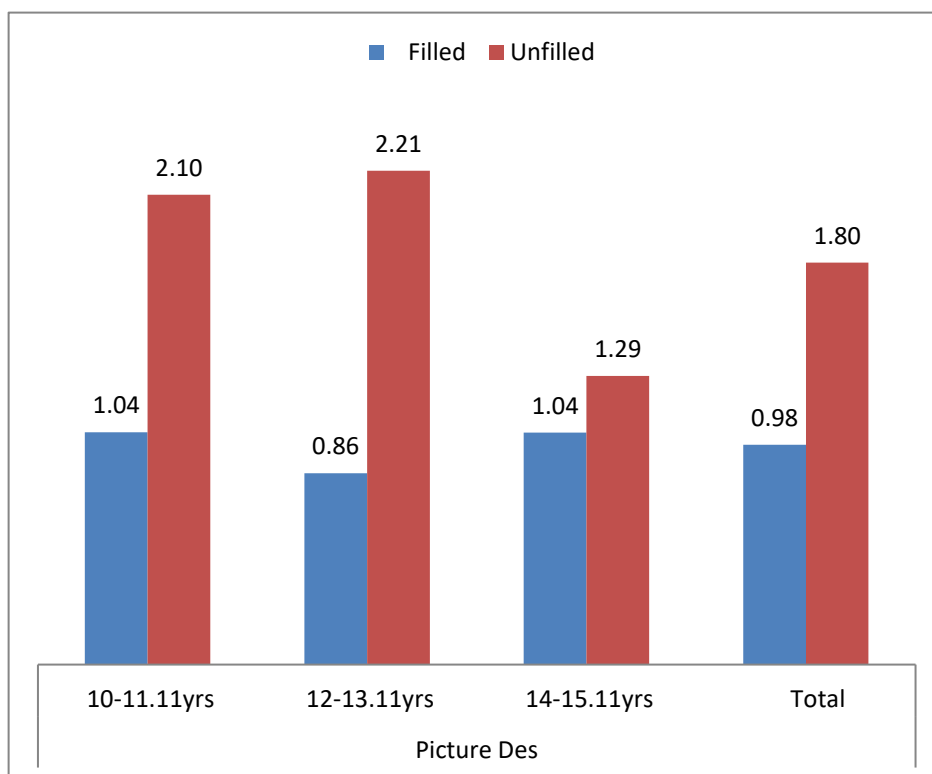


Table 4.1:

Shows the statistical values for Filled and Unfilled pauses in Picture description tasks.

Parameter			N	Mean	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		ANOVA test value	p
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Picture Des	Filled	10-11.11yrs	18	1.04	0.59	0.75	1.33	0.300	NS
		12-13.11yrs	20	0.86	0.37	0.69	1.03		
		14-15.11yrs	29	1.04	0.37	0.90	1.18		
		Total	67	0.98	0.44	0.88	1.09		
	Unfilled	10-11.11yrs	25	2.10	1.68	1.41	2.80	0.041	SIG
		12-13.11yrs	21	2.21	1.94	1.33	3.09		
		14-15.11yrs	32	1.29	0.72	1.03	1.55		
		Total	78	1.80	1.50	1.46	2.14		

NS – Non Significant, SIG- Significant

From the above table 4.1 and figure 4.1 it is clearly evident that unfilled pauses were more seen in all 3 groups of population. When data was statistically analyzed across the group significant difference ($p=0.04$) was observed for unfilled pauses and no significant difference ($p=0.300$) were noted for filled pauses.

Conversation

Figure 4.2:

Shows the statistical values for Filled and Unfilled pauses in Conversational task.

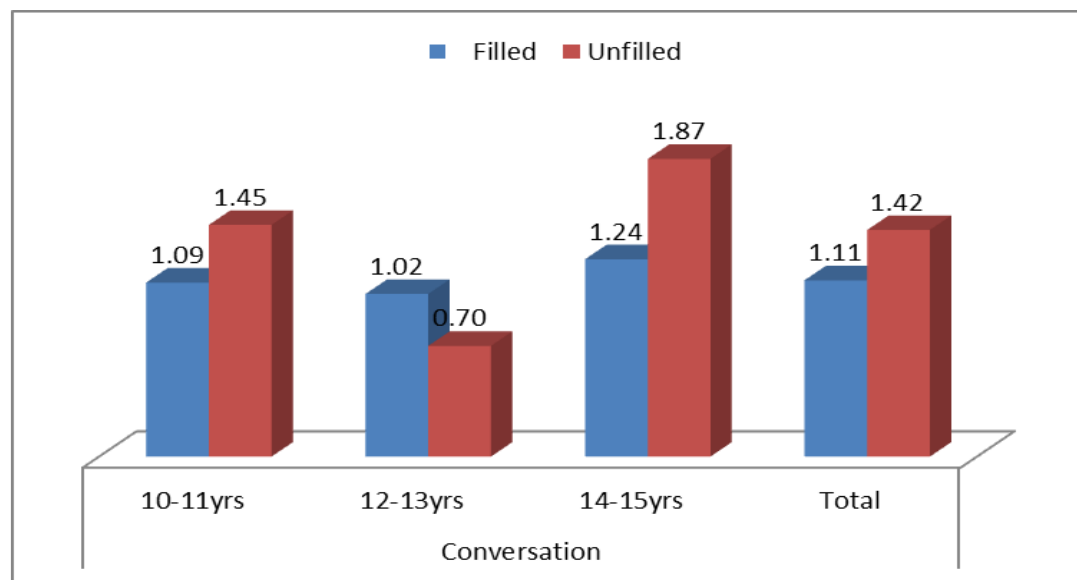


Table 4.2:

Shows the statistical values for Filled and Unfilled pauses in Conversational task

Parameter			N	Me an	Std. Deviati on	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		ANO VA test p value	
						Low er Bound	Upper Bound		
Conversation	Filled	10- 11.11y rs	1 8	1.0 9	0.62	0.79	1.40	0.586	NS
		12- 13.11y rs	1 4	1.0 2	0.48	0.74	1.30		
		14- 15.11y rs	1 1	1.2 4	0.39	0.98	1.50		
		Total	4 3	1.1 1	0.52	0.95	1.27		
	Unfilled	10- 11.11y rs	1 3	1.4 5	0.44	1.19	1.72	0.002	HS
		12- 13.11y rs	1 1	0.7 0	0.71	0.22	1.17		
		14- 15.11y rs	1 7	1.8 7	1.04	1.33	2.41		
		Total	4 1	1.4 2	0.92	1.13	1.71		

NS – Non Significant, HS- Highly Significant

From the above table 4.2 and figure 4.2 it can be seen that unfilled pauses were more produced by all the 3 groups. The analysis of the samples showed a high significance difference for unfilled pauses ($p = .002$) as compared to filled pauses which showed no significance ($p = 0.586$) statistically.

Table 4.3:

Shows the comparison values of both Filled and unfilled pauses in Conversational and Picture description task

Parameter			N	Me an	Std. Devia tion	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		ANO VA test p value	
10- 11.11 yrs	Conversation	Filled	18	1.09	0.62	0.79	1.40	0.08 1	NS
		Unfill ed	13	1.45	0.44	1.19	1.72		
	Picture Des	Filled	18	1.04	0.59	0.75	1.33	0.01 4	Sig
		Unfill ed	25	2.10	1.68	1.41	2.80		
12- 13.11 yrs	Conversation	Filled	14	1.02	0.48	0.74	1.30	0.18 4	NS
		Unfill ed	11	0.70	0.71	0.22	1.17		
	Picture Des	Filled	20	0.86	0.37	0.69	1.03	0.00 4	HS
		Unfill ed	21	2.21	1.94	1.33	3.09		
14- 15.11 yrs	Conversation	Filled	11	1.24	0.39	0.98	1.50	0.06 7	NS
		Unfill ed	17	1.87	1.04	1.33	2.41		
	Picture Des	Filled	29	1.04	0.37	0.90	1.18	0.09 4	NS
		Unfill ed	32	1.29	0.72	1.03	1.55		

NS – Non Significant, HS- Highly Significant, SIG - Significant

Upon comparing of data across the age group for conversation and picture description, significant difference ($p=0.014$) was seen for 10-11.11 years age group and High significant difference ($p=0.004$) was noted for 12-13.11 years age group for unfilled pauses. No significant difference was seen for other age group for either tasks i.e, picture description and conversation

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to analyze pause duration in 10-15 years typical children speaking Malayalam focusing on filled and unfilled pauses in general conversation and picture description task. From the results it can be seen that the unfilled pauses had more variation compared to that of filled pauses across the age groups.

In picture description task, significant difference was seen for unfilled pauses and no significant difference was noted for filled pauses across the age group.

In the conversation task, high significant difference was noted for unfilled pauses and no significant difference was seen for filled pauses across age groups.

The cross comparison of data across age groups and tasks (picture description and conversation) Significant difference was seen for filled and unfilled pauses for picture description, (10-11.11 years) High significant difference(12-13.11 years) was seen for filled and unfilled pauses in picture description, and other age groups showed no significant difference for both tasks. The present study is in accordance with Abraham, Janet and Kumaraswamy (2015), when they says that there is no much variation in filled pause but much variation as same for unfilled pauses.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Verbal fluency is necessary for optimal communication and for normal social and occupational functioning. Pauses refer to silent intervals in the flow of speech and they may be voluntary, circumstantial, meditative or involuntary. There are two types of pauses, filled pauses or unfilled pause that are studied. Research evidences from the review of literature shows speech disfluencies across the languages and culture. The present study aimed to analyze the pause duration in 10-15 years typical children speaking Malayalam, 45 children who were further divided into 3 groups form the data base. The general conversation and picture description task were recorded and further analyzed for filled and unfilled pause duration. The statistical results reveal that much variation was seen for unfilled pauses rather than filled pauses across the age group and the present study is in accordance with the study done by Abraham, Janet, Arya and Kumaraswamy (2015) were they said that more variations present in unfilled pauses rather than filled pauses.

CHAPTER - 6

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APPENDIX

1) PICTURE DESCRIPTION



2) CONVERSATION

Examiner: Hello, Peru entha?

Participant1: XYZ..

Examiner: Veedevida, enthokeaanne hobbies?

Participant1: Veedkottayam, Hobbies ahh.....Cooking ,Dancing,pne.....,Drawing

Impact of Screen Time with Children 2-5 Years A Pilot Study

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Abstract

Screen Dependency Disorder or SDD refers to screen-related ‘addictive’ behavior. Sigman (2017) suggested that various screen activities that induce structural and functional brain plasticity in adults.

PURPOSE	The aim of the study was to find the impact of Screen time on children who were exposed for more than 2-3 hours per day by analyzing the working memory in children of 2-5years who had continuous expose to media for 2-5 and more hours per day.
METHOD	Ten children in the age range 2-5years who were exposed to mobile phones for more than 2-5 hours. The hours of exposure were calculated by instructing the caretakers one week prior and the recordings were taken. The Children were given with the tasks of CELF-5 during the recording hours and the responses of working memory were analyzed.
CONCLUSION	The results showed high significant difference in alphabets followed by months in comparison with other tasks.

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Introduction

Screen dependency disorder is a modern age health challenge for both kids and adults. Research proclaims that the excessive use of mobile phones and exposure to blue light have impact on children's brain which can lead to Screen Dependency Disorder (SDD). Children learn language through stimulation and environmental exposure during their critical period of development. American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recommends a maximum of one hour screen time a day for children from 2 to 5 years and babies below 18 months should avoid it altogether. Researchers have shown that excessive use of screen leads to sleep problems, weight loss, difficulties with communication, socialization, and brain development. In children, Screen Dependency Disorder or SDD refers to screen-related 'addictive' behavior. Sigman (2017) suggested that various screen activities that induce structural and functional brain plasticity in adults. The usage time in childhood with symbolize alter the anatomical structure of brain connectivity. Paulus, Ohmann, Gontard and Popow (2018) says that internet gaming disorder (IGD) is leading to and maintain pertinent personal and social impairment and suggested that the concept of internet gaming disorder(IGD) and the pathway leading to it are not entirely clear. Sarojini, Gayathri and Priya (2019) determined the awareness of SDD among IT professionals and suggest that SDD tend to experience a variety of symptoms. Digital natives exhibit a higher prevalence of screen-related 'addictive' behaviors that reflect impaired neurological reward-processing and impulse-control mechanisms. Since there is a scarcity of literature evidence to prove the high necessity to study in detail about the language impairment, brain functioning, and behavior changes caused due to SDD.

Need for the Study

The aim of the study was to find the impact of Screen time on children who were exposed for more than 2-3 hours per day by analyzing the working memory in children of 2-5years who had continuous expose to media for 2-5 and more hours per day.

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Methodology

Ten children in the age range 2-5 years who were exposed to mobile phones for more than 2-5 hours. The hours of exposure were calculated by instructing the caretakers one week prior and the recordings were taken. The Children were given with the tasks of CELF-5 during the recording hours and the responses of working memory were statistically analyzed.

The parents were instructed to record the usage time of smart phone one week prior to analysis. The parents had recorded the usage time that is from the child start using the smart phone to the end time.

The clinician had provided activities to analyze the working memory of the child and the activities where alphabets, numbers, shapes, colours, shape and colours. Each activity consists of sufficient number of tasks. The maximum time slot allotted for each task is 2 minutes. The working memory with the above task were analysed in 10 children whose recording of smart phone usage were observed to be 2-5 hours a day. The analysis was done based on the time used to complete the task.

Results

	RESPONSE		Total
	No	Yes	
TASK ALPHABET SQ	7 70.0%	3 30.0%	10 100.0%
COLOURS	0 .0%	10 100.0%	10 100.0%
MONTHS	5 50.0%	5 50.0%	10 100.0%
NUMBERS	2 20.0%	8 80.0%	10 100.0%
SHAPES	5 50.0%	5 50.0%	10 100.0%
SHAPES+COLOUR	6 60.0%	4 40.0%	10 100.0%
Total	25 41.7%	35 58.3%	60 100.0%

Table 1.1 shows the responses from the children after 2 to 5 hours of media exposure.

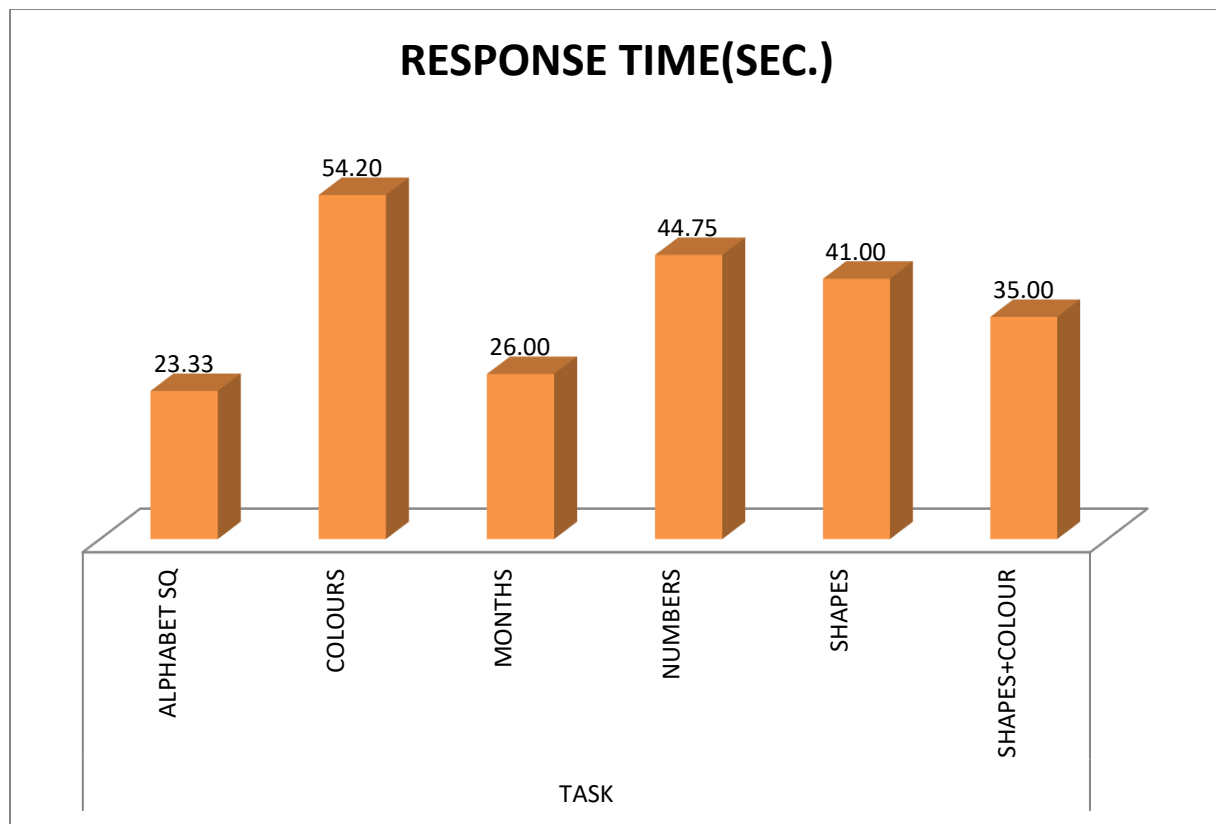


Figure 1.1 Depicts the responses in each task in working memory

From the above Table 1.1 it can be noted that children of 2-5 years under exposure of media (2-5 hours) presented with restricted responses in working memory tasks and exhibited with more reaction time in responding each tasks. It also gives clear evidence that responses in Colors and Numbers were better as compared to other tasks. The statistical results showed high significant difference in alphabets followed by months in comparison with other tasks.

Conclusion

Screen Dependency disorder refers to screen-related ‘addictive’ behavior. Excessive use of mobile phones and exposure to blue lights can impact your kid’s brain which can lead to a disorder called Screen Dependency Disorder (SDD). The above study can be concluded that there is an adverse effect in working memory over young developing children.

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ELICACY 2018, Screen dependency disorder is real, and it damage your child's brain.

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Impact of Screen Time

**Mother Tongue Interferences amongst
Nicobarese Students Learning English as a Second Language at
Undergraduate Level in Andaman & Nicobar Islands:
A Study in Error Analysis**

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Abstract

This paper identifies the problems of learning and teaching English as second language in colleges of Andaman and Nicobar Islands primarily by those who are speakers of 'Nicobarese' language in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The main focus of the study is Great Andamanese language and Nicobarese Mother Tongue interferences in learning English as a second language. This study also focuses on the importance of English language education based on the problems of the present-day language curriculum in Andaman. The research also aims to explore the experience of students learning English as a second language and the problems faced by them in reading and writing skills.

Keywords: Error Analysis, Intra lingual errors, Interlingua errors, Mother Tongue Interferences (MTI), Great Andamanese Interferences, Structure and the complexity of the target language, English as a second language (ESL), interference.

1 Introduction

In the process of English Language Learning and teaching there are many difficulties and challenges faced by the Nicobarese English learners specially to attaining basic language skills (LSRW). Several issues crop up while learning and teaching English as a second language. In this situation, English language teachers are trying various techniques and teaching methods in schools and colleges. The challenges are not completely overcome. So an attempt has been made to study the challenges while learning and teaching English in Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

This work aims to explore the difficulties and challenges faced by Nicobarese students learning English as a second language at under graduation level in Andaman and Nicobar Islands

and the problems faced by them can be found in **Mother Tongue Interference**, reading, and writing skills.

According to Sharma (2013), the term Nicobar has been derived from the word 'nakkavaram' which means hill and 'itam' means place and is used to denote Chola Island.

Nicobarese speak their own language 'Pu', and Grierson (1927, PP. 32f), asserted that there are 5 dialects. The people who speak Nicobarese basically belong to a hunter-gatherer community living along the western coast of the Andaman & Nicobar Islands, a part of the Union Territory of India. However, today they are well integrated into modern lifestyle, and they are found in all walks of life. The term 'Nicobarese' is used for the language/ the people/community and their Island, although Nicobarese call them 'pu'.

The Andaman Islands have been the home for indigenous communities comprising of Great Andamanese, Onge, Jarawa, Sentinelese and Nicobarese. All these communities represent 'the first Palaeolithic colonizers of South-East Asia' (Thangaraj, et al, 2003) and remained in isolation for a longer period than any known population of the world.

2. Language of the Nicobarese People

Nicobarese people's mother tongue is Nicobarese Language. Native people called it **Pu**. It belongs to the eastern group of Austro-Asiatic language family. Nicobarese speaks various dialects in Nicobarese language, like Car dialect, Tarasa, Sawai, Pujjuka, Pu along with Khora etc. **Car** is a standard dialect of Nicobarese language (Whitehead G. 1925). It is mostly spoken in Car Nicobar Island.

This work aims to explore the difficulties and challenges faced by Nicobarese students learning English as a second language at the undergraduate level in colleges in Andaman and Nicobar Islands and the problems faced by them in reading and writing skills.

a. Landscape

An archipelago of 572 islands, rocks and rocky outcrop covering an area of 8249 sq km in the Bay of Bengal constitutes Andaman and Nicobar Islands which is a part of the Union Territory of India. It has two sets of islands, namely Andaman, and Nicobar. The two sets of islands are separated by a 150 km wide channel called the Ten Degree Channel. Andaman is spread over 6408 sq km, and is made up of about 550 islands, rocks, and rocky outcrop out of which only 26 are permanently inhabited. Nicobar covers an area of 1841 sq km stretching over 24 Islands out of which 11 are permanently inhabited.

The islands of the archipelago lie in a crescent that stretches from Cape Negrais of Myanmar to the Banda Arc of Sumatra of Indonesia. The Andamans are considered to be the extensions of the submerged Arakan Yoma mountain range of Myanmar, while the Mentawai Islands to the south and southwest of Sumatra are presumed to be a southern continuation of the Nicobars. The Andaman Islands lie between latitudes 10°13' and 10°30'N and longitudes 90°15'E and 93°10'E. The entire set of Andaman Islands is divided into two: Great Andaman and Little Andaman. Little Andaman is 120 km south from the town of Port Blair. Great Andaman has three main islands, namely North, Middle and South Andaman, separated by narrow passages. The nearest landmass in the north is Myanmar, roughly 280 km from Landfall Island, the northern most islands in the group. The closest landmass to Great Nicobar in the south is Sumatra, which is located at a distance of 145 km. The capital of Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Port Blair, is a small town in South Andaman, at a distance of 1,225 km from Kolkata and 1,190 km from Chennai. To the east of Middle Andaman is a group of islands known as Ritchie's Archipelago, while the Labyrinth group of islands is situated southwest of South Andaman. Ninety per cent of the total area of the Andaman group comprises reserve forests and protected areas. Thirty six per cent of this land is demarcated as tribal reserves. Narcondam and Barren are two islands of volcanic origin. The former is supposedly extinct, while the latter is still active.

The Nicobar group is spread over an area of 1841 sq km of which 1542 sq km area is covered by forests. This group consists of 24 islands in three distinct clusters. The northern group consists of Car Nicobar and Batti Malv; the central or the Nancowry group includes Tillangchong, Chowra, Teressa, Bompoka, Trinkat, Kamorta, Katchal, and Nancowry. The southern group consists of the two large islands of Little and Great Nicobar together with Pigeon, Megapode, Kondul, Pilo Milo, Menchal, Teris, Trak and Meroe Islands. The entire Nicobars have been declared a tribal reserve. This group of islands is situated in the equatorial belt and has a tropical climate which is warm, moist, and equitable. The temperature here ranges from 18°C to 35°C. They receive rains from both the Northeast and the Southwest monsoons, with average annual rainfall in the range of 3000–3500 mm.

b. Demography

The present day Andaman and Nicobar Islands is home to people belonging to different sects and religions. The arrival of non-autochthons (non-indigenous) started with the establishment of the British colony when the colonizers brought in with them laborers, convicts, and others. Many of them settled in the Islands. Government policies in the Post-Independence era were also marked by inhabiting the Islands with non-autochthons to colonize the Islands. In this era the first settlers on the islands were groups mostly consisting of refugees from

Bangladesh (then East Pakistan) and Sri Lanka. The inflow of non-autochthons continued, and islands were populated by different types of communities. The group of non-autochthons included people who came to the Islands to seek jobs (some as contract laborers) and for trades. This resulted in a varied population which settled in various pockets throughout the Island. Some of these pockets are located on the fringes of Jarawa Reserve Area.

c. Nicobar Island

Nicobar is one of the districts of Andaman Union Territory. ‘Nicobarese’ is the language of the people of the Island of Car Nicobar, which is part of the Malay Peninsula. Car Nicobar is the northern most, most heavily populated, and flourishing Island of the Nicobar group.

Since the middle of the seventeenth century the ‘Nicobarese’ speakers have been in contact with the outer world. Portuguese sailors and French missionaries are the first people recorded to have stepped on the Islands. There are more than three tribal groups (namely, *the Nicobarese*, *Shompen* and *Keran*) living in Nicobar district. The Car Nicobar is one of the most important dialects and is locally called ‘*Pu*’. It is considered the standard dialect. The ‘*Pu*’ language belongs to Austro-Asiatic family. This language community lives in many Islands like Car Nicobar, Camorta, Katchal, Campbell Bay, Tarasa, Rangat, Mayabunder and Port Blair. The medium of instruction in the schools and Colleges of Andaman and Nicobar Islands is Hindi, English, Tamil, Telugu, or Bangla.

3. Related Studies

The term *tribe* is derived from the Latin word ‘tribes’ meaning the ‘poor or the masses’. In English language the word *tribe* appeared in the sixteenth century and denoted a community of persons claiming descent from a common ancestor.

Sakthivel (1976) states that the term ‘tribe’ is derived from a Latin root, the middle English term ‘tribuz’ meaning three divisions into which the early Romans were grouped, which later came to evolve as the modern English word ‘tribe’. With the Romans, the ‘tribe’ was a political division while the Greeks seem to have equated it somewhat with their ‘fraternities’ at some times and with geographical divisions at others.

In Irish history, though, the term meant families or communities of persons having the same family name; nowadays the anthropologists and sociolinguistics of western origin have defined the term as ‘a race of people, now apply especially to a primary collective of people in a prehistoric or barbarous state under a head man or chief’.

3.1. Linguistics Profile of the Region

According to the Census of India 2011, the total population of ‘Nicobarese’ tribes is 36,844 in state population. Their population in Car Nicobar is 17,841 (2014) There are 15 villages with no panchayat but only a Tribal council in the hamlets in Car Nicobar. According to RP Sharma (2013) the term Nicobar has been derived from the word ‘nakkavaram’ *nakkam* (boat or ship)+*varam* (place or base) which means shipyard or Naval base, hill and ‘itam’ means place and is used to denote Chola island. Nicobarese speak their own dialect *Pu*. These people migrated to many islands. Karunakaran (1971) says, “The dialect of the Nicobar Tribes is a dialect of Nicobarese and is being spoken by 11020 people who live in Nicobar. Car Nicobar is situated in Nicobar district in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The total area of Nicobar is 1841Sq Km. the number of the islands is 19 in Nicobar group. The total number of villages in car Nicobar is 15. Car Nicobar is divided into 15 Tribal Council Raj which comes under one Tribal council union. The main livelihood of the people of Car Nicobar is fishing and coconut plantations. They belong to the social community called “*Nicobarese*”.

Table 1: NICOBARESE TRIBES

Tribal	Family	Group	State	Population (2001 census)
Nicobarese	Austro-Asiatic	Khmer-Nicobarese	A&N Islands	17,841

The total population is 17,841 (2014)

Car Nicobar sub-division.

1 Sawai

2 Perka

3 Malacca

4 Mus

Das. A.R. (1977).

According to the 2011 census, Nicobar district has a population of 36,844. Approximately equal to the country of Liechtenstein. This gives it a position of 636th in India (out of a total of 640). The district has a population density of 20 residents per square kilometer (52/sq mi).

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Mother Tongue Interferences amongst Nicobarese Students Learning English as a Second Language at Undergraduate Level in Andaman & Nicobar Islands: A Study in Error Analysis 34

4. Error Analysis

In a general sense 'error' means 'a thing done wrongly' (Oxford Dictionary, 2000). Errors in language are identified and affirmed as 'non-standard form' or 'unusual form' of language use. As language inherently possesses grammatical rules and semantic inferences, user is expected to convey it through reproduction or arbitration in an identical manner. *Longman's Dictionary of Linguistics* describes 'Error' as "the use of linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning." So, the concept of error is nothing but society-centered misuse of language. Although languages evolve through the need of communication, individual manipulation of language is accepted till it conveys 'social meaning.'

Error Analysis can be defined as "the study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language learner." This analysis is generally conducted through learning process and efficiency tests, and it has provided solutions for language learning. Classification of errors is integral part of the analysis in question. In a broad spectrum of analysis, errors occur in five components: lexical, phonological, syntactic, interpretive, pragmatic errors (Hatch, 1978). Since the evolution of linguistic theories, Linguists focus mostly on 'rule-bounded learning' and 'language proficiency.' In language learning process errors take an important position, as it has been one of the main features since the existence of Grammar Translation Method, which is the first established method of second/foreign language learning. The description of error also leads to the discussion of questioning the cognitive process, not only confining to just errors which occur during the repetition.

Studies considering the emergence of errors in learning target language reveal that some errors result from association of L1 and MT into Target Language, which means interference into Target language. Foreign language studies were goal-centered as it aimed directly at FL grammar and as a result did not involve clear methodological and analytical procedure. Until the error analysis developed as a separate field, scientific and systematic study of errors could not be conducted. "The concept of language universals which came with the cognitive paradigm became an indirect cause of error analysis" (Kumar Ramesh M. 2014).

5. Methods of Obtaining the Data

5.1. Selection of Participants

This study was undertaken on a sample size of 150 Nicobarese students from various arts & science and Engineering Colleges in Port Blair. Third-year intake is nearly 30 to 40 students in each college. Total strength may be 500 to 700 in each college. Jawaharlal

Nehru Rajkiyya Mahavidyalaya (JNRM), Port Blair; Andaman College (ANCOL), Port Blair; Ambedkar Polytechnic College (B.E. stream), Port Blair; Andaman Law College, Port Blair are the colleges identified for the present study.

5.2. Preparation of Questionnaire

Questionnaires prepared for students were based on opinion about language teaching and about the importance of English language and its use. The questionnaire included objective type questions based on the importance of English language which was judged on five-point Likert scale. The other section of the questionnaire included essay and paragraph writing to judge their language aptitude. The questions focused on gathering information about English language teaching in their college, its uses, and its importance. It also included additional information about their interest in learning English.

The given topics for Paragraph Reading were general. The topics were selected as such that they would elicit the students' personal experiences, impressions, and feelings, and thus they would have fewer problems expressing themselves.

5.3. Sampling Procedure

The data of the present study was collected through a cross sectional research design. The use of this research design does not mean necessarily imply that the longitudinal method is not a useful method, but it is just that the cross-sectional method serves the immediate method serves the immediate purposes of the study.

There are 601 samples we collected from students of under graduation level. 3rd year students in five different colleges. Four from south Andaman district and one from North and Middle Andaman district all are government go colleges one is polytechnic college and four Arts and Science colleges out of these 601, 150 samples were selected for the analysis. All together there were five groups.

1. Jawaharlal Nehru Rajkeeya Mahavidyalaya (code: JNRM)
2. Andaman College, Port Blair (code: ANCOL)
3. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Institute of Technology (code: DBRAIT) Port Blair
4. Mahatma Gandhi Government College, Mayabunder (code: MGGC)
5. Tagore Government College of Education (code: T.G.C.E)

6. Significance of the Study

This study will identify Mother Tongue Interferences amongst Nicobarese Students Learning English as a Second Language at Undergraduate Level in Andaman & Nicobar Islands.

The research aims to explore the experience of students learning English as a second language and the problems faced by them in reading and writing skills.

The present study was empirical in nature and the data inputs were both quantitative as well as qualitative. It was cross sectional and limited to five colleges in Andaman and Nicobar Islands out of the three districts.

7. Data Analysis and Interpretation

The present study was empirical in data nature and the data inputs were both quantitative as well as qualitative. It was cross sectional and limited to five colleges in three district of Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The data was collected by using questionnaires for students.

7.1. Language Ability Test (LAT)

This test has a total 50 marks (1 hour) language ability test (LAT) and it is is meant to ask the participants' linguistic competence in the target language. It had 8 parts.

In part I (LAT) there was 'Read the following paragraph to check the reading ability. 5 marks allotted 10 minutes.

In Part II, read the following passage and answer the question given below. 5 marks were allotted, and time allowed was 10 minutes. There are five questions asked with each question carrying 1 mark.

Part III is devoted to 'Grammar' in these part there are 4 section each section contains 5 marks part III Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ).

Section 1 Choose the correct or more suitable forms of the verbs to fill in the blanks.

Section 2 put the adjectives in brackets in these sentences in the most appropriate order.

Section 3 devoted to Articles fill in the blanks with a /an/or the.

Section 4 related to prepositions 'Complete the sentences with at, in or on.

Part IV is devoted to writing paragraph 'write the paragraph in above 250 words. 10 marks time allotted 15 minutes.

There are two topics both taken from their textbook.

- a. Dimensions of Creativity- Dr. A.P.J. Abdulkalam
- or
- b. The Massage of Visva-Bharati – Indra Gandhi.

Part V is devoted to a short essay writing. 10 marks time allotted 15 minutes. There are three choices. Among the three topics two are directly related to Andamans and Nicobarese own culture.

- a. Andaman is the best Tourist Spot.
or
- b. Nicobarese and **ah-un** Festival.
or
- c. If I were a Prime Minister of India.

8. Intra Lingual Errors

Linguistics Category Taxonomy

The researcher applied the Dulay, Burt, and Krashen's (1982) sample of Linguistics Category Taxonomy in this data analysis.

STUDENTS RESPONSE	LINGUISTIC CATEGORY AND TYPES OF ERROR
A. MORPHOLOGY	
1.Learner's Error	1. Indefinite article incorrect
A. Learner's Error a. "after Tsunami, a M.P. surveyed the affected Islands"	"a" is used instead of 'an' "an" is used instead of 'a'

b. “an arm” c. “an university”	“an” is used instead of ‘a’
B. Learner’s Error a. “a umbrella” b. “a m.p.”	“a” is used instead of ‘an’ “a” is used instead of ‘an’
2. Learner’s Error a. “Brother bat”	2. possessive case incorrect Omission of ‘s
3. Learner’s Error a. “The dog help women”. b. “the leaf fall downs”	3. third person singular verb incorrect i. Failure to attach –s ii. Wrong attachments of -s
4. Learner’s Error a. “the man save her” b. “she goed to Malacca Jetty” c. “she fall in the well” d. “it been close to her”	4. simple past tense incorrect a. regular past tense i. Omission of -‘ed’ ii. Regularization by adding -‘ed’ iii. Substitution of simple non-past iv. Substitution of past participle
5. Learner’s Error a. “they were call” b. “she was call”	5. past participle incorrect i. Omission –‘ed’
6. Learner’s Error a. “Raja get up more higher”	6. comparative adjective adverb incorrect i. Use of more + ed ii. Simple past error

B. SYNTAX	
1. Learner's Error	1. Noun Phrase
a. "they not went in hole" b. "it no go in hole" c. "scoba dyver fall down on the head" d. "she keep it in the her reading room"	a. Determiners i. Omission of Article ii. Omission of Article iii. Substitution of definite article for possessive pronoun. iv. Use of possessive with the article
2. Learner's Error a. "by to drive it" b. "the dog helped her putting life jacket on the sea water"	b. Nominalization i. Simple verb used instead of –ing ii. Preposition by omitted
3. Learner's Error a. "they got some life jacket" b. "she got some letter" c. "pig stab him in the teeth"	c. Number i. Substitution of singulars for plurals ii. Substitution of plural for singulars iii. Simple past require
4. Learner's Error a. "she push the old women" b. "she pinch the child" c. "is good to help poor" d. "is nice to support tribal people" e. "she don't know (it) in our Great	d. Use of pronouns i. Omission of the subject pronoun ii. Omission of the "Dummy" pronoun 'it' iii. Omission of object pronouns

<p>Andamanese language”</p> <p>f. “I don’t know (it) in Pu”</p> <p>g. “our boat it went to capbell Bay”</p> <p>h. “so she can take it” (referring to sea shells)</p> <p>i. “me give it’</p> <p>j. “me did it”</p> <p>k. Me done work”</p> <p>l. “me and he went to chidiyatapu”</p>	<p>iv. Subject pronoun used as a redundant element “went” is used instead of- ‘go’ “capbell Bay” is used instead of – ‘Cambel bay’</p> <p>v. Alternating use of by pronouns number as well as gender</p> <p>vi. Use of ‘me’ as subject</p> <p>‘chidiyatapu” is used instead of – ‘Chidiya Tapu’</p>
<p>5. Learner’s Error</p> <p>a. “they came (to) the Gandhi Park”</p> <p>b. “they go (to) the cellular Jail and watch the light and sound show”.</p> <p>c. “It fell down from the sea water” (for, on, into?)</p>	<p>e. Use of prepositions</p> <p>i. Omission of prepositions</p> <p>ii. Misuse of prepositions</p>

9. Interlingual Errors

Mother tongue interference in English for the Nicobarese speaking students were found in various parts of the speech like Noun - house-hold articles, birds, animals, vegetables and fruits and vehicles and kinship terms. Further, they were also found in other parts of speech like adjective, adverb, and verb.

9.a. Nicobarese (Pu:) Interferences

Noun

Sl.No	Nicobarese (Pu:)	English Meanings	Nicobarese (Pu:)	English Meanings
	Designation		Vehicles	
1	tev/ngam [təɪv]	God	poos [pu:ʃ]	Bus
2	misumai [misumai]	king	saikool [ʃaɪkœ]	Cycle
3	misumami [misasumai]	queen	aap [ɑ:p]	Nicobari Boat
4	ayom [ɑyöm]	Head of the family	chong [çɪŋ]	Ship
5	da [dɑ]	Male teacher	fennru [fenn:ru]	Aeroplane
	House-hold articles		Birds	
6	piloon [pɪ.lõn]	Spoon	aanntu [a:nəntʃ]	duck
7	ranat [rənət]	Bohle	kavoo ['kavõ]	duck
8	sook [su:k]	drum made up of bamboo	talooookoo [tələœxu]	Parrot
9	patti [patɪ:]	house	mingeuunnkoo [mɪŋdʒuŋxœ]	Owl
10	chaapi [chāpɪ]	Key		
	Animals		Vegetables and Fruits	
11	am [am]	Dog	chaf [tʃɛf]	Tamarind
12	ha-un [häuun]	Pig	kuk [kux]	Coconut
13	kumit [ku:mit]	Rat	mangka [maŋɑ]	Mango
14	kumeeann [kuməɑ:nu]	Cat	firung [fi.ruŋ]	Pine Apple
15	nuna [nu:nɑ]	Bull	apöl [apol]	Apple

While analyzing free composition the researcher came through many Nicobarese words interfering the English sentences. For e.g.:

- a. I went by chong
Instead of writing I went by ship.

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- b. am is barking when he saw me
Instead of writing dog was barking when he saw me.
- c. Apöl is very tasty
Instead of writing an apple is very tasty fruit

9.1. Mother Tongue Interference and Other Words Errors Revisited.

Mother Tongue Interferences (MTI)

a. Noun words

Kinship terms

Sl.No	Nicobarese (Pu:)	English Meanings	Nicobarese (Pu:)	English Meanings
1.	ma [ma:]	mother	feel [fi:l]	mother
2.	pa (Car dialect) [pa:]	father	pha [pha:]	father
3.	ayom [ayom]	grandmother	ayya [ayya:]	grandmother
4.	ayom [ayom]	grandfather	tah [tah]	grandfather
5.	roof [ru:f]	sister	roos [rooʃ]	sister
6.	choon [chu:n]	brother	chon [tʃɔn]	brother
7.	yom (Tarasa dialect) [yɔm]	Grandparent, grandchildren	yom [yɔm]	grandparent
8.	pa [pa:]	maternal uncle, paternal uncle	pha [pha]	maternal uncle, paternal uncle
9.	po [pœ:]	Mother, aunt	po-o [po:]	grandmother
10.	pa [pa:]	Male elders	po[pœ]	female elders, maternal aunt, paternal aunt

In Nicobarese language we found many words in single meaning a word like ma, pa, poo, and yom. Ma means mother, aunt, grandmothers. Pa means father, uncle, grandfathers, and elders. Likewise Po means mother, grandmothers, aunt, and elderly lady. A word like Yom denotes Grandparent, grandchildren like grandmothers, grandfathers both maternal and paternal, grandsons, granddaughters, both daughters' children and sons' children.

b. Verb

Sl.No	Nicobarese 'Pu' words	English words
1.	chaal [chāl]	To hit

2.	fal [fa:]	cut
3.	oak [əuk]	drink
4.	leuuich [ləuuíç]	planting
5.	khanu-ha-hoo [kʰanu ha hœ]	To celebrate Pig festival
6.	tam [tām]	throw
7.	chu-ö chin [tʃuætʃón]	I am
8.	tö kiröng [tʰxrõŋ]	Grand
9.	Manôtö [maŋôptö]	Laugh
10.	Minuekö [minuəxö]	Look
11.	rôlrô]	Talk
12.	ayôrah[ayôrəh]	Shout
13.	keuheut ['keu:xəut]	Complete
14.	kirööngöreh [kirægpurəh]	Go
15.	ngaich[ŋaitʃ]	Went
16.	lon[lon]	Like
17.	celacno[cəlacnɔ]	Plant
18.	inyööken[ɪʒɪnyôŋi]	To relief
19.	lyalretta[lyalrɪtɾa:]	Teach
20.	dekac['dɛxax]	learn

In Nicobarese language verb (V) comes first; its synthetic structure is different from English sentence structure. English has SVO pattern while Nicobarese has VSO.

For e.g.:

- a. oak we coconut water
Instead of writing we drink coconut water.
- b. leuuich I banana trees in my garden
Instead of writing I planted banana trees in my garden.
- c. Joselyne wants to rô with her brother John.
- d. Instead of writing Joselyne wants to talk with her brother John.

c. Adjective

Sl. No	Nicobarese 'Pu' words	English words
1.	rooichoon choon [rœitʃu:ŋ tʃun]	Green Tree
2.	charn vooi [charŋ vœi fvi]	Flexible Weapon
3.	hooii [fvi]	Thin

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4.	leuich mark [ləiçts a:x]	Cold Water
5.	tang [taŋ]	Bright
6.	tö kuchik [tö xutʃik]	Tasty
7.	vaiyö mineukö takô [va:jö minəuxo tɑχ]	Quite clearly
8.	pi-a [pi:ə]	Probably
9.	harivlon [hərivlu:n]	Sadly
10.	huröich [huröits]	Out
11.	nēt [nət]	Twice
12.	Öheuheu ['o·heuihəu]	Often
13.	kaichö [xəiçhō]	Enough
14.	tö-ulö mak[tœ u[ö ma:x]	Well
15.	feus [fəus]	quickly
16.	falveut [falvəut]	speedily
17.	aratom [aɾətom]	old
18.	leuuich [ləuɪçts]	patiently
19.	rabuku [rəbuxu]	Female pig
20.	Imikah re öm la-evren [Imixxäh rə öm la əvrən]	Act wisely

Many Nicobarese students are using Nicobarese ‘Pu’ words adjectives while writing free compositions. Nicobarese words hooii instead of writing thin, tang instead of writing bright, pi-a instead of writing probably, net instead of writing twice.

For some examples:

- The fishermen took hooi rope from the boat.
instead of writing the fisherman took thin rope from the boat.
- My po-o (grandmother) told me net (twice) a day
instead of writing my grandmother told me twice a day.
- Her pa (uncle) would pi-a (probably) never see Jarawa again
instead of writing Her uncle would probably never see Jarawa again.

d. Adverb

Sl. No	Nicobarese ‘Pu’ words	English words
1.	mooii [mooii]	patiently
2.	fal veut [fal veut]	Run fast
3.	oak feus [oak fəus]	Drink quickly
4.	feus minuekō [fəus minuəxō]	Quick look

5.	mooii rô [moiirô]	talk patiently
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While analyzing the free composition the researchers found that the students are using Nicobarese adverbs in their essays especially for when English adverbs are larger than Nicobarese adverbs.

For some examples:

- i. mooii is used instead of patiently
- ii. feus is used instead of quickly

1. my sister falveut (run fast) into the forest
instead of writing my sister run fast into the forest.
2. Her choon (brother) oak feus (quickly) coconut water.
instead of writing Her brother drink coconut water quickly.
 - a. holtö ellon re yik an great Andamanese nö kiyung ik abardeen war.
instead of writing Great Andamanese fought bravely in Aberdeen war.
 - b. holtö ellon re nö la envö nö el pano`o`
instead of writing he hardly works in field.
 - c. tökuchik nö ro`ng cho`~n
instead of writing this is a very tasty apple.

10. Structure and the complexity of the target language

While evaluating the students' answer paper, the researcher found that the structure and the complexity of the target language (English) has an effect on reading and writing skills of Nicobarese speaking English learners as the 'Nicobarese' language grammar pattern or syntactical structure is entirely different, for instance the Nicobarese Word order is Verb + subject+ object whereas English language grammar's syntactic pattern is Subject+ Verb+ Object. The researcher found that many students followed the Nicobarese syntactic pattern while writing English.

1. 'Repairing father boat' is written. Instead of writing, Father repairs the boat.
2. 'Cleaning grandmother's house' is written instead of Grandmother cleans the house.

a. Verb

Student response

1. fal cin (v+s) – fal cin(v+s) -jam running (s+v)
2. foot pa (v+s)- foot pa (v+s)- father hit (s+v)
3. oak cuk cin (v+s+o)- oak cuk cin (v+s+o)- I drink coconut wate (s+v+o).

4. tam cin booll (v+s+v)- tam cin booll (v+s+o)-I throw the ball (s+v+o).
5. fang cin chaf choon (v+s+o)- fang cin chaf choon (v+s+o)- I cut the tamarind tree (s+v+o)

b. Adjectives

Student Response

1. chom brush (adj+s) - chom brush (adj+s) -flexible brush (adj+s)
2. rooichoon ranat (adj+s)- rooichoon ranat (adj+s)- green bottle
3. hooii sook (adj+s)- hooii sook (adj+s)- thin bamboo (adj+s)
4. yang bulb (adj+s)- yung bulb (adj+s)-bright bulb (adj+s)
5. hoyoom can (adj+s)-hoyoom can (adj+s)- coke can (adj+s)
6. siro kap (dj+s)-siro kap (adj+s)- sea tortoise (adj+)
7. aratom aap (adj+s)- aratom aap (adj+s)-old yacht (adj+s)
8. leuich mark (adj+s)- leuich mark (adj+s)- cold water (adj+s)

c. Adverb

1. mooii listening (adv)- mooii (adv)-patiently listening (adv)
2. fal veut (adv)-fal veut (adv)- run fast / speedly (adv)
3. oak feus (adv)-oak feus (adv)-drink quickly
4. leuich mooii (adv)- leuich mooii (adv)- planting patiently (adv)
5. tom feus (adv)-tom feus (adv)-throw quickly (adv)

11. Great Andamanese Languages Interference in English

The researcher found that not only mother tongue (Nicobarese) words, but Great Andamanese words were also used frequently by the participants.

The Great Andamanese is one of the endangered languages. There are ten languages in the language family but except for *Jeru* and *Sare*, all Great Andamanese languages are now extinct.

Nicobarese English learner used some words from Great Andamanese languages mostly in Noun Phrase (NP), for instances:

a. Great Andamanese Interferences

fish	flower	tree	bird
bol [bɔ]	camu ['kami]	bol [bɔ]	balat [ba[ɑt]
bonor [bõŋpr]	ca:o [ca:o]	bottom [bot[tom]	carap [xarap]
bullu [bullu]	cjba [cjba]	phoco [foco]	bala [bɑ[ɑ]

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rain	rainbow	snail	shell
cer [tʃɛ:r]	bilurj:wj [βilrj:wj]	kalatop [kalaɔp]	karasue [χarasuə]
reatcle [rəɑ:tkl]	bo [bɔ:]	kara:wlu [kara:ulu]	kor [kor]
ijine [ijiɲə]	djanu [djaɲu]	gonge [gongə]	toa [toa]
snake	fruit	leaf	bun
sik [ʃik]	erco [ɛrˌtso]	tajiofec [tɛjiofɛc]	calo [cəɔ]
toba [tɔba]	sulu [suɭu]	bana [βana]	kjro [kj:ro]

b. Students' Response of Great Andamanese Structural Responses with English Meaning

1. bodo set point in chediya tapu- Sunset point in Chediya Tapu
2. heavey cer in Car Nicobar- Heavy rain in Car Nicobar
3. sailing yacht in open siro is very difficult- The sailing yacht in open sea is very difficult.
4. Tsunami killed her atota- Tsunmai killed her son
5. When amimi admitted in GP panth- When mother admitted in J.P Panth hospital.
6. The neighbour's ra broke our fences- neighbour's male pig broke our fences.
7. When big earthquake came to our Island. The mob went to a fix house- When big earthquake came to our Island the mob went to church.
8. My pa iyalretta me how to shoot arrow- my father teaches me how to shoot arrow
9. dekha cin hindi from beginning- I learn Hindi from the beginning.
10. be loi is his passion- Fishing is his passion

12. Research Findings

Findings of the present research study are summarized as follows.

Mother Tongue (Nicobarese) Interferences

Total number of errors by male participants (75) in mother tongue interference is 650 out of 14646. Their percentage error of mother tongue interference is 4.43% whereas female participants (75) made 540 errors in mother tongue interference out of 10677. Their percentage error of mother tongue interference is 5.05%. Total errors of male and female participants (150) made 1190 errors in mother tongue interference out of 25323. Their percentage error of mother tongue interference is 4.09%.

Great Andamanese Interferences

Total number of errors by male participants (75) in Great Andamanese Interferences is 430 out of 14646. Their percentage error of Great Andamanese Interferences is 2.93% whereas female participants (75) made 304 errors in Great Andamanese Interferences out of 10677. Their

percentage error of Great Andamanese Interferences is 2.84%. Total errors of male and female participants (150) made 734 errors in Great Andamanese Interferences out of 25323. Their percentage error of Great Andamanese interference is 2.89%.

- Students' achievement at word (lexical) level is high (76-82%).
- In essay writing students commit spelling errors and grammatical errors in their writing it could be mother tongue influence.
- The structure and the complexity of the target language (English) have an effect on reading and writing skills of Nicobarese speaking English learners as the 'Nicobarese' language grammar pattern or syntactical structure is entirely different, for instance, Nicobarese- verb + subject+ object.
- Most of the students faced difficulties in writing paragraph. Lexical errors in their writing could be either because of Great Andamanese or other native dialects interferences.
- It was found that a number of students were not good in listening and speaking but good in reading and writing.
- Female participants committed a smaller number of errors than their male counterparts.
- Students committed error in essay writing. In essay writing, errors like spelling errors, sentence errors, Mother tongue and Great Andamanese Interferences or first language influence, word repetition, mirror image, analogical errors, illegibility, semantics, and lack of interest in writing.
- Students committed errors in paragraph reading or reading comprehension. In paragraph reading errors like pronunciation could be mainly because of their mother tongue influences and the very fact that most of the times they uttered nasal sounds could be because of the shape of their nose or nasal cavity.

Conclusion

To conclude, this research work shows that a few tribal students have high level of English proficiency because 'Nicobarese' tribes are to be found in Car Nicobar Islands. They speak 'Nicobarese' language at home also. All the students have gained the better language

competency with more knowledge and language skills after studying English as a compulsory course. Irrespective of the type of assessment used, it was clear that monitoring the exam within a structured framework and blueprint rendered very significant information regarding the efficiency of their teaching as well as the achievements of their students. This study was undertaken with the aim of finding out the worth fullness of tests to evaluate the effectiveness at the under graduation level.

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Rhetorical Addressee in Political Discourse

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Abstract

This paper discusses the concept of rhetorical addressee. Rhetorical addressee is someone who though not present during the speech event is constructed as the ratified addressee, that is, addressee who is present during the speech event and is able to respond. A Political speech by the Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi is used to illustrate the concept.

Keywords: Listener roles, rhetorical addressee, ratified addressee, Prime Minister Modi, political speech.

Introduction

This paper discusses the concept of rhetorical addressee and illustrates it with an example from a political speech from India. Rhetorical addressee overlaps and cuts across the different listener roles that have been suggested in the study of conversational organisation. The paper begins by exploring the different listener roles that have been suggested so far and summarises them. Then the paper analyses portions from Prime Minister Narendra Modi's (here onwards referred to as P.M.) election speech in West Bengal (see Nagpal 2021, for a report on the speech and 'On 2 May *'Didi jaachhe', says PM Modi*' 2021 for full video) where he used the phrase 'Didi, o Didi' ("Sister, you sister") to refer to the Chief Minister of West Bengal, Mamata Banerjee (here onwards referred to as C.M.). I try to show that whereas the crowd is constructed as 'ratified addressees' (Dynel, 2010), the C.M. is sometimes constructed as a 'rhetorical addressee' in this speech.

Listener Roles in Discourse: Literature Review

As Goodwin, 1981 says, "The activity of conversation provides a set of positions for the participants, the most salient being speaker and hearer" (p.4). I will now make an attempt to look at the possible hearer/listener positions that a conversation may provide. There have been many attempts to define listener roles in conversation. Goodwin, 1981 makes a distinction between participants and non-participants. "... anyone engaged in a conversation" is a participant and those who are "... not part of a relevant conversation" (p.3) are non-participants. Goffman, 1981 opines that "When a word is spoken all those who happen to be in the perceptual range of the event will have some participatory status relative to it (p.3)".

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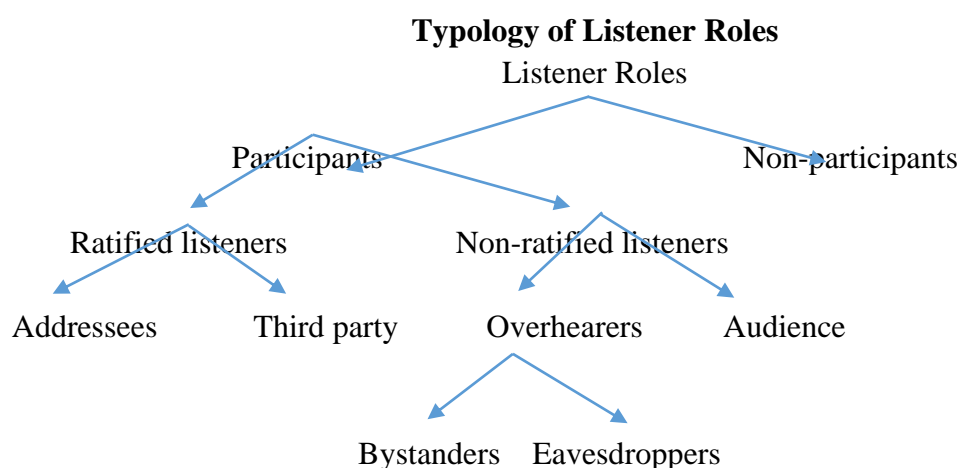
The concept of perceptual range will have to be extended when we are talking of television and YouTube. Goffman, 1981 divides listeners into addressed ratified participants, non-addressed ratified participants and overhearers (pp.9-10). Addressed ratified participants are those who are addressed by the speaker, "...that is, oriented by the speaker, in a manner to suggest that his words are particularly to them, and that some answer is therefore anticipated from them more so than from other ratified participants (p.10)". There can be some ratified participants "not specifically addressed by the speaker (p.9)" and hence they are non-addressed ratified participants. Then there are overhearers who can just be 'bystanders' who happen to listen or 'eavesdroppers' who deliberately listen though they are unrated. He uses the term audience to refer to those who "...hear talk on the radio or TV". Clark, 1996 uses the terms *participant addressee*, *side participant*, and *overhearer*, corresponding to Goffman's *addressed ratified participants*, *non-addressed ratified participants* and *overhearers*. He adds the concept *respondent* to refer to "...the person who is to recognise what [the speaker] meant and answer the question he asked" (pp.21-22).

Dynel, 2010, reviewing contributions from Bell 1984, Levinson 1988, and Clark and Carlson 1982, proposes an elaborate typology of listener roles. She defines participant as "...any individual who partakes in a conversation/interaction whether or not legitimately (with the speaker's legitimisation) and whether or not actively contributing to it" and non-participant as "...someone absent or someone physically present but unable to hear the talk or garner any meanings conveyed non-verbally" (p.6). She divides the ratified hearers into addressees and the third party, the difference being that addressee is "entitled to reply" (p.11). As far as third parties are concerned, "...speakers not only are heedful of them, but also intend to be listened to, by them (p.20)". Unrated hearers or overhearers are "participants who listen to a conversation without the speaker's (and usually ratified hearers') authorisation" (p.7). She divides them into bystanders and eavesdroppers following Goffman.

Thus, we have participants and non-participants to begin with, then among participants we have ratified hearers (who are divided into addressees and the third party) and unrated hearers or overhearers (who are divided into bystanders and eavesdroppers).

Typology of Listener Roles

Surveying the above inputs, we propose the following typology of listener roles, which mainly follows Dynel's typology. The following typology is not a contribution to other typologies but a consolidation of them. We are only focussing on the listener roles, ignoring for the purposes of this paper the speaker roles. In addition, it is suggested that this typology can be used for dialogues, monologues, or even pseudo-dialogues (see Mustajoki, 2018 and Ramaprasad, 2013 for discussion on pseudo-dialogue). When illustrating these terms, we keep in mind the fact that we are trying to analyse a political speech.



Non-participants are simply those who, whether or not in the vicinity of the speech event, ignore it. This applies when the event is telecast on Television too, either live or recorded. All those who choose to participate are **participants**, though any non-participant can become a participant simply by choosing to listen.

Ratified listeners are those **participants** that the speakers authorise as their listeners. Among **ratified listeners**, the speakers may deictically mark some, by addressing them through pronouns like 'you', or direct their non-verbal gestures towards them, and expect them to respond by replying, asserting, agreeing, etc. When we are talking of a political speech, for example, the crowd is expected to shout responses, clap, etc. We can use the category **ratified addressees** to describe them. **Third parties** are those ratified **listeners** that the speakers know are present or may listen to them, but who are not directly addressed, and not expected to respond. The police personnel managing the crowd during a political speech are **third parties**, though the speakers may make them addressees by addressing them once or twice in the speech. **Non-ratified listeners** are those that the speaker does not legitimise as hearers: they are people who are present during the speech event but are not expected to be listeners. The difference between them and **third parties** is that the speaker is aware that the third parties may listen to him. There can be two types of **non-ratified listeners**, **overhearers** and **audience**. **Overhearers** (divided into **bystanders**, who inadvertently overhear and **eavesdroppers** who deliberately overhear) are those who listen to the conversation though they are not expected to listen. For example, a political speech meant for supporters can be inadvertently heard by the opponents (**bystanders**) or the speech may be deliberately listened to by the opponents for political purposes (**eavesdroppers**). However, it is difficult to see how in the modern age any political speech can be 'overheard' as every politician is aware that the speeches will always be recorded and watched on television, YouTube etc. and every politician intends as many people as possible to listen to his/her speech. Hence, we have the category **Audience**, which is here used not in the sense of the audience of the speech, which really includes everyone present. It is used to refer to those who may listen to it on Television, or radio, or watch it on YouTube (see Goffman, 1981; p. 138).

Analysis of Prime Minister Narendra Modi's Speech

Now we analyse portions of speech made by the P.M. on 24th March 2020 during an election rally of the state assembly elections of West Bengal in Kanthi in West Bengal. His political opponent in West Bengal was the incumbent Chief Minister of West Bengal, Mamata Banerjee. (see Nagpal, 2021 for a report on the speech and '*On 2 May 'Didi jaachhe', says PM Modi*', 2021, for full video). We try to show that sometimes the C.M. is addressed as if she is expected to respond, though she is not present in the vicinity. The speech is in Hindi, and we have translated the relevant utterances in the speech to English.

Because we are speaking of a political speech, we can ignore the categories non-participants and non-ratified listeners. Anyone can become a participant just by opting to listen to the speech or watch it on YouTube. A political speech, particularly this one, is made in public, with the full intention of reaching out to as many people as possible and hence it is difficult to imagine a non-ratified listener. Among ratified listeners, as earlier said we can think of the crowd as ratified addressees and the police personnel as the third party. The speaker knows that the police personnel are present and can hear him but does not address them or expect them to respond to the speech. The crowd is the ratified addressee, as the speech itself makes clear that they are expected to not just listen but also to respond at correct moments. Those who watch the speech on Television or YouTube are audience. Let us now look at how the speech constructs the crowd as the ratified addressees.

1. The P.M. uses Bengali words and phrases sometimes in the speech. As the P.M.'s mother tongue is not Bengali, and as the mother tongue of most of the people in the crowd could be assumed to be Bengali, this can be seen as a way of asserting the ratified addressee status of the crowd.

2. As in any political speech, there are direct addresses to the people, like, 'Brothers and Sisters'.

3. The P.M. goads people to respond to certain slogans by repeating them or completing them. For example, the speech begins and ends with 'Bharat Mata Ki Jai' (hail, mother goddess India). Many times, the P.M. utters the first part of the salutation and indicates to the crowd through body language that they are supposed to complete it for him. Same is the case with 'On second May, Didi is going back', 'West Bengal wants, B.J.P. Government', 'Press with enthusiasm, the button with Lotus' (*Lotus* being the election symbol of B.J.P, the button referring to the button on the Electronic voting machines), etc. In each case the P.M. makes the statement fully first, then repeats the first part allowing or goading the crowd to repeat the second part. On each occasion, this is repeated at least three times. Thus, as ratified addressees, the crowd is expected to respond to the speaker and the crowd responds often indicating that the ratified addressee role has been accepted by the crowd. The

speaker does not address the third parties, like the police personnel, in this manner, as they are not expected to respond to the speech.

4. The crowd is sometimes addressed directly in second person, as in ‘Didi has deceived **you** [from central schemes]’, ‘**Your** vote has the power to end [corruption]’ etc. Thus, the deictic words indicate the addressee status of the crowd.

5. Finally, once or twice, there is the use of inclusive ‘we’ as in ‘we have to change this situation’. Thus, the addressee and the addresser (speaker) are seen as part of the same group.

Rhetorical Addressee

The C.M. is referred to as ‘Didi’ in this speech throughout. Generally, she is referred to in the third person. Thus, we have sentences like “Didi now a days comes to Medinapur and ... [makes excuses]”, “when necessary Didi is not seen”, “Bengali farmers cannot forget how Didi has been [unsympathetic] to them”, etc. This is to be expected as ‘Didi’ is not immediately present in the vicinity. The P.M. is talking to the crowd who are his ratified addressees about the C.M. The C.M. is a non-participant, though it is to be expected that she will, as a politician attend to this speech. Thus, she is not the addressee constructed by the speech generally.

However, there are many instances where the P.M. addresses her as if she is present and can answer his questions, just as the ratified addressees can. The phrase ‘Didi, o Didi’ (“elder sister,” “You elder sister”, or “elder sister, hey, elder sister”) is repeatedly used. This constructs her as an addressee. We have sentences like, “Didi, o Didi, now West Bengal is asking you [answers to questions]”, “Didi, o Didi, the people of Bengal will give you punishment in the polling booth”, “Didi, you don’t listen, but if you can see, see”, “Didi, o Didi, don’t play games, serve us”, etc. Thus, sometimes the C.M. is spoken of in the third person as someone not present in the vicinity, and sometimes she is addressed as if she is the ratified addressee. There is even an occasion where this shift occurs within two consecutive utterances- “...every child in West Bengal has understood **your** game. That is why West Bengal is showing **Didi** the door”. In the first sentence, the second person pronoun ‘you’ is used conveying the sense that Didi is present on the occasion, whereas in the second sentence the third person ‘Didi’ is used. Thus, there is some back and forth from third person address to second person address. Whereas the crowd is a constant ratified addressee, the Didi seems to shift from being the non-participant who is absent to being the addressee who is expected to answer questions.

Conclusion

Thus, we have here at least sometimes an addressee who does not fit into any of the listener roles mentioned above. The C.M. here is not even a participant and the speaker does not expect her to be present. Nor does he expect that she will respond to those questions

immediately, like the crowd responds to his statements. (She may, at a later point, and she and her party colleagues did continue the ‘conversation’ by criticising P.M.’s speech, but not immediately, nor as ratified addressees respond to speech). However, some sentences construct her as an addressee. We call such an addressee rhetorical addressee. Rhetorical addressee is someone who is not a ratified addressee, being not immediately present on the occasion of the speech event, but who is addressed of as if he/she is present and can respond to the speech event.

We have illustrated the concept of rhetorical addressee using a political speech. There are many other possible occurrences of rhetorical addressee. The question of its occurrence in other domains including face to face dialogues, the question of the expected possibility of the rhetorical addressee responding at a later stage, the question of rhetorical addressee and the speaker not sharing a channel, (the speaker may use a language that the rhetorical addressee may not know), etc., have to be explored further.

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Sociolinguistics of Language Proficiency: A Study on Kashmiri Speech Community of Anantnag District

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Abstract

The present paper is an attempt to examine the claimed language proficiency of Kashmiri Speakers in terms of four language skills i.e. understanding, speaking, reading and writing in Kashmiri, Urdu and English.

Keywords: Kashmiri, Sociolinguistics, Language Proficiency, Mother Tongue, SPSS, ANOVA

1. Introduction

Kashmiri (locally known as kə:ʃur) speaking community is a close-knit community. The most widely spoken language in the union territory of Jammu and Kashmir is Kashmiri. Above 98% of the total population of the valley speak Kashmiri as their mother tongue. According to census 2011, Kashmiri is the mother tongue of 52% of the population of J&K. Other major languages include Dogri (20%), Gojri (9.1%) and Pahari (7.8%). The remaining population speaks other languages such as Kashtiwari, Punjabi, Bhaderwahi, Poguli, Siraji, etc. Urdu is extensively understood and spoken language particularly in Jammu and Kashmir

where it acts as a lingua franca alongside Kashmiri. Urdu along with English serves as a medium of instruction in the Kashmir province. These two languages are also used in home and in intercommunity communication domains along with Kashmiri. The code switching and code mixing processes usually involve Urdu and English among Kashmiri speakers.

2. Methodology

The present research work is based on the data collected from 500 Kashmiri speakers. The respondents have been taken from all the twelve tehsils of Anantnag district. It covered informants belonging to both the genders having rural and urban backgrounds. A questionnaire has been the main instrument employed for eliciting the sociolinguistic data from the Kashmiri speech community. The questionnaire consisted of two sections.

Section one focused on ascertaining the background information of the respondents such as age, gender, education level etc.

Section two elicited information regarding the claimed language proficiency of the respondents. The main aim of this section was to examine the claimed proficiency of the informants in Kashmiri, Urdu and English respectively in terms of four language skills viz, understanding, speaking, reading and writing across five levels of proficiency i.e.: Nil, Very little, Moderate, Good and Very good. Coding was done as under:

Nil	1
Very Little	2
Moderate	3
Good	4
Very good	5

Table 1.1 Scale for levels of Claimed Proficiency

To find out the claimed language proficiency of the respondents for Kashmiri Urdu and English, the sample was divided into two social variables viz age and gender. The data for each respondent was codified, fed into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and tabulated. Overall claimed proficiency in languages has been obtained by using latest version of SPSS. ANOVA has been employed to check out the significant differences in language proficiency.

3. Claimed Proficiency in Kashmiri

The claimed proficiency in Kashmiri has been elicited in terms of four skills viz; understanding, speaking, reading and writing across the genders i.e. Upto 25 years males, Upto 25 years females; 26-40 years males, 26-40 years females, Above 40 years males and Above 40 years females. Table 1.2 shows the mean scores in these four skills.

	Understanding	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Upto 25 years males	3.92	3.64	3.85	3.85
Upto 25 years females	3.8	3.5	3.71	3.71
26-40 years males	4	4	2.4	2.3
26-40 years females	4	4	2.4	2.3
Above 40 years males	4	4	3.4	3.2
Above 40 years females	4	4	2.3	2.2

Table 1.2: Mean Scores of Claimed Proficiency in Kashmiri

Table 1.2 clearly shows that out of the four components of language proficiency the skills of reading and writing are low as compared to the other two skills, i.e., understanding and speaking. The respondents are having ahead in terms of their level of proficiency in understanding their mother tongue, i.e., Kashmiri. Proficiency in terms of speaking is highly maintained among the middle and old aged speakers. The maintenance of understanding and speaking skills is found as a result of usage of mother tongue (Kashmiri) in home domain (Sheikh, A. M. 2014). As far as gender is concerned, it has been observed that in case of females, falling under the age group upto 25 years, speaking skill appears to be slightly low. It is because a surge in the use of Urdu (in some cases English) has been observed in the Kashmiri speech community. People have been seen encouraging their wards to speak Urdu at the cost of their mother tongue, i.e., Kashmiri. At the face of it, it seems that people are neglecting Kashmiri and shifting to Urdu and English.

It is interesting to observe that the claimed proficiency in Kashmiri declines as we move from understanding to reading and writing of all genders falling under the age group of 26-40 years and above 40 years respectively. However, in reading and writing skills, the younger males and females falling under the age group upto 25 years are slightly proficient; this can be attributed to the late inclusion of Kashmiri as a subject in the curriculum (Mullick A.P. 2014).

Analyzing the above data on the basis of the variable of settlement (rural and urban) reflects the following percentage scores.

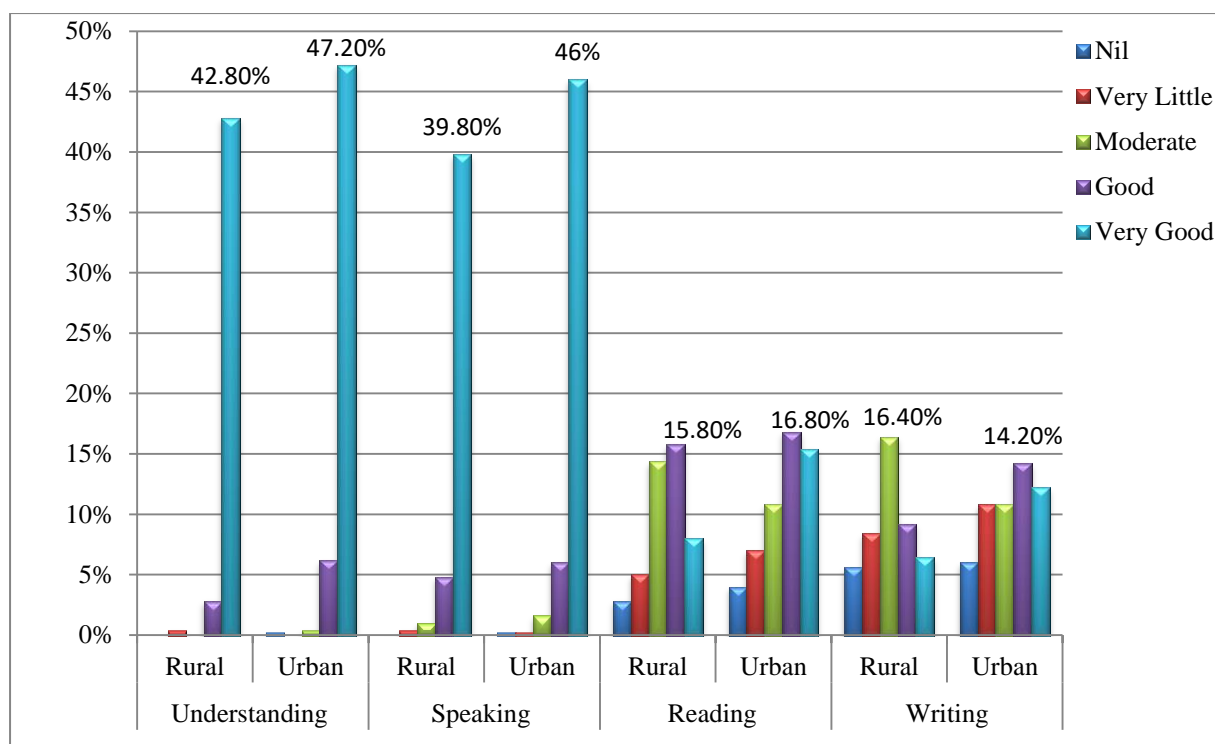


Fig. 1.1 Percentage Scores of Kashmiri as per settlement

From the figure 1.1, it is clear that majority, 42.8% and 39.8% respondents from rural area and 47.2% and 46% respondents from urban areas claim to be more proficient in understanding and speaking skills respectively, while as only 15.8% and 16.8% respondents from rural and urban areas are proficient in reading Kashmiri. The respondents from rural areas are a bit more proficient (16.4%) in writing Kashmiri as compared to the urban respondents (14.2%).

Overall, it can be concluded that Kashmiri speakers are more proficient in two language skills of Kashmiri, i.e., understanding and speaking and are less proficient in reading and writing.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been carried out in order to ascertain whether there is any significant difference between the mean proficiency levels of Kashmiri speakers of all the three age groups. The ANOVA shows that there is a significant difference between the age and the proficiency levels of Kashmiri as far as understanding skill and

speaking skill is concerned ($p < 0.05$). However, there is no significant difference between age and mean proficiency of Kashmiri reading and writing ($p > 0.05$), as can be seen from Table 1.3.

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Understanding Kashmiri	Between Groups	1.871	2	.936	5.949	.003
Speaking Kashmiri	Between Groups	2.364	2	1.182	4.541	.011
Reading Kashmiri	Between Groups	7.101	2	3.551	2.274	.104
Writing Kashmiri	Between Groups	6.959	2	3.480	1.809	.165

Table 1.3: ANNOVA in Case of Kashmiri Language

4. Claimed Proficiency in Urdu

The claimed proficiency in Urdu has been elicited in terms of four skills, viz, understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Table 1.4 shows the mean scores in these four skills.

	Understanding	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Upto 25 years males	4	3.98	3.94	3.85
Upto 25 years females	4	4	3.95	3.87
26-40 years males	4	3.6	3.85	3.81
26-40 years females	4	3.8	3.85	3.82
Above 40 years males	4	3.1	3.9	3.95
Above 40 years females	3	2.85	1.58	1.2

Table 1.4: Mean Scores of Claimed Proficiency in Urdu

Table 1.4 clearly shows that all the four skills, i.e., understanding, speaking, reading and writing, have almost equal proficiency score. On comparing the internal difference in all the age groups, it is observed that the younger-age groups have highest Urdu language skills. The primary reason for the high scores is that Urdu is taught in schools and forms the core component of curriculum. Furthermore, a pattern is observed wherein Urdu proficiency, in terms of understanding and speaking skill, increases in younger age groups as they have acquired these skills in home domain. Therefore, younger groups prefer Urdu more than Kashmiri in social domains as well. Old-aged females due to their illiterate background claim to have some ability of reading and writing in Urdu. It is observed that females falling under the age group upto 25 years claim to have highest proficiency in Urdu since Urdu is the medium of instruction in their educational institutions. Another reason for this occurrence of high scores in Urdu skills is the prestige attached to Urdu. As far as gender is concerned, females are generally more prestige conscious than males; they want to prove that they belong to the elite class by stating that they use Urdu in all the domains of language use. Electronic media, particularly television and radio broadcasts, provide another source of

learning. In Kashmir, majority of TV and radio programmes are broadcast in Urdu, resulting in increased visual exposure to Urdu.

Analyzing the above data on the basis of the variable of settlement (rural and urban) reflects the following percentage scores.

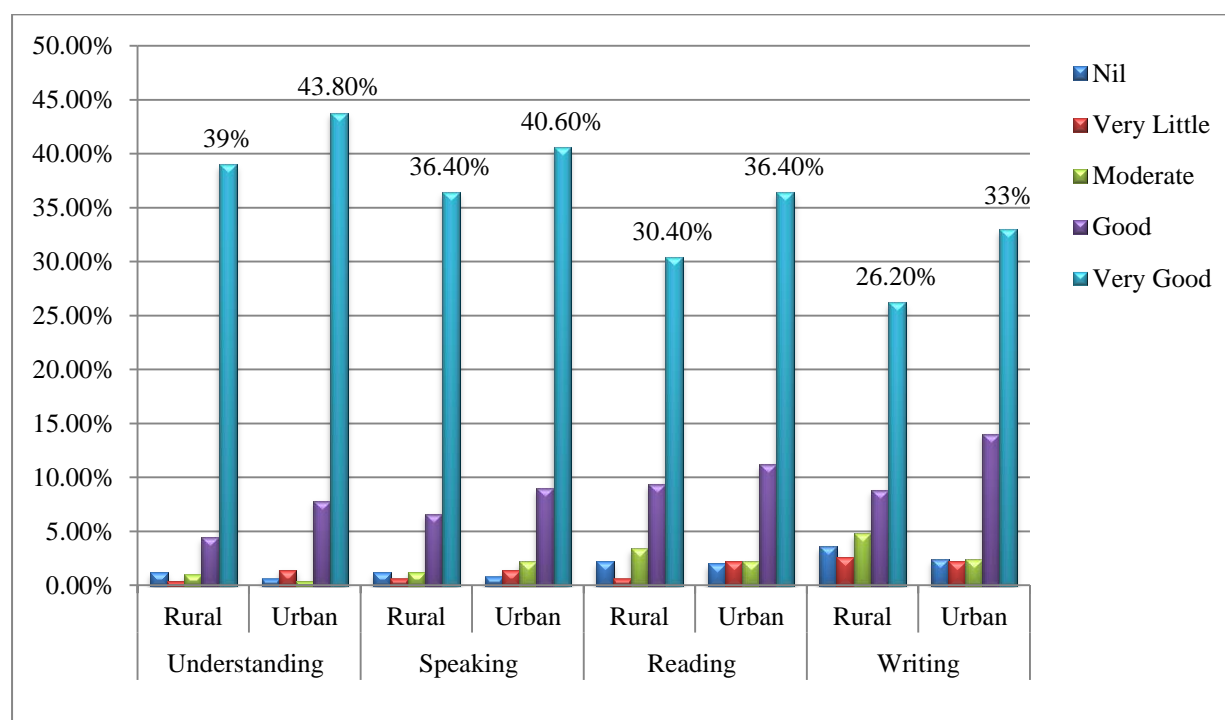


Fig. 1.2 Percentage scores of Urdu as per Settlement

From the figure 1.2, it is clear that majority of the respondents, i.e., 43.8% and 40.6% from the urban areas claim to be more proficient in understanding and speaking skills respectively than the respondents from rural areas (39% and 36.4%). Again, 36.4% and 33% respondents from urban areas are more proficient in reading and writing Urdu as compared to the respondents from rural areas (30.4% and 26.2%).

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been carried out in order to ascertain whether there is any significant difference between the mean proficiency levels of Kashmiri speakers of all the three age groups. The ANOVA shows that there is a significant difference between the age and the proficiency levels of Urdu as far as understanding and speaking

skills are concerned ($p < 0.05$). However, there is no significant difference between age and mean proficiency of Urdu reading and writing ($p \text{ value} > 0.05$), as can be seen from Table 1.5.

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Understanding Urdu	Between Groups	9.550	2	4.775	8.909	.000
Speaking Urdu	Between Groups	16.701	2	8.350	13.194	.000
Reading Urdu	Between Groups	8.469	2	4.234	4.158	.016
Writing Urdu	Between Groups	9.346	2	4.673	3.525	.030

Table 1.5: ANNOVA in Case of Urdu Language

5. Claimed Proficiency in English

The claimed proficiency in English has been elicited in terms of four skills viz; understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Table 1.6 shows the mean scores in these four skills.

	Understanding	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Upto 25 years males	3.6	3.1	4	3.3
Upto 25 years females	3.7	3.5	4	3.43
26-40 years males	3.5	3	4	3.4
26-40 years females	3.5	3.4	4	3.42
Above 40 years males	2.2	2	2.4	1.68
Above 40 years females	1.19	0.5	0.6	0.2

Table 1.6: Mean Scores of Claimed Proficiency in English

It is clear from table 1.6 that out of the four skills, the skills of understanding and reading score higher as compared to other two skills, i.e., speaking and writing. On comparing the internal difference in all the age groups, it is observed that the younger and mid-age respondents are more proficient in English language skills as compared to the old-aged groups. The main reason for the high scores is that English is being taught in schools and parents also prefer their children to communicate with one another in English. Furthermore, being able to communicate well in English is essential in academics or for seeking job. It is observed that female respondents, falling under the age group upto 25 years are a bit more proficient in English language as compared to the other groups. The specific educational environment does contribute towards a greater use of English. Old-aged females, due to their illiterate background, show negligible score in English language proficiency.

Analysis of the above data on the basis of the variable of settlement (rural and urban) portrays the following percentage scores.

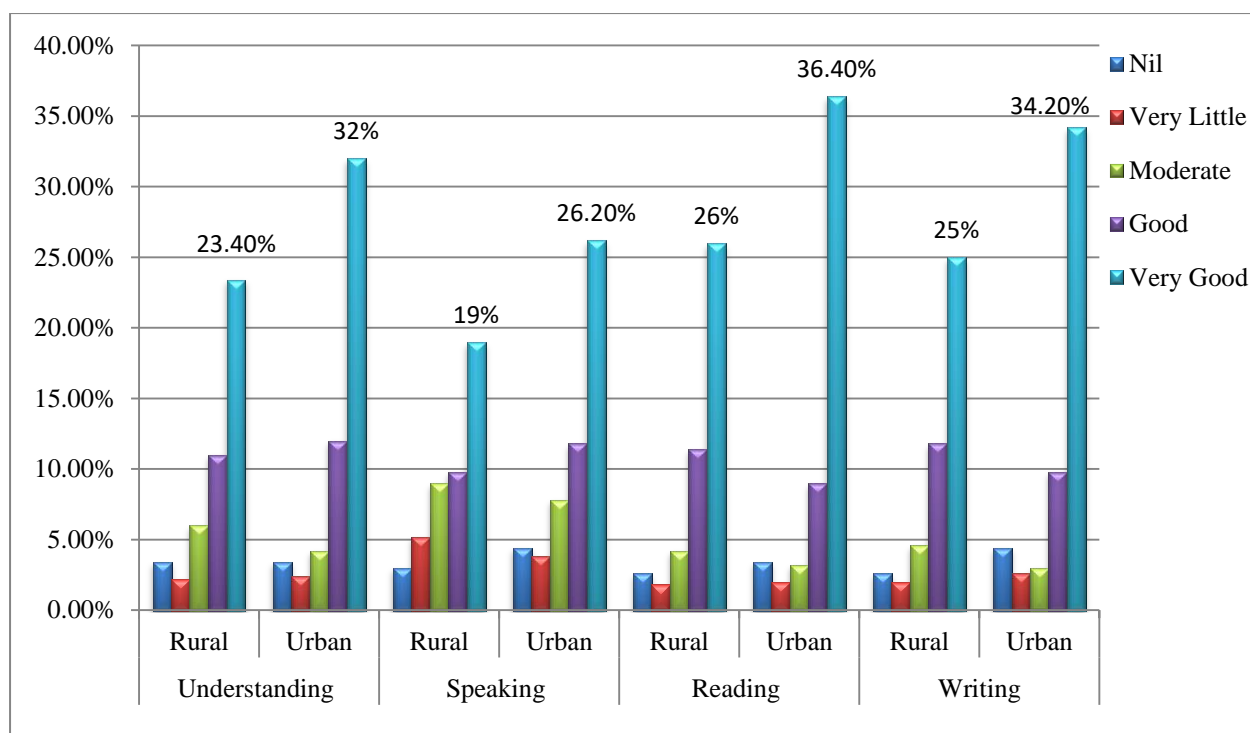


Fig. 1.3 Percentage Scores of English as per Settlement

From the figure 1.3, it is clear that majority of the respondents, i.e., 32% and 26.2% from urban areas claim to be more proficient in understanding and speaking skills, respectively, than the respondents from rural areas (23.4% and 19%). Again, 36.4% and 34.2% respondents from urban areas are more proficient in reading and writing English as compared to the respondents from rural areas (26% and 25%).

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out in order to ascertain whether there is any significant difference between the mean proficiency levels of Kashmiri speakers of all the three age groups. The ANOVA shows that there is a significant difference between the age and the proficiency levels of English as far as understanding and reading skills are concerned ($p < 0.05$). However, there is no significant difference between the age and the mean proficiency of English speaking and writing ($p \text{ value} > 0.05$), as can be seen from table 1.7.

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Understanding English	Between Groups	10.225	2	10.225	7.237	.007
Speaking English	Between Groups	10.505	2	10.505	6.494	.061
Reading English	Between Groups	6.927	2	6.927	5.343	.021
Writing English	Between Groups	4.187	2	4.187	2.920	.088

Table 1.7: ANNOVA in Case of English Language

6. Conclusion

The present paper has attempted to give a brief sociolinguistic account of Kashmiri speakers of Anantnag District of the Kashmir valley. The study depicted the high-claimed proficiency in Kashmiri among old and middle-age groups. This is due to the fact that speakers of old and middle-age groups are more restricted in their home environments, where Kashmiri is the most prevalent and dominant language. The low claimed proficiency in Kashmiri among younger groups, particularly females, is because they are more prestige-conscious as they feel it inferior to use their mother tongue showing affinity towards Urdu and English considering them as more prestigious languages. The speakers from urban areas are more proficient in Urdu and English language skills than the speakers from rural areas. The younger groups prefer Urdu and English more than Kashmiri in social domains as well. Exposure to mass media, pursuing formal education are the main reasons for their claimed proficiency in Urdu and English skills respectively. The younger group claims the highest score in Urdu and English, as greater prestige and power is attached with these two languages. This group mentioned that possessing knowledge of English can provide them better job opportunities. The low claimed Urdu and English proficiency in old-aged females is due to illiteracy and limited exposure.

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The Study of Distributed Morphology with Reference to the Mishing Verbal Inflection

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Abstract

The present research paper is a comprehensive analysis of Mishing verb inflection and its implementation in a DM-based Morphological Analyser. In this paper we try to sketch a descriptive idea of Mishing verbal inflection within the framework of Distributed morphology. For this we basically discuss the categories that are associated with the verb stems and the verb suffixes. Here, we are also put an emphasis to see how we can analyse a language in detailed including its producing morpheme. With this how does the framework of distributed morphology allows for morphology to work in tandem with syntax to analyse will draw processes of the DM-based Mishing Morphological Analyser. After all description this paper figure out the main postulating purpose behind this compositional study.

Keywords: Mishing language, Distributional morphology, Verbal inflection, Post syntactic morphological operations.

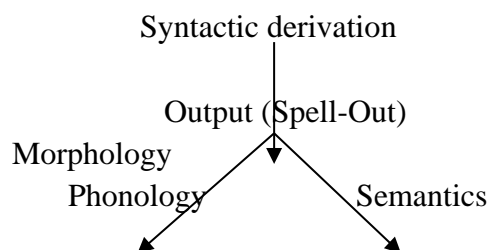
1.0 Introduction

This paper presents an analysis of verbal inflection in the Mishing language within the framework of Distributed Morphology. Mishing is a Tibeto-Burman language spoken by the Mishing people spatially distributed in upper Assam, mostly in the districts of Dhemaji, Lakhimpur, Jorhat, Sivsagar, Golaghat, Tinisukia, Dibrugarh. A few villages of the Mishing people are also in Arunachal Pradesh. In Assam there are nearly 5,87,310 speakers of Mishing. The basic word order of Mishing is SOV.

1.1 Distributed Morphology

Distributed Morphology (DM) is a theoretical framework that emerged in the early 1990s. The name is introduced in Halle and Marantz (1993, 1994), with important precursors including Halle (1990), Bonet (1991), Noyer (1997), and Pesetsky (1995). At a broad level, DM represents a set of hypotheses about the interaction among components of grammar: Morphology, in DM, is a part of the mapping from the output of a syntactic derivation to the input to the phonology, as sketched in (1):

(1) Architecture



DM is centred on two key hypotheses; both common in various parts of the literature-where DM claims novelty is in the synthesis of these two leading ideas under the architecture in (1):

(2) Syntax-all-the-way-down: The primary mode of meaningful composition in the grammar, both above and below the word-level is the syntax. Syntax operates on sub-word units and thus (some) word-formation is syntactic.

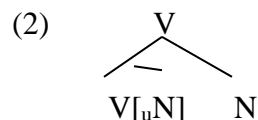
(3) Late Insertion / Realization: The pieces manipulated by the syntax (*functional morphemes*) are abstract, lacking phonological content. The pairing of phonological features with the terminals of the syntax (*vocabulary insertion* or *exponence*) happens post-syntactically, in the mapping from syntax to phonological form (PF).

1.2 Merge, Fusion, Fission and Improverishment

In this section we mentioned some post syntactic morphological operations that used in Distributed morphology.

1.2.1 Merge

Merge is a syntactic operation that projects the lexical items into a new object and then giving rise to hierarchical structure. It only applied when constituents are triggered by selectional features as follows:

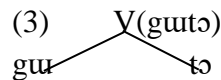


1.2.2 Fusion

While merger keeps two terminal nodes and clauses, then it allows insertion of two different vocabulary items. Likewise, fusion takes two terminal nodes that are two structurally adjacent and fuses them into a single one; that causes the insertion a single vocabulary item. For example, in English T and AGR fuse and this new node realizes all visible inflection (-s, ed)

1.2.3 Fission

The operation fission is the opposite operation of fusion, the fission splits one terminal node into two: each new terminal node will be assigned an exponent. For example, in Mishing a syntactic expression in Mishing *guu-to* is a fission of the verb *guu* “go” and imperative particle *to* which means “come in”. The syntactic structure of this element is as below:



1.2.4 Impoverishment

Impoverishment is a post syntactic operation by which one or more morphosyntactic feature are deleted, they result less mark form.

1.3 Linguistics Background of Verbal Inflection

The standard form of a verb is to indicate an action or a state of being. A verb typically denoted the expression of inflection with tense, aspect, and mood and in some languages, it is also inflected for person. Likewise, in the Mishing language verbs inflected for three-tier distinction, viz, present, past and future. They are marked by suffixation. Tense markers are directly suffixed to the verb stems if there does not involve any aspect markers. However, if there is any aspect marker, it invariably precedes the tense marker. The tense markers are not terminal suffixes; person markers invariably are added to them. While the past and the future tenses in Mishing are marked by suffixation, the present tense is marked by the absence of any overt suffixation which is generally expressed as $\{\emptyset\}$.

1.4 Source of Data

This present study is based on primary data. The data used in this study was collected from Mishing native speakers from the area of Gogamukh of Dhemaji district, Assam. The data was collected through interview and use of questionnaires.

2.0 Inflections Marked on Mishing Verbal Roots

The inflection on Mishing verbs appear as suffixes as shown in the examples in 4-8. In all the examples present tense, past tense, progressive aspect, perfective aspect, and future tense are marked on the verbs using suffixes. Mishing has dual *number* system; the plural is marked with *lu*, but it's lexical. However, there is no *gender* marker. The *person* is marked on the verb only for 2nd person, future:

(4) bu apin dətə

bu apin dətə

3SG rice eat-PRS

“He/she eats rice.”

(5) ŋə kedikə dəkən

ŋə kedi-kə dəkən

I mango-ACC eat-PST

“I ate the mango.”

(6) rambu kedikə dələdun

ram-bu kedi-kə dək-la-dun

Ram-NOM mango-ACC eat-PROG-EXST

“Ram is eating the mango.”

(7) sitabu kedikə dətəbə

sita-bu kedi-kə də-tə-bə
Sita-NOM mango-ACC eat-PST-ASP
“Sita has eaten the mango.”

(8) buulu apin dəje

buulu apin də-je
3PL apin eat-FUT
“They will eat rice.”

The order in which the primary verbal elements of Mishing arrange themselves is Verb-Tense-Aspect. The order for those inflectional categories for Mishing verbs is given below.

(9) Template for Verbal Inflection

Main Verb > Tense > Aspect

The Table 1 below is a list of the various verb forms for the 3rd person, singular for different kinds of verbal roots as a sample of the kinds of inflections that are found in Mishing.

Verbs →	də ‘eat’	tə ‘drink’	rə ‘buy’	ted ‘sit’	pamunsu ‘fight’	lət ‘cut’
Habitual Present	dətə	tətə	rətə	tedtə	pamunsutə	lətə
Perfective Aspect	dətəbə	tətəbə	rətəbə	tedtəbə	pamunsutəbə	lətəbə
Progressive Aspect	dəladun	təladun	rəladun	tedladun	pamunsuladun	ləladun
Past	dəkan	təkan	rəkan	tedkan	pamunsukan	ləkan
Future	dəje	təje	rəje	tedje	pamunsuje	ləje

Table 1: Inflections marked on Mishing verbal roots

That the number is lexical, the person is marked only for 2nd person, future and that there is no gender marker in Mishing can be shown with a set of examples below:

10. (a) ŋə də-je
 I eat-FUT
 ‘I will eat.’
- (b) ŋəlu də-je
 we eat-FUT
 ‘We will eat.’
- (c) nə də-laŋ
 you(sg) eat-FUT
 ‘You will eat.’
- (d) nəlu də-laŋ
 you(pl) eat-FUT

- ‘You will eat.’
 (e) buu dɔ-je
 3SG eat-FUT
 ‘He/she will eat.’
 (f) buɭɭu dɔ-je
 3PL eat-FUT
 ‘They will eat.’

As evident from the data taken only the 2nd person future is marked on the verb.

3.0 Verbal Inflection of Mishing in Distributed Morphology

The main idea of Distributed Morphology is that the terminal nodes of a structure are ordered into hierarchical structures at the stage of SS by some syntactic operations. Where these nodes cover a complexity in semantic and syntactic features but lack with any phonological content. After syntax, the nodes may create deviations as the result of various morpho-syntactic operations like marge, fusion, fission and etc, at the level of morphological structure. And phonological content is realized at PF through vocabulary insertion to these changed terminals. This produces the phonetic form of the utterance and the surface structure of a word or phrase through sequential derivation. There are two kinds of terminal nodes available at syntactic structure. The first kind of terminal node is typically filled by root entries. Root entries contain phonological and semantic features but no grammatical category features. They acquire a category only after insertion into the syntactic structure. For example, the root terminal combines with the category head as shown in (11) below to produce a V that represents the verb *dɔ* ‘eat’.



Evidently, in simple declaratives in Mishing, the main verb and inflectional features form a morphological unit, as in (12) - a verb, such as *ad-kan* ‘wrote.’



An important line of study within DM seeks to propose a theory of possible mismatches. For this, an operation of Morphological Merger has been appealed to. Various formulations have been offered; one such is (13) below:

(13) *Morphological Merger*

A syntactic complementation relation: [X° YP]
 may be realized in the morphology as an affixation relation:
 X affixed to Y, the head of YP: [[Y] X] or [[X [Y]]]

Merger in (12) reconstitutes Chomsky's *Affix-Hopping* as a morphological operation. Since Mishng inflectional morphology is exclusively suffixing, while syntactic complementation is head-initial, combining INFL as an affix to the verb will necessarily result in a suffix, and the appearance of INFL 'hopping' across the verb.

3.1 Realization and Underspecification

As in other realizational frameworks, a central role in DM is accorded to underspecification of vocabulary items. A well-worn example of underspecification is provided by the English present tense inflection (of main verbs). The English vocabulary contains the following two items, which are candidates for realizing in INFL node in (12).

(14) Vocabulary of English (fragment)

a. [3SG, PRES] \Leftrightarrow s

b. [PRES] \Leftrightarrow \emptyset

The formal statements of vocabulary items are tantamount to rules of exponence and as such, two general principles of rule interaction are operative in their application.

For Mishng verbs, the agreement morphology in the *simple future* is illustrated as following: Mishng future tense: *gu* 'to go'

PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
1 st	gu-je	gu-je	
2 nd	gu-la]	gu-la]	[2FUT] \Leftrightarrow -la]
3 rd	gu-je	gu-je	

As found, the verb has got inflection for 2nd person.

3.1.1 Vocabulary Insertion and Readjustment Rules

The insertion of verbal affixes and auxiliaries can be understood in terms of vocabulary items (both root and affixal) given below in Table 2. The symbols $V\bar{i}$, V_e , $V\bar{a}$, $V\bar{u}$ denote different vowel endings of verbal roots. The vocabulary items compete for insertion at the terminal nodes, and are chosen based on their feature specification. The auxiliary insertion entries in Table 2 insert auxiliaries while all other entries insert suffixes at the terminal nodes. Mishng verb roots may end in a consonant or in a vowel. These are illustrated in Table 2:

Verbal Roots \rightarrow Affixation \downarrow	Vowel	Consonant
[+ability]	- <i>kindak</i> as in <i>ŋə məkindak</i> 'I can cook.'	- <i>kindak</i> as in <i>ŋə adkindak</i> 'I can write.'
[+Negative]	- <i>ma</i> as in <i>bu iskulpə guuma</i>	- <i>ma</i> as in <i>rambu kedi lətma</i>

	'He does not go to school.'	'Ram did not cut the mango.'
[+imperative]	-t ₉ as in <i>gut₉</i> 'Come in.'	-t ₉ as in <i>ted₉</i> 'Sit down.'

Table 2: Verbal inflections in Mishing

3.1.2 Rules for Irregular Roots

The phonological changes that occur as a result of the association of the verb stem and a suffix can be explained using the rules given above. However, there are cases when stems undergo some modifications that cannot be explained phonologically as in suppletive or irregular forms. The irregular behaviour of certain verb stems in Mishing is accounted for as shown below.

The realization of the verb *gu* 'go/come' in habitual present is *gukaŋ* instead of *gut₉* as seen in other verbs. Similarly, the verb *lagi* 'want' is formed differently than the other verbs. The morphemes for simple past, present and future are *-kan*, *-t₉* and *je* respectively. But the verb forms for 'want' are as follows:

	Past	Present	Future
want	<i>lagidagai</i>	<i>lagidag</i>	<i>lagije</i>

Thus, it is observed that the past and present forms of the verb take two quite different realizations suffixed with *-dagai* and *-dag*.

The analysis presented is a comprehensive one and is expected to describe a limited number of grammatically acceptable forms of the Mishing verbs. The analysis economises on the descriptive classes that are generated and relates roots and affixes in an unambiguous and complete way. It is also expected that any new root that enters the language can also be treated straightforwardly with this account which attempts to capture native speakers' intuitions about the formation of verbal forms.

4.0 Implementation of Mishing Morphological Analyzer

The DM-based Morphological analyser uses a set of ordered contextual rules to isolate and extract the suffixes from a given word form. The internal processes of the DM-based morphological analyser are shown in Figure 1. The rules are applied from right to left iteratively until no suffixes remain and only the base root, which is identified from the root lexicon, is left. Readjustment rules apply wherever applicable to produce the correct root which is then matched with the incorporated root-list to determine a match or matches. The three distinct steps that are used in the analyzer are as follows:

(15) Morphological Analyzer

- (a) Stemming
- (b) Root formation and lexicon look up
- (c) Morphological analysis

The system produces a detailed morpheme analysis for each word and provides the root, the grammatical category, the inflectional class and the feature values associated with the word. The system also produces a detailed morphological analysis for each morpheme that constitutes the word form. The sample output format of the system is given in 16.

(16) Input Token: X/Y/Z

Possible Root 1: class: category: suffix: morphemes (morpheme1, morpheme 2,):

Morpheme analysis (morpheme 1, morpheme 2, ...)

Possible Root 2: category: suffix: morphemes (morpheme1, morpheme 2,):

Morpheme analysis (morpheme 1, morpheme 2, ...)

The internal processes of the DM-based morphological analyser are shown in Figure 1 with an example as following:

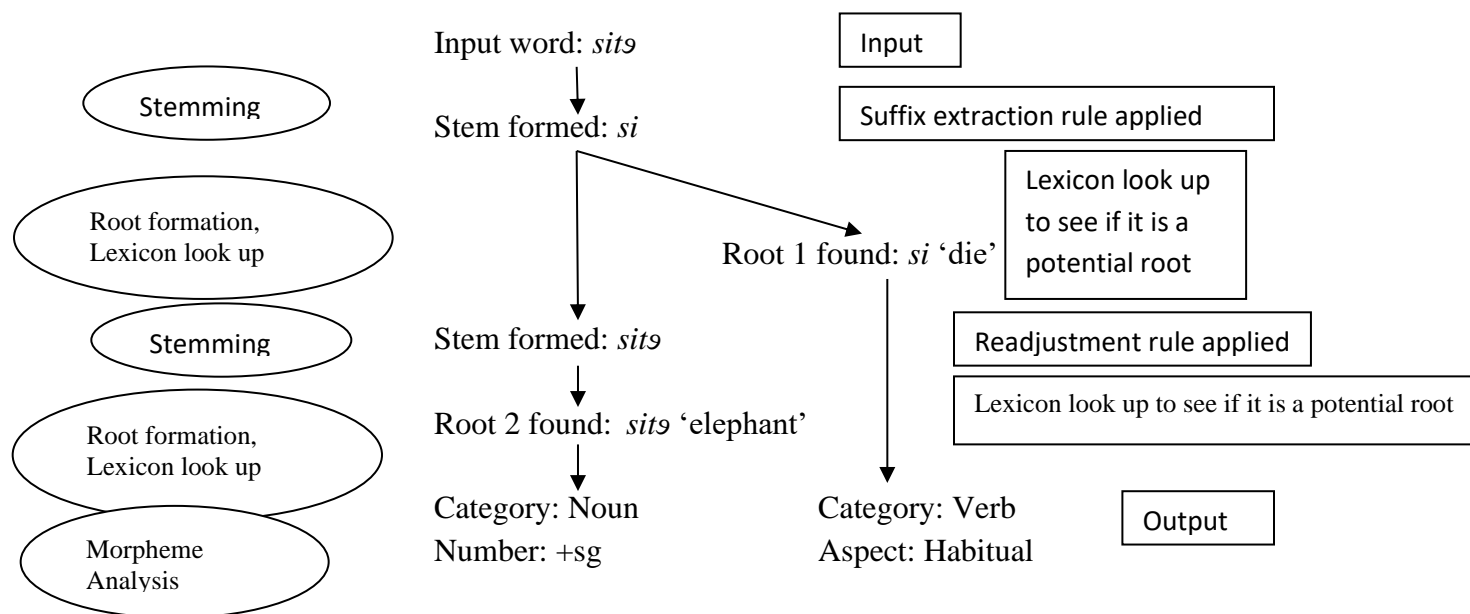


Figure 1: Processes of the DM-based Mishing Morphological Analyser

5.0 Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented a comprehensive analysis of Mishing verb inflection and its implementation in a DM-based Morphological Analyser. The system was able to analyze both regular and irregular verb forms. The system failures were driven primarily by external factors. The output of the system is quite detailed as it produces morpheme analyses for both root and suffixes for a word form. This analysis can easily be done in the reverse to generate verbal forms as well. Distributed Morphology allows for morphology to work in tandem with syntax (so a parser based on this system can easily incorporate the analyzer) and at the same time allows for the quirks of morphology to be dealt with in specific ways (fusion, fission etc).

DM at its core comprises a framework of assumptions for thinking about the grammar as a whole and the interaction of its parts. The Morphology part of the name stresses an emphasis on

facts traditionally seem as the purview of morphology the shape of words. The Distributed part of DM highlights the contention that the grammatical knowledge of pieces of words is not monolithic, but enters the grammatical computation at various points in various ways. The traditionally conceived Lexicon is replaced by three lists:

- (36) (i) a list of the abstract morphemes that are the building blocks of syntax,
(ii) a list of vocabulary items that spell out morpho-syntactic structures, and
(iii) a list of the idiosyncratic meanings of individual pieces in particular contexts.

The key assumptions of this theory are that syntax is the primary engine of composition- i.e., that word-formation is part of the syntax, and that morphology is realizational, specifically post-syntactic.

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Literacy and Demographic Aspects of Kurumbar of Palakkad District of Kerala

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Abstract

Aspects of Literacy rate and Educational developments are the key variables in the case of demographic deviations. It is worthwhile mentioning that the list of scheduled tribes in Kerala had undergone drastic changes during the decade 2001-011, resulting in change in proportion of scheduled Tribes. The entire literacy rate of scheduled tribe according to 2001 Census has increased from 57.2% recorded at 1991 Census to 64.4%. In 2011 Census the literacy rate is 74.04%. Growth of Literacy and Education has a valuable role in every sphere of life such as population. This paper deals with preliminary study on population and literacy and its connection with education of Kadar and Kurumbar Community in Palakkad District.

Keywords: Kurumbar, Literacy, Demographic, Census, Tribe, Vulnerable, Mother tongue, Endangerment

Introduction

The popular term 'tribe' is derived from the Latin expression 'tribus', Umbrian trifu, linguistic terms designating Indo- European institutions. In the old form they designated a peculiar kind of social and political organization existing in the society. The term was used to refer to the largest kind of social and political group which existed before the appearance of the state. It was Lewis Morgan, in the middle of 19th century attempted to analyze this in terms of science in his Systems of consanguinity and affinity of the entire human Family (1871). India has the largest tribal community population in the world. One of the Indian state, Andhra Pradesh has the largest tribal concentration in southern India. The tribal heritage constitutes the fruitful component of the cultural heritage of Kerala. The tribal population is found in almost every part of the world. Tribes are believed to be the earliest settlers in Indian Peninsula.

According to 2011 Census of India, The Tribal population is 8.6 % of the entire population of India, which is 104.2 million of the total population. According to the rate of literacy of scheduled tribes in India by NSSO, 2010 is 63.1%. In India, most tribal concentrated

states are Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Karnataka, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Gujarat, and Jharkhand.

The tribes of Kerala are descendants of the Pre- historic settlers of the entire region. Kerala has around 36 Scheduled Tribal Communities. The total Scheduled Tribe population of Kerala, according to 2011 census is 4,84,839 which constitute 1.45% of the total population of Kerala. Wayanad district has the highest number of tribal people (1, 36,062). Idukki (50973) and Palakkad (39665) districts are the next two that make the lion portion of the native tribal groups in the state. Palakkad is the third largest tribal concentrated districts in Kerala state. Major scheduled tribes in the district are Irular, Kadar, Kurumbar, Eravalan, Malasar, Mahamalar, and Mudugar. Irular scheduled tribe is the dominant tribal community with highest number of population.

In this study, Kurumbar residing at Palakkad district are going to discuss through their demographic and literary aspects. Kurumbar is the primitive tribal group in Kerala. In 2006 the government of India proposed to rename "Primary tribal group" as particularly vulnerable tribal group". PTG has since been renamed particularly vulnerable tribal group by the government of India. The Scheduled Tribe communities who were identified as more isolated from the wider community and who maintain a distinctive cultural identity have been categorized as 'Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Groups' (PTGs) by the Government of India. So far 75 tribal communities have been noted as 'particularly vulnerable tribal groups' in different States of India. The Kurumbar Scheduled tribes are recognized as a Primitive Tribal Group (PVTG) by Government of India in 1975. The Kurumbar community, which is one among the Particularly Vulnerable Tribe Groups (PTG's) of the State, is known for its geographical isolation or remoteness and backwardness when compared to most of the Scheduled Tribal communities of Kerala State.

Kurumbar are distributed in the Puthur Gramapanchayath of Agali block which included under Mannarkad Taluk of Palakkad. They have been found in the 17th Settlement reserve forest area of Attapadi. Kurumbar lives in Attapady regions of Palakkad district. Kurumbar inhabit 14 hamlet out of which nine are in the reserve forest and the rest in the vested forests. The nine Kurumbar hamlets placed in the forest reserve areas. The names of hamlets is Melai Tudukkil, Thazhe Thudukki, Murukala, Anavayi, Kadukanannu, Galazi, Kurukkati Kallu, Gotisar Kandi and Tadikundu. The five hamlets placed in the vested forests were Boothayar, Yadavani, Pazhayur, Soothara and Moola Komb.

According to Census 2001, Kurumbar's population is estimated to be 2174 where, male population is 1132 and female population is 1042. According to Census 2011, the total estimated population among Kurumbar Community is 2586 where, male population is 1302 and female

population is 1284. The Kurumbar were residing at Palakkad district of Kerala state. Around 426 tribal settlements are located in Palakkad district. According to the basic scheduled tribe information 2010, 45 percentages of the 426 tribal settlements, they are located in Attapady. According to 2011 Census the entire scheduled tribe population of the district is 48972 where, 24314 are males and 24658 are females. The total number of scheduled tribes of the district constitutes 1.74 percent to the total population of the district. The detailed list is given bellow.

	Year	
	2011	2001
Population	2810892	2617482
Male	1360067	1266985
Female	1450825	1350497
ST Population	48972	39665
Male	24314	19990
Female	24658	19675
Literacy (All communities)	88.49%	84.35%
Male	92.27%	89.52%
Female	84.99%	79.36%

Table 1. Demographic Profile of Palakkad District, Source: Census Data, (2001 and 2011)

Objectives

The study was undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To understand the life of the communities in the context of the Demographic profiling.
2. To understand the educational and literacy aspects of the community.

Area of Study

The present study is intended to cover the selected settlements of the Kurumbar community in the State.

Statement of the Problem

Kurumbar Tribal Community is the Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Community, and they are in a state of educational backwardness. The educational as well as literacy attainment of these communities is not at all encouraging. The education of tribes is still a big problem. A small number of students have the proper opportunity for education in the medium of their mother tongues. In spite of a lot of efforts, they have not yet been brought to the mainstream. Almost all students are admitted to schools, but a majority among them became dropouts in the school. Low level school learning was found among children not only because of household or personal

factors but also problems with the language of instruction which is quite different from their mother tongue. They still remain as the excluded and marginalized group of the population. Both their languages are in the state of endangerment according to the WALE Report by Moseley. (Dr. Prema, Dr Syam SK: 2016).

Methodology

Descriptive and Analytical methodologies are going to follow in this study. The primary data required for the study is intended to be gathered through intensive field work among the community. Structured and semi-structured interviews were conducted at the time of the field interactions in order to get an in-depth understanding about the various aspects of the community. Secondary data of the study is to be collected from published books, journals, official records, local historical writings, Internet etc.

Significance of the Study

The proposed study is of great relevance in the present scenario as it intends to cover the various dimensions with regard to the actual life situations of an excluded and marginalized group of the population with a view to develop a new look for their overall well-being.

Kurumbar Community

The tribal people from Kurumba community were shifting cultivators and food gatherers. They sow all seeds, paddy, Red green, ragi etc. Harvest of the same has done as and when each crop ripens. Among Kurumbar a number of them were illiterate, but now a small number of people are literate. Kurumbar have their own language exactly their mother tongue called Kurumba Bhasha, which belongs to Dravidian language family. The influence of contact language such as Tamil, Kannada, and Malayalam are also seen in their language. Now they speak more than one language. When they go out, they need to talk in Tamil or Malayalam. Apart from these occasions, they always speak their own language (Dr. A. Ayyappan). There are fifteen such 'uuru' in Attappady. They are anavay, melethudukki, Thazhethudukki, kadukumanna, Thadikkundu, Murugala, Galasi, Kurukkathikkallu, Pahayuuru, Bhuthayuuru, Edabaani, Muulekombu, Chuttara, pettikkallu and Abbanuuru. Each uuru has a headman known as 'Urumooppan' and he has three assistants viz. 'Kuruthale', 'Bandari', and 'Mannukkaaran'. All the ceremonies are presided over by the urumooppan. The Kurumbar are very well at making different shapes of baskets using bamboo, and they claim to have more skill in basket making than the Irulas and Mudugas. They use these bamboo baskets for storing cereals and household goods. For storing paddy, Ragi and Chama they make large bamboo baskets. (Dr. A. Ayyappan)

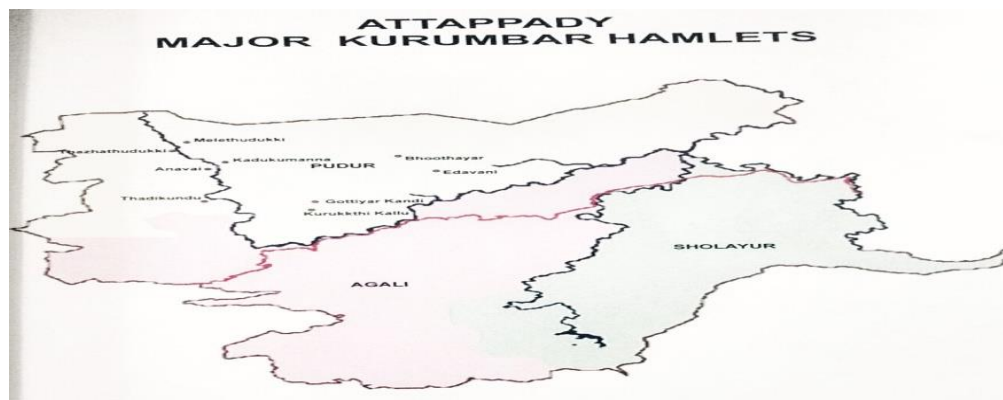


Fig: 1. Attappady –Major Kurumbar Hamlets- Dr. S Bindu, Ethnography of Kurumbar Demographic Profiling

In Palakkad district, the community is concentrated in Parambikulam and Nenmara regions Kuriarkutty, Earth Dam, Kadavu, Thekkadi Allumoopan Colony and Muppathuacre Colony.

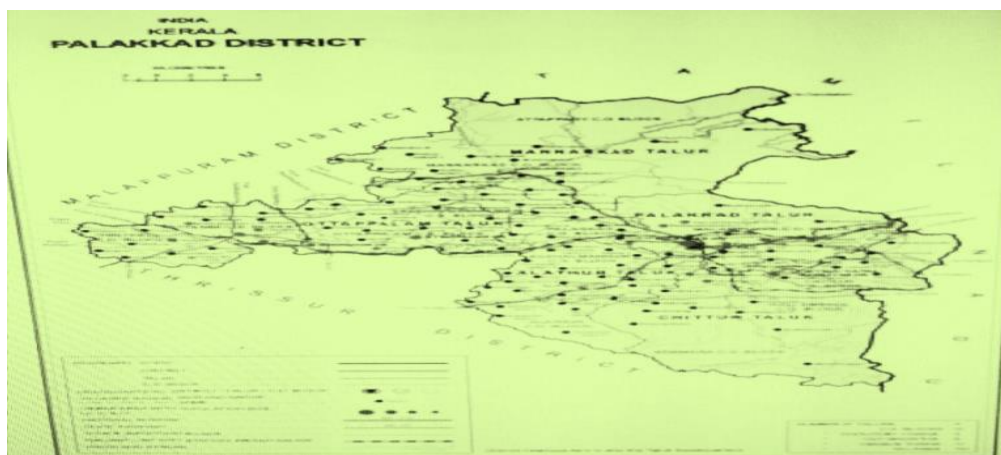


Fig: 2. Demographic Profile of Palakkad District, Source: Census Data, (2001 and 2011)
Literacy rate of Kurumbar.

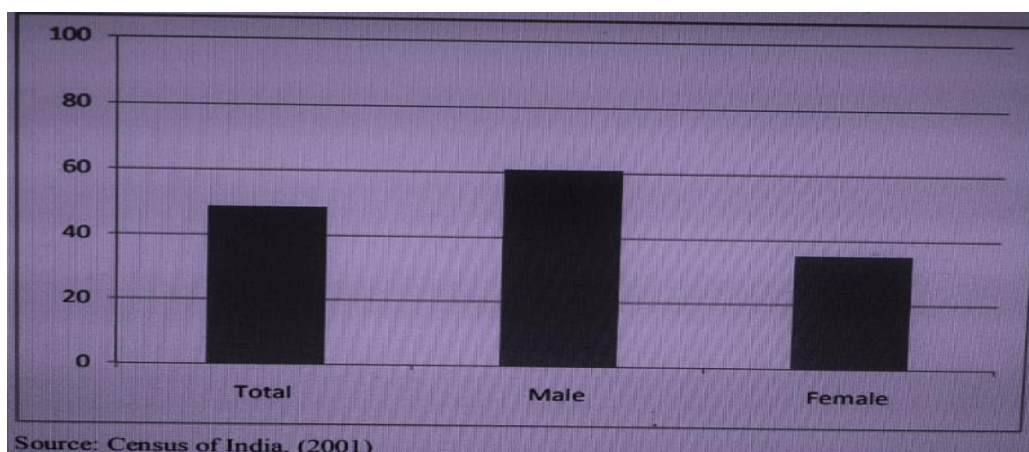


Fig:3. (http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/71861/13/13_chapter%202.pdf)

Educational attainments of Kurumbar

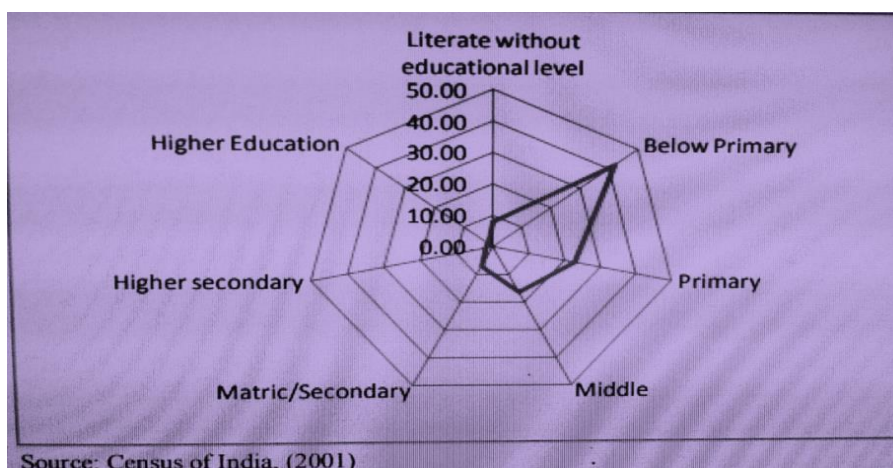


Fig:4. (http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/71861/13/13_chapter%202.pdf)

In 2011, the state, Palakkad had population of 2,809,934 of which male and female were 1,359,478 and 1,450,456 respectively. Palakkad had a total population of 2,617,482 of which males were 1,266,985 and remaining 1,350,497 were females according to 2001 census. In the previous census of India 2001, Palakkad District documented an increase of 9.88 percent to its population compared to 1991. So we can say that there was change of 7.35 percent in the population compared to population as per 2001. (censusindia.gov.in, 2011)

Palakkad Data	2001	2011
Total Population	2617482	2809934
Male	1266985	1359478
Female	1350497	1450456
Population growth	9.88%	7.35%

Table 2. (<https://www.census2011.co.in/census/district/276-palakkad.html>)

So we can say that an average literacy rate of Palakkad (in 2011) was 89.31 compared to 84.35 of 2001 as compared the literacy rate 2001 and 2011. There are certain gender wise differences also noted such as male and female literacy were 93.10 and 85.79. According to Government of India census 2001, the numbers decided as 89.52 and 79.56 in Palakkad District. The total number of literate people in Palakkad District were 2,239,492 and from which the number of male were 1,122,600 and female were 1,116,892. Palakkad District had figured 1,938,818 according to Government of India census 2001, in its district. According to 2011 Census of India, the total literacy rate of Kurumba is documented as 56.36%. Distance from their living place to the educational institutions and lack of interests are the main reason for their low

level of literacy rate. Literacy rate of Scheduled Tribes in the state of Kerala is worked out at 74.44 per cent, which is lower than the State average literacy rate of 93.91 per cent (2011). The highest literacy rate is noted in Kottayam District which stands as 94.31 per cent followed by Thiruvananthapuram (89.85 %) and Patthanamthitta (88.50%) districts respectively. The literacy rate of Scheduled Tribes in Palakkad is reported as 57.63 per cent which is the lowest among the districts in the State. Thrissur District stands with 67.88 per cent followed by Wayanad District with 71.36 per cent. Literacy rate of Cholanackan, a community in PVTG, is 39.63 per cent which is the lowest among the Scheduled Tribe communities. The literacy rate of other communities in the PVTG, except Koraga is far lower to the State average. It is 56.36 per cent for Kurumbar, 58.74 per cent for Kadar and 59.37 per cent for Kattunayakan. Among the numerically smaller groups the lowest literacy rate is recorded for Maha Malasar (43.55 %) followed by Aranadan (49.28%) and Malaipandaram (51.73%). For Paniyans, the literacy rate is 65.19 per cent. Irular claims only 60.01 per cent of literacy. The literacy rate of Malayan community is registered as 63.23 per cent followed by Mudugar (64.15%). (stdd.kerala.gov.in 2008.)

A small number of students have the real opportunity for education in the medium of their home languages such as mother tongues a lot of efforts, have already given by the state government, but they have not yet been brought to the mainstream. Almost all are admitted to schools, but a majority among them became dropouts. Lower level school learning was found among tribal children not only because of household factors but also problems with the language of teaching which is quite distinct from their mother tongue. (censusindia.gov.in/2011).

Dropout Rate in Primary Level

Average Drop-out Rate at Primary Level	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11 All	Boys	Girls
Andhra Pradesh #	5.75	5.39	6.17	6.69	5.62
Arunachal Pradesh	20.70	18.71	14.82	15.38	14.23
Assam	9.64	8.60	11.71	12.47	10.93
Bihar	13.44	6.39	5.68	7.08	4.18
Chhattisgarh	6.20	5.37	4.93	5.12	4.72
Goa	5.00	0.97	-	-	-
Gujarat	3.86	4.27	2.99	2.94	3.04

Haryana	0.15	6.21	-	-	0.15
Himachal Pradesh	2.83	-	0.72	0.41	1.07
Jammu & Kashmir	3.47	1.22	11.33	11.21	11.47
Jharkhand	15.79	10.49	12.62	13.00	12.23
Karnataka	4.11	3.64	2.03	2.15	1.91
Kerala	-	-	0.08	0.04	0.13
Madhya Pradesh	8.20	8.61	8.31	9.07	7.54
Maharashtra	3.32	2.10	1.86	1.84	1.88
Manipur	10.48	9.06	12.06	11.78	12.34
Meghalaya	17.28	12.67	15.11	16.23	14.01
Mizoram	5.28	11.95	7.04	8.42	5.51
Nagaland	11.41	5.18	6.04	6.44	5.63
Odisha	6.34	6.05	5.37	5.30	5.44
Punjab	4.73	1.82	1.80	1.91	1.65
Rajasthan	10.54	10.76	7.79	8.40	7.09
Sikkim	4.46	7.11	4.34	5.68	2.92
Tamil Nadu	0.15	1.19	0.98	1.08	0.87
Tripura	8.82	11.93	6.18	6.20	6.16
Uttar Pradesh	16.71	11.06	11.85	12.30	11.39
Uttarakhand	9.93	5.84	4.93	5.45	4.36
West Bengal	8.66	6.49	6.61	7.39	5.80

UNION TERRITORIES					
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	1.54	3.50	-	-	-
Chandigarh	-	-	-	-	-
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	2.82	2.04	2.48	2.29	2.70
Daman & Diu	2.29	6.27	2.61	2.78	2.42
Delhi	0.30	-	-	-	-
Lakshadweep	4.20	2.38	1.29	1.53	1.04
Puducherry	-	0.44	-	-	-
All States /UTs	9.11	6.76	6.50	6.92	6.07

Table 3. (<http://niti.gov.in/content/dropout-rate-primary-level>)

Literacy of Scheduled Tribes and General State Average

Year	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
General Literacy	55.08	69.75	78.85	89.81	90.92	93.91
ST Literacy	17.26	25.72	31.79	57.22	64.35	75.81
Gap in Literacy	37.82	44.03	47.06	32.59	26.57	18.10

Table 4. (http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/71861/13/13_chapter%202.pdf)

SI NO	YEAR	PERSONS	MALE	FEMALE
1	1951	47.18	58.35	36.43
2	1961	55.08	64.89	45.56
3	1971	69.75	77.13	62.53
4	1981	78.85	84.56	73.36
5	1991	89.81	93.62	86.17
6	2001	90.86	94.24	87.72
7	2011	93.91	96.02	91.98

Table 5. Literacy rate in 1951 – 2011

Education	Palakkad			
	Male	Female	Total	%
Literate without Schooling	13	6	19	4.26
Anganwadi	28	23	51	11.46
Lower Primary	94	85	179	40.22
Upper Primary	56	42	98	22.02
High School	39	33	72	16.17
Higher Secondary School	11	13	24	5.39
Graduate	0	1	1	0.22
Poly Technical Diploma	1	0	1	0.22
Total	242	203	445	100

Table 6. Gender wise Education Attainment

The above table shows that in Palakkad male members are more educated than females. In Palakkad 40.22% completed Upper Primary school. Only 22% completed higher education. This shows the lower educational attainment of this community. (censusindia.gov.in/2011)

Conclusion

Literacy rate and Educational developments are the key variables in the case of demographic deviations. As per 2001 Census report of government of India, the scheduled tribe population is 364189 constituting 1.14% of the total population of the state. According to 2011 Census, the literacy rate was found to be 74.04%. To increase the rate of literacy, the government has made a lot of policies especially, there is a law that every child under the age of 14 should get free education. Consider female literacy rate according to 2011 census is 65.46% and that of the male person's literacy rate is over 80%. Literates in 2011 constitute 74% of the total population in 2001.

Availability of infrastructure requirements in school have drastic change on the school environment and are considered one of the principal indicators for assessing whether the schools are producing a conducive learning environment for children" (DISE report). In the state of Kerala, percentage of schools with Library Facilities in primary schools consist of about 94.69%, for upper primary schools it is 98.93%, for secondary it is 98.20% and for higher secondary school Kerala has witnessed 96.36%. (Fahad Fayaz1, Ms. Shivani Mehta). Illiterates from 26% of the total population in 2011 as compared to 35% in 2001. So 217700941 additional persons have become literate during the decade 2001-2011. In this Census, person who can both read and

write with understanding in any language is taken as literate. A person who can only read but cannot write is not literate. (censusindia.gov.in/2011). The educational inputs are expected to drive not only economic development but also to bring inner ability to meet the challenges due to the exposure to the modern societies. The entire literacy can be achieved only through attacking this problem at both formal and non-formal levels. A carefully designed course content of education can raise anew hope of life and a feeling of equality with other non tribes. Low level of enrolment ratio of children absenteeism of teachers and high dropout rates are the prominent impediments to Kurumbar education. In this context the following recommendations are made. Initiation and follow up projects for bringing back to school dropouts by inducement and compensations for the tribal parents for the earning cost lost by the children in contribution to the family's entire economy. Proper and first step to improve and to increase tribal's participation in Higher education is to improve their interest in study even from the primary level. Proper encouragement, systematic counseling, Motivation classes, efficient awareness programs, special incentives, more number of schools in tribal areas, more flexible teachers, etc. has to be included in the educational streams. (censusindia.gov.in/2011). Automatically the pass percentage ratio of the tribal people will increase. That will result in more talents from tribal area in higher education.

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The Proper Name Translation

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Abstract

This article attempts to analyze translation problem of the proper name in literature. During the translation process, we have to solve some problems in translation and choose correct methods overcoming such problems. Correct translation of the proper name plays an important role in literary translation. For example, to keep the spirit of artistic translation, certain imagination of the main hero is needed. The translator must pay an attention to the Source Text and facts related to the text. The facts are supported by studies of the researchers of that field. Using the proper name as allusion is assisted in making the correct version of the translation.

Keywords: translation techniques, proper name allusion, *Genghis Khan*, source text, source language, literary translation.

Introduction

The proper name translation presents many issues and problems in the translation of a text. The proper name translation may be not so difficult if the readers are acquainted well with the nationality of the text. But translator must pay attention to it because there are many occasions and difficulties with proper names during translation process.

There are some versions of the translation “Genghis Khan”, who was the Great Emperor of the Mongol Empire, a very popular proper name all over the world.

For example:

Of the thousands of the cities conquered by the Mongols, history only mentions one that **Genghis** Khan deigned to enter. (9, p. 3)

The banner of **Chingiz**-Khan's fortune was raised, and they issued forth. (9, p. 274)

By the arms of **Zingis** and his descendants the globe was shaken. (9, p. 79)

And above all it was due to the brilliant captainship of **Chengiz**. (9, p. 261)

There may be several versions of the same proper name, and the translator has to solve which version of the proper name is best for translation. Such choices require confirmation/affirmation from sources belonging to the research materials.

J. Weatherford said, “If common form already exists in English, I use it. Thus, I use the Persian name Genghis, simply because that spelling is more recognized than Chinggis, Jenghiz, Dzingis or many other renditions of the name. (9, p.287)

It is good explanation for common readers, but the Persian background is not given or recognized.

Genghis Khan has been used in English translations and in many popular research studies such as *The Secret History of Mongolia* by Woodman, and other works by scholars like Cleaves, Lister R.P and other well-known scholars. So **Genghis** is recognized and widely used all over the world.

Chinggis Khaan \Чингис Хаан\ is more popularly used in Mongolian literature, scientific and research works. It reflects the authentic orthography in ancient Mongolian vertical scripture version.

But there are many problems related to it. For example, connotations and implied meanings could be an integral part of some proper names and so their translation may need inclusion of such features. Such connotations and implied meanings require more specific features to be included in the translation. Sometimes, translator may use the source language proper name into the target language, and then naturalize the translated word back into a new source language proper name. In Leppihalme’s strategies, it is a translation technique for proper names. This is based on the feature that a proper name has allusion.

Retention of the Name

- a. Using the name as such.
- b. Using the name, adding some guidance.
- c. Using the name, adding a detailed explanation, for instance, a footnote.

Replacement of the Name by Another

- a. Replacing the name by another source language name.
- b. Replacing the name by another target language name.

Omission of the Name

- a. Omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means, for instance, by a common noun.
- b. Omitting the name and the allusion together.

P. Newmark said that “There remains the question of names that have connotations in imaginative literature. In comedies, allegories, fairy tales and some children’s stories, names are translated ... , unless, as in folk tales, nationality is important.” (6, p. 215)

The translator D. Byambaa who translated “The Squire’s Tale” by Geoffrey Chaucer into Mongolian language underlined that *Cambyuskan* is **Chinggis Khan** \Чингис Хаан\ according to Jack Weatherford’s study. Also some researchers recognized that *Genghis Khan* is **Cambyuskan** in Chaucer's version in his tale. (10)

Translations of *Genghis Khan* offer a good lesson for translators and a good example for the proper name allusion in literature as well as in poetry. If translator doesn’t observe the proper name allusion, spirit of the literary work will be lost; readers can’t discover and relish the main essence of it. Replacement of the name by another should be used effectively. The translator D. Byambaa replaced the name in the following example.

Examples:

*This noble king was known as **Cambyuskan**,
Who in his time was of so great renown
That there was nowhere in the wide world known
So excellent a lord in all things.* [1, p. 44]

In Mongolian:

*Энэ тэнгэрлэг Хааныг **Чингис хаан** гэдэг байжээ.
/Ene tengerleg khaaniig **Chinggis khaan** gedeg baijee./
Эрин цагтаа агуу ихээрээ алдаршин манджээ.
/Erin tsagtaa aguu ikheeree aldarshin mandjee./
Этүгэн даяар эгнэшгүй хэмээн машид гарчээ
/Etugen dayar egneshgui hemeen mashid garchee./
Элдэв бүхнээрээ эзэн дээдэс хэмээн магтагджээ.
/Eldev bukhneeree ezen deedes hemeen magtagdjee./* [1, p. 8]

Source name was Cambyuskan.

Example: *This noble king was known as **Cambyuskan**.*

Target language name was Genghis Khan. \Чингис Хаан \.

Example: *This noble king was known as **Genghis Khan**,*

The proper name allusion is followed by replacement of the name by another. Source name was replaced by some other target language names such as **Genghis Khan** and **Чингис Хаан** /**Chinggis Khaan**/.

We can use them in translation practice. Theoretical guidance is used in practice to solve the problems. These proper names may or may not be proper for other readers. These may need some addition of detailed explanations. You can get more information from the translated term, and it may give them full understanding and correct concept about the proper names.

These procedures and functional equivalents and notes would have a higher potential for conveying the original features of the concept. Rendering allusion plays a role in recognition and perception of connotations.

The proper name allusions are inevitable for translation, and it is a one main factor for conveying cross-cultural implications. Mongolian and foreign readers' recognition and knowledge are different, but text is related to the history, not only to Mongolians.

The result of replacement of one original name by another, especially Mongolian, offers readers have an opportunity for enjoyment of reading the translated text as reading the source text. In the translation of a literary text we need to pay adequate attention to the allusion that a proper name carries with it. We cannot produce correct and acceptable translation if we do not take this into consideration. If this is not done, it will lead to misunderstanding and confusion for the readers, and it will decrease the quality of the translation.

Conclusion

Using allusion gives effect of the original text for the translated work for the readers. It creates an acceptable translation that produces the same feeling as well as reading the source text. It becomes a translation strategy as well as a translation procedure. But we need to assess the result it has on readers' enjoyment and recognition. It also makes a significant contribution to introducing historical issues through literature.

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Impact of Activity-Oriented Teaching on Students’ Academic Performance in Physics at College Level - Additional Follow-up Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this research article was to investigate the impact of activity- oriented teaching on the students’ performance in Physics at college level. An earlier study by Majid Khan, et. 2020, ten chapters from high school physics textbook were used. A sample of 60 students participated in that study. In the present study twenty (20) lessons were selected from 11th class Physics for the present study. All the science students at colleges of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, studying Physics at the 11th grade, constituted the population. A sample of 80 students was randomly selected from Govt. College Peshawar, Mardan, Kohat and Malakand. Pre-test- Post-test Control Group Design“ of experimental research was selected for this research study. Three MCQs type achievement tests were used as research tools for the data collection. Experimental group was taught with the help of activities whereas the control group was taught the same lessons through traditional method of teaching for the period of six (4) weeks. T-test was used to analyze the data. The results showed that the activity- based teaching is more effective for the development of higher order skills in the students.

Keywords: Colleges of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan, study of physics, Activity based learning, Academic performance, cognitive skill.

Introduction

Activity-based learning (ABL) as defined by Prince (2004) is a learning method in which students are engaged in the learning processes. In Activity-based learning (ABL)

teaching method, in the words of Hartfield, Davies, Hede, Panko Kenley (2007) “students actively participate in the learning experience rather than sit as passive listeners”. Learning activities if based on “real life experience” help learners to transform knowledge or information into their personal knowledge which they can apply in different situations (Edward, 2001). Harfield, Davies, Hede, Panko and Kenley (2007) by quoting Prince (2004) say that active learning method is different from traditional method of teaching on two points. First, active role of students and second, collaboration among students. Suydam, Marilyn and Higgins (1977) define activity –based learning as the learning process in which “student is actively involved in doing or in seeing something done.” According to them Activity –Based teaching (ABT) method “frequently involves the use of manipulative materials”. Meaningful learning, according as Churchill (2003) quotes Jonassen and Churchill (2003) engages activity. According to Churchill (2003), ABL helps learners to “construct mental models that allow for ‘higher-order’ performance such as applied problem solving and transfer of information and skills”.

Science education actually describes and explains the ability of students to identify scientific issues, explains scientific phenomenon using scientific evidence and observation, deduces, analyses, solves and makes decisions about all the life situations involving science and technology, “such that an individual in order to participate fully in today’s global economy, needs to be able to solve scientific ideas, scientific experiment, clearly and persuasively” (Shah. K. 2015).

According to PISA 2015, scientific literacy is divided into three domains. First domain is the ability of an individual to study and explain a natural and technological phenomenon scientifically and evaluating explanations for these phenomena. Second one is to study and design a scientific enquiry that is evaluating and finding scientific investigations and raises questions scientifically on the understudy phenomenon. The third and last domain is to study and construct the data and all suggestions scientifically, that is, analyzing and evaluating data and then deriving appropriate scientific results (OECD, 2013, p. 7).

According to DeBoer (1991, p. 240), science education produces in an individual independence, self-activity, question creativity, and empowers the ability in an individual to think and to act, observe and create new ideas, to produce the investigative skills that contribute

to self-regulation, self-esteem, personal satisfaction, and social responsibility in a society, interconnected experimental and theoretical knowledge, and the internal ability and skills due to which an individual works with what is known, and cognizance of the contexts due to which that knowledge and those skills apply.

Shah. K. (2015) to develop the science education, the National Science Foundation stressed that science education should be given more emphasis as compared to other subjects and rethought with more interest. According to it more and more concentration and emphasize may be given on science and technology education

To enhance science education there is an approach of “Science for All”. This approach stresses that there is a need that all students should be scientifically literate for a socially sound society. So, this approach is important for an individual or society to adopt science education so that they will face the future challenges and issues. (Shah. K.2017)

According to European Commission, scientific literacy provided by science education does not mean that each and every one is expert in science education and literacy. But it is important.

In ABL, the learner examines learning requirements and thinks how to solve a problem in hand. The students do not learn about the content. Rather they learn about the process to solve the problem. As they go towards the solution of the problem, they also learn about the content (Churchill 2003). Effective teaching –learning process is not possible without students’ motivation. Hake (1998) argues that students’ motivation by engaging them in interactive-activities is an effective and useful method for teaching complex concepts. He highlights the importance of different activities related to the concepts being presented.

Activity-based learning (ABL) theory is a cognitive-learning theory which is basically a “constructivist” learning theory (Hein, 1991, Stößlein 2009). According to constructivist view of learning each person „constructs” their own knowledge and learning process based on previous experience. This theory asserts that learning takes place when psychological environment of an individual interacts with a particular structure. For construction students it is imperative to have variety of activities in an active classroom (Abdelhamid, 2003, Murray,

Donohoe and Goodhew, 2004). Active classrooms are basic requirements for construction education (Betts and Liow ,1993, Panko et al,2005). Traditional teaching methods are not suitable for tactile learning because tactile learning needs direct experience and involve manipulation of materials (Kolb, 1984). According to constructivism, teachers cannot transfer their knowledge to the students (Domin 2007). For meaningful learning to be taken place, learners require to experience an event. (Shah. K. 2020) noted correctly that

“The majority of students in our schools are unable to make connections between what they are learning and how that knowledge will be used”.

One of the reasons is that we do not contextualize our teaching/learning process. ABL is helpful to contextualize the students learning. In an “active-learning classroom” students are active learners not the passive receivers. According to Stößlein (2009) this approach provides a way to integrate learning within students’ knowledge, and, by exposing them to a variety of activities, helps them learn how to learn. He describes ABL as a “successful teaching model” in the field of science. These activities, if carried out in an effective manner, develop skills like Team-working, Communication, Design, Leadership, Project management, Research, Problem-solving, Reflection and Life-long learning in the learners. These activities, if based on the real-life experiences, can help students to apply the same in their practical life and hence prepare students for future life. In activity –based teaching /learning environment, the teacher is a facilitator, motivator, guide, and a coach not a sage on the stage (Stolen 2009)). There is a famous saying of Confucius about the success of the students’ learning that is given below. “Tell me, and I will forget, Show me, and I may remember, Involve me, and I will understand.” According to Chickering & Gamson (1987) “students must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves”. Students’ motivation is high if these activities are personally relevant to the students (Harel and Papert 1991, Kafai and Resnick 1996, Hug, Krajcik, and Marx 2005). There is research evidence which shows that students will retain limited knowledge if they are involved passively in teaching- learning process ((Shah. K. 2019)). The same is indicated in the 'Dale’s cone of experience' developed by Shah. K (2016) shown below.

Learning activities provides opportunities for experiential learning which involves links between the thinking and the doing. It is assumed that students who handle the learning activities successfully have learnt the concept to perform that particular activity.

Hake (1998) found that ABL significantly improves conceptual understanding of the students in a physics class. Magno, et al. (2005) reached on the conclusion that “the classes receiving the PBL activity on memory had significantly higher performance accuracy in the test and had higher attitude as compared with the other classes who received instruction through traditional method”. While conducting research on teaching experimental economics for high schools, Brock and Lopus (2004) concluded that “ABL do a good job of satisfying the conditions sufficient for economic experiments”. Teo & Wong (2000) view that traditional teaching approaches do not encourage learners to associate with previously acquired knowledge. On the other hand, Boud & Feletti (1999) remarked that activities -based learning encourage students to “learn how to learn” through different activities and real-life problems.

Effectiveness of ABL to facilitate self-directed learning and problem-solving skills is well documented in medical education (Barrows and Tamblyn, 1980; Schmidt, 1983), in higher education and K–12 education settings (Barrows, 2000; Dochy, et al., 2003; Gallagher, et al., 1992; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Hmelo, et al., 2000; Torp and Sage, 2002; Williams and Hmelo, 1998). Hussain, et al. (2011) reached on the conclusion about the effect of activity-based learning (ABL) that ABL is more effective to teach physics at secondary level as compared to traditional method of teaching. However, Lieux (2001) and Zumbach, et al. (2004) found no significant difference in knowledge acquisition between students who learned through ABL method and who learned through traditional method of teaching. Doucet et al. (1998) and Blake, et al. (2000) found that students who were taught through ABL performed significantly better on both basic and clinical sciences. Verhoeven, et al.’s (1998) partially, while Dochy, et al. (2003) completely, agreed with their findings. Berkson (1993) and Colliver (2000) could not find any evidence to maintain the superiority of ABL method over traditional method of teaching. Gallagher and (Shah. K.2018) found no significant difference on “short-term retention” assessment between students of ABL and traditional students. Norman and Schmidt (1992) cited Dochy, et al., (2003) and Mårtenson, et al. (1985) that, on “long-term retention assessments” students of ABL performed better than traditional students. Hung, Jonassen, and Liu (2008) referred Eisensteadt, et al. (1990) that traditional students retained more than ABL

students in the recall test conducted immediately. However, retention rate of traditional student declined fast as compared to ABL students. In higher order thinking skills, ABL students performed significantly better than traditional students in one of the studies conducted by Polanco et al. (2004) to investigate the impact of ABL on “students’ academic achievement” in mechanics. Shelton and Smith (1998) conducted a research study on biomedical students and found better performance of the biomedical students of ABL in the achievement test than their counterparts. In a study, Gallagher et al. (1992) noted remarkable improvement in the results of ABL students than their counterparts and viewed that ABL is an effective method of developing “problem-solving processes and skills”. Hung, Jonassen and Liu (2008) mentioned that ABL has “positive impact on students’ abilities to apply basic science knowledge and transfer problem-solving skills in real-world professional or personal situations”. Suydam, Marilyn and Higgins (1977) and Shepherd (1998) reported same kind of results. Coulson and Osborne (1984), Blumberg and (Shah. K.2017). Norman and Schmidt (1992), Ryan (1993), Dwyer (1993), Dolmans and Schmidt (1994), Woods (1993), van den Hurk, et al. (1999) Schmidt and van der Molen (2001) and Schmidt et al.(2006) reached on the similar conclusion about the impact of ABL. Kaufman and Mann, (1996) noted students believe about ABL to be more effective to „enhancing of information management skills“, Caplow, et al. (1997) to enrich their “learning of basic science information”, Martin, et al. (1998) to promote their learning to “deal with complex situations”, Dean (1999) to enhance their confidence in “judging alternatives for solving problems”, Lieux (2001) to “develop thinking and problem-solving skills”, Schmidt and van der Molen (2001) and Schmidt, et al. (2006) to “improving interpersonal and professional skills, and advancing self-directed learning, higher level thinking”. Thornton (2001) remarks in ‘Teaching Physics Concepts with Activity-based Learning “that activity-based learning, greatly improves students”’ learning and understanding of scientific concepts. (Shah. K. 2016) noted the positive impact of ABL approach on the students as well as teachers in a vocational institution.

Research Methodology

Population of the Study All the science students at government colleges of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, studying Physics at the 11th grade, constituted the population.

Sample of the Study

Govt. colleges Peshawar, Mardan, Kohat and Swat was selected as sample colleges. 80 science students were randomly selected as sample for this study. Control and experimental groups were randomly formed from the sample (forty students in each group).

Content of the Study

Force and Motion (ch3), Work, Power & Energy (ch4), Simple Harmonic Motion (ch7), Heat and Thermodynamics (10) were selected for treatment.

Design of the Study

The researchers used Pre-test - Post-test Control Group Design for this study which involves two groups, experimental and control. In this design both randomly formed groups (control & experimental) are pretested and after treatment, post tested. Pre-test and post-test are same for both the groups. It is a strong experimental design in which all sources of internal invalidity are controlled due to random assignment, pre-test, and the presence of control group.

Instrument

MCQs type written tests were developed for the collection of data. Pre-test was developed from the first five chapters of 11th grade Physics of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa keeping Bloom's taxonomy in view. Out of 60 questions, ten (20) of knowledge, ten (10) of comprehension, ten (10) of application, ten (10) of analysis, and ten (10) questions of synthesis were constructed. Post-test was constructed from the last chapters of the same textbook whereas the distribution of the questions remained same for each domain as in the pre-test. Test items were finalized after item analysis. Item difficulty and item discrimination index were calculated, and test items of mixed difficulty were selected finally. Content validity of the tools was established by discussing them with two different subject specialists and an educationist in the field of science education. Reliability of the Pre-test and post-test was estimated at 0.78 and 0.9 by using split-half reliability method.

Analysis and Interpretation of the Data

To find the significant difference between the mean scores, "independent samples t-test" was applied at the significant level of 0.05. Different null hypotheses were developed to test the significant difference between the control and experimental group. H₀₁. There is no significant difference in the achievement scores of the students of control group and experimental group in the pre-test.

H₀₁. There is no significant difference in the achievement scores of the students of control group and experimental group in the pre-test.

Table 1: Achievement Scores of the students of control group and experimental group on pre-test

Domain	Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05)
Knowledge	Experimental	25	5.24		0.67	0.67<1.02
	Control	25	5.04			
Comprehension	Experimental	25	5.08		-0.75	-0.75<2.01
	Control	25	5.28			
Application	Experimental	25	5.28	48	0.95	0.95<2.01
	Control	25	5.08			
Analysis	Experimental	25	4.80		1.17	1.17<2.01
	Control	25	4.52			
Synthesis	Experimental	25	5.24		0.68	0.68<2.01
	Control	25	5.08			

The calculated t-values are less than the table values. It is clear from the results shown above in the Table 1. That there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group in the cognitive domains of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis. Hence, It is concluded that both the experimental and control groups were the same in the cognitive skills before the treatment.

H02.: There is no significant difference in the achievement scores of the students of control group and experimental group on post-test in the domain of knowledge.

Table 2: Achievement Scores of control group and experimental group on post-test t in the domain of knowledge.

Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05)
Experimental group	25	5.75	48	1.00	1.00<2.01
Control group	25	5.48			

The calculated t-value is less than the table value (calculated t=1.00 and table value=2.01). Hence, it is concluded that there is no significant difference in the achievement of the students of experimental group and control group in the domain of knowledge.

H03. There is no significant difference in the achievement scores of the students of control group and experimental group in the post-test in the domain of comprehension.

Table 3: Achievement Scores of control group and experimental group on post-test in the domain of Comprehension

Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05)
Experimental group	25	5.72	48	1.11	1.09<2.01
Control group	25	5.05			

As the calculated t-value is less than the table value (calculated $t=1.09$ and table value= 2.01), there is no significant difference in the achievement of the students of experimental group and control group in the domain of comprehension.

H₀₄.: There is no significant difference in the achievement scores of the students of control group and experimental group in the post-test in the domain of application.

Table 4: Achievement Scores of control group and experimental group on post-test in the domain of application

Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05
Experimental group	25	5.8	48	3.60	3.60>2.01
Control group	25	4.92			

The calculated t-value is greater than the table value (calculated $t=3.60$ and table value= 2.01). It is clear from the result shown above in the Table 4. That there is significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group which means that there is significant difference in the achievement of the students of experimental group and control group in the domain of application. Hence, It is concluded that activity-based teaching method is more effective than the traditional method of teaching to develop higher order thinking skill (application).

H₀₅.There is no significant difference in the achievement score of the students of control group and experimental group in the post-test in the domain of analysis.

Table 5: Achievement Scores of control group and experimental group on post-test in the domain of analysis

Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05
Experimental group	25	5.52	48	3.06	3.60>2.01
Control group	25	4.76			

The calculated t-value is greater than the table value (calculated $t=3.06$ and table value= 2.01). Hence, it is concluded that activity-based teaching method is more effective than the traditional method of teaching in developing analyzing ability in students.

H₀₆.There is no significant difference in the achievement score of the students of control group and experimental group in the post-test in the domain of Synthesis.

Table 6: Achievement Scores of control group and experimental group on post-test in the domain of Synthesis.

Group	N	Mean	df	t-value	P (0.05
Experimental group	25	4.84	48	4.18	4.18>2.01
Control group	25	3.76			

The calculated t-value is greater than the table value (calculated $t=4.18$ and table value=2.01). It is clear from the result shown above in the Table 6. that there is significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group. Hence, It is concluded that activity-based teaching method is more effective than the traditional method of teaching to develop Synthesizing ability.

Conclusion

From the results shown above it was concluded that there was a positive impact of activity- based teaching in developing cognitive skills in the students of physics at secondary level. ABL method of teaching is more effective for the development of higher order thinking skills in the students. These results are supported by the findings of Hung, Jonassen and Liu(2008) , Suydam, Marilyn and Higgins (1977), Coulson and Osborne (1984), Blumberg and Michael (1992), Gallagher, et al. (1992), Norman and Schmidt (1992), Ryan (1993), Dwyer (1993), Dolmans and Schmidt (1994), Woods (1993), Shepherd (1998), van den Hurk, et al. (1999) Schmidt and van der Molen (2001) and Schmidt, et al. (2006), Martin, et al. (1998), Dean (1999), Lieux (2001), Thornton (2001), Schmidt and van der Molen (2001) and Schmidt et al. (2006). Although the mean scores of Experimental Group, in the domain of knowledge and comprehension, is greater than control group, there is no significant difference found between the mean scores of both the groups which means that ABL is more effective for higher order thinking skills (application, synthesis and analysis) than lower order thinking skills (knowledge, comprehension). Gallagher and Stepien, (1996), Lieux, (2001) and Zumbach, et al. (2004) reached on the same conclusion regarding the effectiveness of ABL.

Recommendations

Following recommendations are made on the basis of the results obtained from the analysis of the data:

1. The role of Activity- Based Learning (ABL) is well acknowledged in the literature to develop higher order thinking skills. As this study is consistent with past findings, it is therefore, recommended that ABT should be adopted at secondary level to teach Physics in Pakistan.
2. The study should be replicated in all science disciplines.

3. The study should be replicated to compare the ABT with other methods of teaching to find out the relative effectiveness of the different methods with ABT.
4. The study should be replicated in all grades from elementary to university level.

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The Application of Replacement, Interpretation and Reduction Strategies Guided by Skopos Theory in the TV Series *The Empress In The Palace*

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Abstract

To explain the translation strategies of cultural texts, the researcher examines the subtitle translation strategies of the TV series *The Empress in the Palace* from the perspective of Skopos theory. The main principles of Skopos theory and its applicability to subtitle translation are discussed, and examples of subtitle translation are explored to provide a reference strategy and methodology for the translation of cultural texts.

Keywords: Skopos theory, *The Empress in the Palace*, replacement, interpretation, reduction.

Introduction

Subtitle translation started in the 1930s. Some European scholars found that they could overcome language barriers through translation without losing the originality of the source text. If movies and TV series have contributed greatly to cultural exchange, subtitle translation is like a bridge in this process. Although it is an emerging field, Western scholars have already conducted systematic and logical research in this area. Gambier encouraged his followers to study subtitle translation from different perspectives, such as multisystem theory, psycholinguistics, culture, critical discourse analysis, and functionalism. (Gambier, 2001:183)

The Empress in Palace is one such series that is very popular especially among Chinese people. The story introduced the Royal Concubines in the Forbidden City harem who lost their youth and beauty in an endless struggle of love, power, and wealth. The first episode was released in 1st March, 2012. The plot was on March 1st to May 25th, 2012. The Netflix plot was every weekend during the period of March 1st to May 25th by 2012. Number of episodes was 6.

Literature Review

This paper will present the development of Skopos theory, the basic types and the three principles in the following three areas.

1. Development of Skopos Theory

Skopos theory, one of the most influential achievements in German Functionalism, was proposed by the famous translation theorist Hans J. Vermeer in 1978. Since *Skopos theory* is not built in a day, its rules and principles are deeply influenced by the Functionalism in Germany. Therefore, it is impossible to introduce *Skopos theory* without any study of other theories in Functionalism.

It is said that the theories proposed by Katharina Reiss, Justa Holz-Manttari and Christine Nord have influenced the introduction and development of *Skopos theory*. The thesis will present a review of their studies in the following section.

Katharina Reiss (1923-), graduate from Heidelberg University, is one of the founders in German Functionalism. She is an expert in translation teaching and criticism. As early as 1971 she expressed her functional viewpoints of translation in her work *Objective Approach to Translation Criticism*. In the same year, her well-known book *Possibilities and Limits of Translation Criticism* was published which was regarded as “the starting point for scholarly analysis of translation in Germany” (Nord, 2001:9).

As a functionalist, Reiss proposes some concepts supporting her Functionalism view. She uses “Integral Communication Performance” to describe the ideal translation, “in which the aim in the TL (target language) is equivalence as regards the conceptual content, linguistic form and communicative function of a SL text” (Nord, 2001:9). As a theorist and experienced translator, she recognizes that a complete equivalence is impossible in translation practice. Guided by the “Translation Brief” of Functionalism, she discusses two phenomena which have different functions with the originals. On one hand, the function of the target text is quite different from its original. Take an adaptation of a prose text for the stage as example. On the other hand, the addressees from target text are in different age or educated level. For instance, the translation of *Gulliver’s Travels* for children should be quite different from the original. Because translators need to rewrite the story and ensure it should be understood by most of the children.

One of the biggest achievements of Reiss’ is text typology, which is on the basis of the “organon model” of language function. “According to Reiss, text typologies help the translator specify the appropriate hierarchy of equivalence levels needed for a particular translation Skopos” (Nord, 2001:37). There are three text types in this theory, which are

informative text, expressive text and operative text. Informative text aims at “informing the reader about objects and phenomena in the real world” (Nord, 2001:37). And purely phatic communication is a special kind of informative text, for “the actual informative value is zero and the message is the communication process itself” (Ibid, 2001:37). When it comes to the expressive text, it requires the translator to keep the same style with the original, for it can produce an aesthetic effect on the readers. However, in operative text, content and form are subordinated to the extralinguistic effect. The same reaction in the audience is the guidance of operative text though it may involve changing content and stylistic features of the original.

Although Reiss’s study is the foundation of *Skopos theory*, most of her translating theory is based on the equivalence. It is found that she excludes cultural elements when explaining her theories.

Justa Holz-Manttari (1936-) is a Finnish translator and scholar. She puts forward the Theory of Translational Action and the concept “Message Transmitters”. Theory of Translational Action is introduced in her book *Translatorisches Handeln: Theorie und Methode (Translational Action: Theory and Method)*, which develops from the Action Theory proposed by Wright in 1968. In Holz-Manttari’s view, translation is “a complex action designed to achieve a particular purpose” (Holz-Manttari & Vermeer, 1985:4). In other words, she regards translation as an action with strong intention. The Theory of Action analyzes translation from a linguistic point of view. It focuses on the purpose of translation, which emphasizes TT should keep the same function with ST rather than a complete equivalence.

When it comes to “Message Transmitter”, it not only consists of textual materials, but also contains the pictures, sounds and body movements. Holz-Manttari prefers to use “Message Transmitter” to describe the process of translation, for translation is a process both including linguistic symbols and non-linguistic symbols.

Holz-Manttari also has analyzed the roles of the participants in translation. They are initiator, translator, user, and message receiver. Furthermore, the situational condition (time, place, medium) never should be neglected in translation.

Christine Nord (1943-), a student of Reiss’s is one of the representatives of Functionalism. It is Nord who firstly collects and analyzes previous Functionalism works and answers some doubts and questions raised by different scholars around the world during the development of this school.

After studying Vermeer's *Skopos theory*, she has found some limitations of it. She adds Loyalty Principle to improve and enrich the theoretical framework of *Skopos theory*. Strictly speaking, modern *Skopos theory* is consisted of two rules and a principle, which are Skopos Rule, Coherence Rule and Loyalty Principle. Apart from Loyalty Principle, Christine Nord (1989) divides translation into two categories — Documentary Translation and Instrumental Translation. These two translation types are based on Vermeer's translation type and House's Covert and Overt Translation. The Documentary Translation is "a kind of document of (certain aspects of) a communicative interaction in which a source-culture sender communicates with a source-culture audience via the source text under source-culture conditions" (Nord, 1997c). And the Instrumental Translation refers to "producing in the target language an instrument for a new communicative interaction between the source-culture sender and a target-culture audience, using (certain aspects of) the source text as a model" (Ibid, 1997c).

To be specific, there are four subcategories under Documentary Translation. Firstly, word-for-word or interlinear translation focuses on the morphological, lexical or syntactic features of ST. Secondly, literal or grammar translation means that the translation adapts the syntactic structure and idiomatic use of vocabulary for reproducing the words of the original. Thirdly, philological or learned translation refers to a literal translation with necessary explanations about the source text or source cultural elements. Lastly, foreignizing translation aims at preserving the exotic expressions of ST. Such translation "may create strangeness or cultural distance for the target audience" (Nord, 2001:50). And Instrumental Translation divides into three subtypes regarding the function. Equifunction Translation uses to describe the TT and ST in the same function. However, when the TT and ST are in different function, we called it "Heterofunctional Translation". And the Homologous Translation devotes to preserve the same status with ST.

Documental Translation and Instrumental Translation are just two types of translation Nord divided. She doesn't provide any preference of them. In the practical translation, the text type of ST plays an important role on determining which translation Skopos should be selected.

2. Concepts of *Skopos Theory*

In order to avoid a conceptual confusion, it is necessary to explain some basic concepts before the introduction to the three main rules of *Skopos theory*.

It can't be denied that previous theories make a contribution to the development of *Skopos theory*. Among them, Theory of Action is regarded to be the foundation of *Skopos*

theory. According to Theory of Action, translation is an intentional action. The representatives of this theory believe that “translational action may involve giving advice and perhaps even warning against communicating in the intended way” (Nord, 2001:17). The translator plays a role as “culture consultant” in this action.

Skopos, Aim, Purpose, Intention, Function and Translation Brief play a key role on the development of *Skopos theory*. Skopos is a Greek word for purpose. And it is viewed as the prime principle to determine which translation strategy will be applied in the translation. As translation is an intentional action, Vermeer thinks that “genuine reasons for actions can always be formulated in terms of aims or statements of goals” (Nord, 2001:27). In other words, Aim is a final result which is related to action. Although Skopos is a Greek word for purpose, Purpose is different from Skopos here. It is defined as “a provisional stage in the process of attaining an aim” (Ibid, 2001:28). And the Function discussed here refers to “what a text means or is intended to mean from the receiver’s point of view” (Ibid, 2001:28). But when it comes to the definition of Intention, it is viewed as an aim-oriented plan of action which points toward an appropriate way of producing or understanding the text from a view of sender. Although Vermeer doesn’t draw a distinction among these concepts, as a general rule, he subsumes them under the generic concept of Skopos. Since the Translation Brief is not proposed by Vermeer, he has used other item says Commission to describe the same thing as Translation Brief does. The Translation Brief is decided by the translation Skopos which specifies what kind of translation is needed.

As a student of Reiss’s, Vermeer and his teacher discuss Adequacy and Equivalence in a textual level. Katharina Reiss (1983) explains Adequacy as follow: “Adequacy refers to the qualities of a target text with regard to the translation brief: the translation should be ‘adequate to’ the requirements of the brief. It is a dynamic concept related to the process of translational action and referring to the ‘goal-oriented selection of signs that are considered appropriate for the communicative purpose defined in the translation assignment.” (Nord, 2001: 35).

As translators are members of the ST readers, they will get the original information and understand the ST in their own way. After digesting the ST, they proceed to inform it to the target addressees in a target-culture situation. However, target text addressees and source text addressees are from different culture and language community. Therefore, it is impossible for translator to provide the same amount and same kind of information as the original producer does. But translators can try their best preserve the same goal with the original. This is what Adequacy requires to do.

However, “Equivalence, on the other hand, is a static, result-oriented concept describing a relationship of ‘equal communicative value’ between two text or, on lower ranks, between words, phrases, sentences, syntactic structures and so on” (Nord, 2001:36). According to the definition, it can be found that Equivalence only occurs on the lexical and syntactic level. Such translating standard may be possible aim sometimes, but it shouldn’t regard as a translation principle valid all the time. The main difference between Adequacy and Equivalence is that Adequacy pursues a textual equivalence which is equal to “functional equivalence”. And “Functional Equivalence” is a goal pursued by functionalists in their theories. But Equivalence aims at lexical and syntactic equivalence.

3. Three Rules of *Skopos Theory*

The core of *Skopos theory* is contained three rules, which are Skopos Rule, Coherence Rule and Fidelity Rule. An analysis of each rule will be provided as follows.

3.1 Skopos Rule

According to *Skopos theory*, Skopos Rule is the top-ranking rule for any translation. Specifically, the translation action is determined by its purposes, that is, “the end justifies the means” (Nord, 2001:29). And Hans J. Vermeer declares that “Skopos is variable of the receiver” (Ibid, 2001:29). In other words, the receiver or addressee in target culture is a determining factor for selecting a proper translation strategy. For the concept of Skopos Rule, Vermeer has explained it as follows: “Each text is produced for a given purpose and should serve this purpose. The Skopos rule thus reads as follows: translate/interpret/speak/write in a way that enables your text/translation to function in the situation in which it is used and with the people who want to use it and precisely in the way they want it to function” (Nord, 2001:29).

From the above explanation of Skopos Rule, it is clear to see that a concrete purpose of translation can obtain a functional equivalence between ST and TT. Skopos instructs what must translate consciously and consistently. This is why Skopos Rule is put on the first place in *Skopos theory*.

3.2 Coherence Rule

Hans J. Vermeer says that “text is just an offer of information” (Nord, 2001:31). According to this concept, TT is also an offer of information which is formulated by the translators in a target culture. As receiver or addressee is a determining factor in translation, a

qualified TT should be understood and accepted by the people from target culture. Therefore, Coherence Rule is put on the second important place in *Skopos theory*.

In a narrow sense, Coherence Rule is equivalent to intratextual coherence. It means that TT should make sure to be understood. The receiver or addressee should get used to the words and syntactic structures in TT.

3.3 Fidelity Rule

Fidelity rule is also called intertextual coherence in *Skopos theory*. Since a translation is “an offer of information”, “it is expected to bear some kind of relationship with the corresponding source text” (Nord, 2001:32). It not only requires to faithful to the ST in a semantic level but also remains the same style and flavor as the ST. Fidelity can be fully reached only a translation becomes an imitation of the original work. As a maximal fidelity is hard to obtain, Vermeer believes that it is a form only be expected in literary translation. It might be said that the postulate of ‘fidelity’ to the source text requires that e.g. a news item should be translated ‘as it was in the original’. But this is a goal in itself. Indeed, it is by definition probably the goal that most literary translators traditionally set themselves (Nord, 2001:32).

In the light of *Skopo theory*, intertextual coherence is subordinated to intratextual coherence. Since the Skopos requires the function of TT is different from that in ST, the translation standard will no longer be intertextual coherence but functional equivalence on the basis of Skopos. If the Skopos Rule determines the means of translation, the Coherence Rule requires the quality of TT.

Translation Strategies in *The Empress in the Palace*

Since the mid-twentieth century, the main issues discussed in the translation discipline have revolved around the strategies of domestication and foreignisation.

Domestication means that the translator follows the cultural values of the target language and presents the text in the language of the target country to the maximum extent possible; that is, the translation is made in the language of the target reader, sometimes even rewriting the original.

In contrast, the strategy of foreignisation means that the translator follows the cultural values of the source language when translating the text, preserving some of the exotic elements of the source text through an unfamiliar style of translation.

The American version of the *Empress in the Palace* contains many Chinese idioms, famous personalities and other words and sentences that are very much a part of Chinese language and culture. If an appropriate translation is not chosen in a way that is understandable to the reader, ambiguities may arise, and the translation may become obscure. In addition, due to the constraints of screen space and the speed of the characters' speech, film subtitles need to be concise and semantically clear to convey the content of the film in the shortest possible time. Therefore, from both perspectives, the domestication strategy is the ideal translation strategy for the subtitles of the *Empress in the Palace* and is able to convey the meaning of the Chinese language in a way that is easily understood by American audiences, thus promoting the country's culture and generating box office sales. Under the domestication strategy, the subtitle translation of the American version of the *Empress in the Palace* uses three specific translation strategies: reduction, interpretation, and replacement.

1. Reduction

The series adopted a reduction strategy for the posthumous title of Emperor YONG ZHENG. The translator translated the long posthumous title of "敬天昌运建中表正文武英明宽仁信毅眷圣大孝至诚宪皇帝之墓" into "In memory of the YONG ZHENG Emperor." A reduction strategy can be adopted if the source text is too long and repetitive.

2. Interpretation

For example, parts of the subtitles in *The Empress in The Palace* have well-known meanings in Chinese. For example, in the subtitle translation of *the Empress in the Palace*, “鸡犬升天” (The chicken and the dog followed her to heaven means if one person is successful, the people associated with her are also successful) was interpreted as "rise up through her success" because the intention of "chicken and dog" in the source text had different meanings in English. Foreign audiences do not understand the origin and background of this idiom well, so the subtitle translation explains the meaning of "鸡犬升天" by using the word "success." The word "明珠暗投" (Bright pearls appeared in the gloom, it means regretting one's fate) is interpreted as "will not be granted an ordinary life," which does not stick to the formal characteristics of the source "pearl" (明珠) and accurately conveys the reference in the current context. The interpretation of “绣花枕头” (Embroidered pillow, it describes a person as useless) as "Her beauty is vain and useless" avoids the audience's understanding of obstacles caused by unfamiliar images of the source text. The interpretive translation strategy avoids the obscure figurative language of the source Chinese text, finds out the cultural connotation to be conveyed indirectly through the text form, and avoids the reading pressure caused by the subtitle annotation.

3. Replacement

In *the Empress in the Palace*, there are six instances of replacement translation strategies were found in the research. Replacement translation strategies are used to translate Chinese idioms. For example, "Kill a chicken in front of a monkey" (杀鸡儆猴) is replaced by the relationship between "dog and lion." "Lips and teeth depend on each other" (唇齿相依) is replaced by the relationship between "hand and glove." "The tree fell, and the monkeys in it ran away" (树倒猢猻散) is replaced by the relationship between "a rat and a sinking ship." At the same time, in the metaphorical vocabulary, "river and mountain" is replaced by the throne. The replacement translation strategy in the subtitle translation of film and television series can shorten the translation length as much as possible. It can convey the plot in a way that the audience expects and is familiar with (Hong, 1999).

The following are some of the subtitles represented by the various translation strategies:

Chinese subtitles	English subtitles	Translation Strategies
老天爷 (Generally refers to many gods in ancient Chinese mythology)	The God	replacement
乌纱帽 (Black hat worn by official)	Post	replacement
白玉蹄花 (White Jade with ribs)	Pork ribs stewed with tofu	replacement
脑袋 (head)	life	replacement
栗子糕 (Chestnut snacks)	Chestnut Pudding	replacement
吾皇万岁万岁万万岁 (Our emperor can live for 10,000 years)	Long live the Emperor	replacement
膝下福薄 (No blessing under the knee)	There are no children	replacement
一片冰心在玉壶 (A piece of ice heart in a jade pot)	There is a pure heart in my jade jar with no flaws.	replacement
奉天承运皇帝诏曰 (According to the will of heaven, the emperor issued an order)	The Emperor's order	reduction

以色侍人，能得几时好？ (Do you get a lot of benefits from serving people with your beauty?)	Beauty doesn't get you permanent love.	reduction
一入宫门深似海 (Once you enter the palace, it's as deep as the sea)	It's hard to survive in the palace.	reduction
福如东海，寿比南山 (Good fortune is like the East Sea, longevity is like the South Mountain.)	I wish you happiness and long life.	reduction
朝廷	The court	Interpretation
上书房	Upper Study Room	Interpretation
满汉通婚	Manchurian-Chinese intermarriage	Interpretation
翻牌子 (Flip the card)	The Emperor chooses a concubine to serve.	Interpretation
秀女 (The girl waiting to be chosen as the Emperor's consort.)	Candidates	Interpretation
会咬人的狗不叫	A dog that bites does not bark.	Interpretation
独善其身 (Do your part and don't get involved in other people's business.)	keep to oneself	Interpretation
不识抬举 (not know how to behave)	Unappreciative	Interpretation
谢主隆恩 (Thank you my master for giving me such a great favour)	Thank you, Your Majesty, for your kindness	Interpretation
相敬如宾 (The couple treat each other as they would treat a guest.)	treat each other as a guest	Interpretation
兵部	Ministry of Military Affairs	Interpretation
吏部	Ministry of Appointments	Interpretation
礼部	Ministry of Rites	Interpretation

户部	Ministry of Revenue	Interpretation
尚书	government minister	Interpretation
太医	Imperial Doctor	Interpretation
韬光养晦 (hiding one's light under a bush)	To conceal one's strengths and bide one's time	Interpretation
奇货可居 (object for profiteering)	rare commodity	Interpretation
皇上明察	The emperor is aware of what is going on.	Interpretation
生辰八字 (one's birth data for astrological purposes)	Date of Birth	Interpretation
登基 (Enthronement)	Ascend the throne	Interpretation
泛泛之辈 (Ordinary people with no talent)	A nonentity	Interpretation

Conclusion

Based on the Skopos theory, the subtitle translation strategies in the American version of the *Empress in the Palace* are explored. The show is translated using naturalisation strategies, in addition to specific translation strategies such as reduction, interpretation and replacement, which make the subtitles more accessible to American audiences, thus achieving the goal of promoting the country's culture and earning box office revenues. The study of the subtitle translation strategies in the American version of the *Empress in the Palace* can provide an effective translation methodology for the translation of other cultural texts in China and promote the exchange and dissemination of Chinese culture. Although there are some questionable aspects in the subtitle translation of the whole series, it is generally successful and conveys the content of the film. Inevitably, the clash of cultures can cause difficulties in understanding. Therefore, translators should analyse the purpose of their translations in the process of translating cultural texts and choose different translation strategies flexibly based on Skopos theory, so as to make the translations of higher quality and promote the exchange and dissemination of different cultures.

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