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The Influence of First Language Grammar (L1) on the English Language (L2) Writing of Tamil School Students: A Case Study from Malaysia

Mahendran Maniam, Ph.D. (ESL)

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Mahendran Maniam, Ph.D. (ESL)

*The Influence of First Language Grammar (L1) on the English Language (L2) Writing of
Tamil School Students: A Case Study from Malaysia*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

This study focuses on the interference of L1 grammatical rules in the writing of L2 with specific reference to the interference of Tamil (L1) in English (L2). This study seeks to find out the components of the L1 grammar that the students of Tamil schools use interchangeably in their daily writing of L2, namely English. It further seeks to find out which grammatical components dominate the inter-language grammar. The research hopes to seek further understanding regarding the theoretical debate on inter-language grammar influence.

I decided to embark on this study when I was teaching English to some Tamil school students, a few years ago. I found that these students always had the tendency to answer English questions in Tamil. When they really tried to answer in English, they usually resorted to using the direct translation method. I observed that whenever they did this, their answers were heavily influenced by their mother tongue, both phonologically and grammatically. This observation is based on my intuition as a multilingual speaker who has had experience, in terms of mother tongue interference, while studying English in college. A lot of research has been conducted regarding the phonological interference

of inter-languages, for example, (Keys, 2002). A much relevant research that was done pertaining to writing was in 1999 which was published in the International Educational Journal. “*Native Language Interference in Learning a Second Language: Exploratory Case Studies of Native Language interference with Target Language Usage.*” (Baljit Bhela, 1999). I would like to explore the grammatical interference of L2 learners further, particularly among children. How does a child create the mental construct that is language? Children do not wake up one morning with a fully formed grammar in their heads or with all the ‘rules’ of social and communicative intercourse. Linguistic knowledge develops in stages. Chomsky (1950) first resorted to this concept of Universal Grammar because he believes that children can not learn their first language so quickly and effortlessly without the help of some inborn talents.

In terms of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), learners are faced with the same logical problems faced in the process of acquiring the first language. Furthermore, this learning is also influenced, either positively or negatively, by the first language. However, to what extent does the interference (if any) really affect the learners? These are the questions that always concern me whenever I teach children in vernacular schools. Since the 1960s researchers like Nabakov (1960) have pointed unequivocally to the advantages of bilingualism. Children who know a second language are better at separating semantic from phonetic aspects of words, at tasks involving classification, and at tests of creativity. They are said to have sharper awareness of language.

Knowledge of a second language is a normal part of human existence, therefore it may well be unusual to know only one language. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is not a

uniform and predictable phenomenon. There is no single way in which learners acquire knowledge of a second language (L2). There are many factors that contribute to SLA. Different learners in different situations learn L2 in different ways. Second language acquisition refers to all the aspects of language that the language learner needs to master. However, the focus, for example has been on how L2 learners acquire grammatical sub-systems, such as the syntactical rules, subject-verb agreement and tenses. It is a strong belief among scholars in language studies that SLA is influenced by the learners' first language (L1) to varying degrees. The clear support for this belief comes from 'foreign' accents in the L2 speech of learners. When an Indian of Tamil or Hindi background in the subcontinent speaks English, his/her English sounds Tamil or Hindi (popular languages among the Indians).

Although human languages have a great deal in common, which enables us to translate from one language to another without much difficulty, they are also very different from one another in many aspects. These differences are explicitly depicted in our disability and struggle to learn a new language. Second language acquisition has both similarities and dissimilarities with those of the first language. It is the study of how learners learn an additional language after they have acquired their native tongue. The key issue in this matter would be to what extent SLA and L1 acquisition are similar or different processes.

It is a popular belief that SLA is strongly influenced by the learner's first language. It is also a popular belief that the role of the first language is a negative one.

That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2, such that the

features of the L1 are transferred onto L2. (Bolton and Kachru, 2006) L1 interference occurs in certain contexts, but not in others. The task facing SLA research is to specify precisely what the similarities are in order to predict, or explain precisely, when and where interference takes place.

English as a Second Language in Malaysia

The English language in Malaysia, a country in South-East Asia, a member of the Commonwealth and Asean has undergone dynamic changes in the last few decades. It has, for more than a century, played an important role in the lives of Malaysians. This is clearly evident in the Razak Report 1956 that made English a compulsory second language in Malaysian schools. Before the 70's English was the medium of instruction in a number of public schools. The transformation in 1971, due to the implementation of the Education Enactment Bill in 1971 by the Malaysian government replaced English with Bahasa Melayu (BM) the National Language throughout the public sector and the education system.

The name *Anglo-Malay* has been used to describe the language that emerged during colonial times among expatriates and a local élite, serving as the vehicle through which such words as *compound/kampong*, *durian*, *orang utan*, and *sarong* have entered general English. Some English-medium schools were established in the 19th century (in Penang in 1816, Singapore 1823, Malacca 1826, and Kuala Lumpur 1894), at the same time as BM or Malay, Chinese, and Tamil schools were encouraged. Those members of the various ethnic groups who were educated in the English-medium schools came to use English increasingly in their occupations and their daily life; the 1957 census reported

400,000 people (some 6% of the population then) as claiming to be literate in the language. When the British began to withdraw in the late 1950s, English had become the dominant language of the non-European élite, and with independence became with Malay the 'alternate official language'. However, the National Language Act of 1967 established Malay (renamed Bahasa Malaysia in 1963) as the sole official language, with some exceptions in such areas as medicine, law, banking, and business.

English-medium education expanded after independence; there were close to 400,000 students in such schools when, in 1969, the Ministry of Education decided that all English-medium schools would become Malay-medium. By the early 80s, the process through which Bahasa Malaysia became the national language of education was virtually complete, but the shift prompted widespread concern that general proficiency in English would decline. The language conversion programme was completed in 1980 at the form 5 level. However the conversion of the medium of language from English to Malay brought about a change in the status of English. The change resulted in unfavourable side effects. Deterioration in the standard of English was observed in the 70 s and early 80 s. The fact that English has been taught only as a subject also indirectly undermined its role. This system produced students who learned English for 11 years and yet were unable to communicate effectively in English. Taking these factors into consideration, five years ago, the then Prime Minister of Malaysia, Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad, after a thorough study, ordered the Ministry of Education, to revamp the teaching and learning of science and mathematics. Mathematics and science are being taught in English now.

Paradoxically, there are still nationalists who are not in favour of the change and demanding the government to go back to the old system.

To prevent this, English has been retained as the compulsory second language in primary and secondary schools. Some 20% of the present population understand English and some 25% of city dwellers use it for specific purposes in their every day life. It is widely used in the media and as a reference language in higher education.

There are seven English-language daily newspapers (with a combined circulation of over 500,000) and three newspapers in Sabah published partly in English (circulation over 60,000). English is essentially an urban middle-class language, virtually all its users are bilingual, and code-switching is commonplace.

Comparatively, Malaysian English and Singapore English have much in common, with the main exception that English in Malaysia is more subject to influence from Malay. Pronunciation is marked by a strong tendency to syllable-timed rhythm, and a simplification of word-final consonant clusters, as in /Iv/ for *lived*. Syntactic characteristics include: the countable use of some usually uncountable nouns (*Pick up your chalks; A consideration for others is important*); innovations in phrasal verbs (such as *cope up with* rather than *cope with*); the use of reflexive pronouns to form emphatic pronouns (*Myself sick. I am sick; Himself funny He is funny*); and the multi-purpose particle *lah*, a token especially of informal intimacy (*Sorry, can't come lah*). Local vocabulary includes such borrowings from Malay as *bumiputera* (originally Sanskrit, son

of the soil) a Malay or other indigenous person, *dadah* illegal drugs, *rakyat* the people, citizens, *Majlis* (from Arabic) Parliament, *makan* food; such special usages as *banana leaf restaurant* a South Indian restaurant where food is served on banana leaves, *chop* a rubber stamp or seal, *crocodile* a womanizer, *girlie barber shop* a hairdressing salon that doubles as a massage parlour or brothel, *sensitive issues* (as defined in the Constitution) issues that must not be raised in public, such as the status of the various languages used in Malaysia and the rights and privileges of the different communities; such colloquialisms as *bes* (from *best*) great, fantastic, *relac* (from *relax*) take it easy; and such hybrids as *bumiputera status* indigenous status, and *dadah addict* drug addict.

Features of Standard Malaysian English (SME)

- Standard Malaysian English is generally non-rhotic.
- Standard Malaysian English originates from British English as a result of the colonial experience.
- It has also components of American English, Malay, Chinese, Indian, and other languages in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.
- Like South-Eastern British English, Standard Malaysian English employs a broad An accent, as such words like bath and chance appear with /ɑː/ and not /æ/.
- The /t/ phoneme in words like ‘butter’ is usually not flapped (as in most forms of American English) or realised as a glottal stop (as in some other forms of British English, including Cockney).
- There is no h-dropping in words like ‘head’.

- Standard Malaysian English does not have yod-dropping after /n/, /t/ and /d/. Hence, for example, ‘new’, ‘tune’ and ‘dune’ are pronounced /nju:/, /tju:n/ and /dju:n/ rather than /nu:/, /tu:n/ and /du:n/. This contrasts with many East Anglian and East Midland varieties of British English and with most forms of American English.

Varieties of English in Malaysia

According to *The Encyclopedia of Malaysia: Languages & Literature* (2004), English in Malaysia has been categorized into three levels: the acrolect, mesolect and basilect. The acrolect is near-native, and not many Malaysians fall into this category - only those educated in core English-speaking countries from early schooling up to university may be found to speak the acrolect variety, so only a small percentage of Malaysians are proficient in it. As with other similar situations, a continuum exists between these three varieties and speakers may code-switch between them depending on context.

Standard Malaysian English and British English

In the first half of the 20th century, Standard Malaysian English was nearly similar to British English (BrE) (albeit spoken with a Malaysian accent). However in the post-colonial era (after 1957), the influx of American TV programmes has influenced the usage of Standard Malaysian English. There is no official language board, council or organisation to ensure the correct and standard usage of Malaysian English, because after independence, Malay replaced English as the official language. The University of

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Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate continues, however, to set and mark the GCE O-Level English Language 1119 paper which is a compulsory subject for the Malaysian Certificate of Education (the English Language paper set by the Malaysian Ministry of Education which is the same as the English Language 1119 paper for GCE O-Level).

Words Only Used in British English

To a large extent, Standard Malaysian English is derived from British English, largely due to the country's colonisation by Britain beginning from the 18th century. But because of influence from the American mass media, particularly in the form of television programmes and movies, Malaysians are also usually familiar with many American English words. For instance, both "lift/elevator" and "lorry/truck" are understood, although the British form is preferred. Only in some very limited cases is the American English form more widespread, e.g. "chips" instead of "crisps", "fries" instead of "chips".

Words or phrases only used in Standard Malaysian English

Standard Malaysian English has also created its own vocabulary just like in any other former British colonies such as Australia and New Zealand and these words come from a variety of influences. Typically, for words or phrases that are based on other English words, the rural Malaysian English speaker may be unaware that the word or phrase is not present in British or American English.

Malaysian	British / American
Handphone (often abbreviated to HP)	Mobile phone or Cell phone
Malaysian Chinese / Malaysian Indian	Chinese Malaysian / Indian Malaysian
KIV (keep in view)	Kept on file, held for further consideration
Slippers	Flip-flop
Outstation	Means both 'out of town' and/or 'overseas/abroad'.
MC (medical certificate). Often used in this context, e.g. 'He is on MC today'	Sick note

Photostat	Photocopy, Xerox
Mee	Noodles
Aircon	Air-conditioner
Remisier	Broker

Difference in Meanings between Standard British English and Standard Malaysian English

This is a list of words and phrases that have one meaning in British English and another in Malaysian English

Word / Phrase	Malaysian meaning	American / British meaning
last time	previously	on the previous occasion
a parking lot	a parking space, e.g. a parking garage (from	

	"That new shopping mall has five hundred parking lots."	US English)
an alphabet	a letter of the alphabet, e.g. "The word 'table' has five alphabets."	a set of letters used in a language
Bungalow	A mansion for the rich and/or famous; or a fully detached house, regardless of the number of floors it has. Lately, some housing developers have taken the abuse of this word further and we now see terms like "a semi-detached bungalow".	A small house or cottage usually having a single storey and sometimes an additional attic storey that is free standing, i.e. not conjoined with another unit.

to follow	to accompany, e.g. "Can I follow you?" meaning "Can I come with you?"	to go after or behind, e.g. "The police car was following me"
to keep	to put away or store, e.g. a parent tells a child "Keep your toys!"	to retain as one's own, e.g. "I must decide which to throw away and which to keep."
to revert	to get back to someone, e.g. in an email: "I will investigate this and revert to you by tomorrow."	to return to a previous edit or state
to send	to take someone somewhere, e.g. "Can you send me to the airport?"	to cause something to go somewhere without accompanying it, e.g. "I sent this letter to my grandma."

Vocabulary

Many Malay and Malaysian words or phrases that describe Malaysian culture are used in Malaysian English. Some of these are:

- Cik: Ms
- Dadah: Drugs (As in narcotics, etc)
- Encik: Mr
- kampung : a village
- lepak: loiter
- Mat Salleh : a white male
- Puan: Madam

There are also many non-Malaysian words used in Malaysian English that are not in standard English.

The following are shared with Australia, New Zealand or other countries:

- chips — "hot chips" US "french fries" and UK "chips".
- having-in/having here — eat-in at a restaurant
- takeaway — take-out food.
- apartment — a medium-cost and high-cost flat
- flat — a low-cost flat.

The following words are either unique to Malaysia or used in a peculiar Malaysian context:

- bungalow — a villa or any semi-detached house regardless of the size or number of storeys
- blur — confused
- chop — to stamp (with a rubber stamp), as well as the stamp itself.
- condominium — a high-cost flat usually with common facilities.
- la(h)! — the prominent trademark in Manglish, the colloquial variety of Malaysian English, it is used among other things, for emphasis at the end of a sentence, la(h)! (see note above on Malaysian influence. It originates from Chinese influence although the 'lah' is of the Malay language). E.g: “Are you coming over to the party tonight?’ — “Yes, of course lah.”
- pass up — to hand in as in "Pass up your assignments".
- rubber — meaning eraser as in "Can I borrow your rubber?" (This is also a sense given to the word in British English.)
- send — to take somebody somewhere - "I'll send you to the airport."
- slippers — in the US and UK "flip-flops", Australia "thongs"
- spoil — to be damaged "This one, spoil, lah."

Syntax

Many syntactical features of Malaysian English may or may not be found in other forms of English, for example:

"There is"/"there are" and "has"/"have" are both expressed using "got", so that sentences can be translated in either way back into British / American English. This is equivalent to the Chinese - yǒu (to have):

- *Got question?* — Is there a question? / Do you have a question?
- *Yesterday ar, East Coast Park got so many people!* — There were so many people at East Coast Park yesterday. / East Coast Park had so many people [there] yesterday.
- *This bus got air-con or not?* — Is there air-conditioning on this bus? / Does this bus have air-conditioning?
- *Where got!?* — lit. Where is there [this]?, also more loosely, What are you talking about? or Where did you get that idea?; generic response to any accusation.

"Can" is used extensively as both a question particle and an answer particle. The negative is "cannot":

- *Gimme lah, ok or not?* — (Give it to me, OK?)
- *Can!* — (Sure!)
- *Cannot.* — (No way.)

Officially, Malaysian English uses the same pronunciation system as British English. However, most Malaysians speak with a distinctive accent. The accent has recently evolved to become more American, due to the influx of American TV programmes and the large number of Malaysians pursuing higher education in the United States. For example, this increased the emphasis on "r" in words such as "referring" and "world".

Role of Standard Malaysian English in Independent Malaysia

Even though Malaysian English is no longer a dominant language of Malaysia, it is still used among Malaysians and is recognised as the language of business and tertiary education for example. About 80% of urban businesses in Malaysia conduct their transactions in English (both standard Malaysian English and Manglish). American English has quite a strong foothold in international businesses in Malaysia.

There are several English language newspapers in Malaysia namely *The Star*, *The Sun*, *New Straits Times* and *Malay Mail*. There are also many English radio stations such as *Hitz.fm*, *Mix FM*, *Light & Easy*, *Fly fm*, *Traxx FM* and *Red FM*. However, Malaysia does not have any television station which broadcasts purely in English. The Government National Language policy requires local TV stations to air at least 25% Malaysian-made programmes (either Malay or English). Some privately owned TV stations (such as *TV3*, *NTV7*, *8TV* and *Astro Hitz.TV*) do air some Malaysian-made programmes in English. A few Malaysian-made TV programmes in Malay carry English subtitles and vice-versa.

English is regarded as the ‘lingua franca’, understood by people around the world. This is because British English was introduced in the British Empire during the colonization era. After the many colonies gained independence, one ‘standard’ English has evolved into many different localized dialects; namely Singapore English (SE), Malaysian English (ME) and Indian English among others. Such local varieties have caused fear among educators and professionals, especially the native speakers, that English has turned into a corrupt language. With relevance to Clyne’s(1992) discussion on ‘pluricentric’ languages, this paper shall highlight the nature of local variations in the context of Standard Malaysian English as well as justify the needs for having standard non-native varieties of the English language used within the confines of the Malaysian socio-cultural context. Suggestions for realizing this matter as means of encouraging more public acceptance and bridging proficiency gaps in the target language will also be featured. English is officially described as a strong second language. It is the language officially considered, only second in importance to the Malay language and regarded as a vital link with the rest of the world.

Tamil Schools in Malaysia

According to the Social Strategic Foundation, a social development network for the Malaysian Indian Community, the first Tamil medium classes were set up as a branch school of the Penang Free School in 1816. In 1850, a bilingual English – Tamil school was set up in Malacca. From 1870, small schools sprang up on estates in Province Wellesly, Malacca, North Johore and later set up in other parts of the country. In 1923, the Labour Code was passed in the Federated Malay States, making it compulsory for

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rubber estates to provide primary schools as long as there were ten plantation children of school age. Many Tamil schools were built after the code was legislated, mostly in rubber estates. The main reason for setting up the Tamil schools was to ensure a steady supply of labour to the rubber plantations. The setting up of Tamil schools, gave more confidence to the Indian labours to stay put in Malaysia.

Later, the estate management and the British government opened more Tamil primary schools when the rubber estates grew in numbers by the end of the nineteenth century. Thus, by 1905 there were 13 government and Christian Mission Tamil schools in Malaya. The British regarded this as a good method to sustain the labour supply in the estates. This also ensured that the children of the plantation workers would stay on in the estates and contribute to the labour pool. The construction of more and more Tamil schools in the newly opened estates attracted many labourers from India, especially from South India, to migrate to the then Malaya. But the pathetic aspect was that the importance given to the building of the Tamil schools was not given to the designing of its curriculum and selection of quality teachers. Therefore, the beauty and literary richness of the language was compromised.

In the beginning, most of the schools did not last long due to lack of support and commitment from the estate management and there was no continuous effort from the Indian or Tamil community itself to sustain these schools. The number of Tamil schools in Malaya had been increasing since thousands from India, especially from the Southern part of India came to Malaya as labourers to work in the rubber, tea, coffee and sugar

plantations. In order to attract more labourers and make them stay longer, the labour ordinance 1912 ensured that the estate management had to set up Tamil schools if there were more than 10 school going children in the estates.

However many estate owners refused to build Tamil schools for estate children and it caused the children to study in dilapidated buildings and former smoke houses. Furthermore, the government in those days had not allocated funds to build Tamil schools. Between 1930 and 1937, there were some developments in Tamil education when the Indian government was concerned about the mistreatment of Indian labourers in Malaya. As a result, the Malayan Government set up a special committee to provide financial assistance to Tamil schools, appointed inspectors for Tamil schools and also started teachers training programmes. The number of Tamil schools increased tremendously. By 1938, there were 13 government, 511 estate and 23 mission Tamil primary schools in Malaya.

Before independence, the Tamil schools curriculum did not include the teaching of Malay and English languages. Emphasis was given only to reading, writing and arithmetic skills in the lower primary level. Writing composition and geography were taught in the higher primary level. After World War II, the British government started to give serious attention to vernacular education by enforcing Education Law 1946. This Law emphasised on free mother tongue education and increased the grant provided to Tamil schools. This move paved the way for the increase in the number of students in

Tamil schools. The number of students increased gradually from 29,800 in 1946 to 38,700 in 1949.

The Barnes Report 1951, with reference to the Malay education, proposed the National Education Policy. It questioned the existence of Tamil and Chinese schools. As a reaction to this report, the Indian community set up a committee to protest the Barnes Report, which ignored mother tongue education. In 1951, the Indian Education Committee reviewed Tamil school education and proposed the teaching of English in standard Four and Malay language in standard Five. The children, on leaving the Tamil primary school, were absorbed into the working milieu of the estate. Parents themselves, mostly illiterate, did not see the value or purpose of seeking out a secondary education in Tamil, nor was it there. Apparently, most of them in the estates were able to lead fairly comfortable lives compared to their poorer counterparts left behind in India.

Tamil schools are a matter of pride, identity and dignity for more than half of Indian Malaysians. To them, the need for an unpolarised system of education bridging the gap of unity and racial understanding is rhetoric. It is also not possible to dismantle mother tongue education, without disrupting the cultural and religious fabric that has provided identity and a sense of some belonging. Background information is in order here as to what languages are used in the education system in Malaysia.

In National Schools Malay is the medium of elementary education; Tamil and/or Chinese may be taught as pupils' own language if there are fifteen students who petition

for it. Otherwise, Tamil and Chinese medium National-type Schools may exist, and they receive varying degrees of government support; Chinese schools tend to reject total subvention, in order to maintain more control. At the secondary level, Malay medium is the only publicly-supported schooling available. Again, at the secondary level, Tamil and Chinese may be taught as a subject if a minimum of fifteen students request it.

A Brief History and Comparison of the Tamil Language and English Language

Tamil is a Dravidian¹ language spoken by more than 65 million people. It is the official language of Tamil Nadu state in India and one of the official languages of Sri Lanka. Large Tamil-speaking communities also reside in Malaysia and Singapore, South Africa, and the Indian Ocean islands of Réunion and Mauritius. The earliest Tamil inscriptions date from *c.* 200 BC; literature in the language has a 2,000-year history. Unlike the English language that has 26 letters, there are 247 letters in the Tamil alphabet (Refer to Appendix D). Like the existence of vowels and consonants in English, the Tamil language too has these components.

Ironically, a language that has 247 letters is quite limited in terms of vocabulary volume compared to the English language that has only 26 letters with more than a

¹ Family of 23 languages indigenous to and spoken principally in South Asia by more than 210 million people. The four major Dravidian languages of southern India — Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, and Malayalam — have independent scripts and long documented histories. They account for the overwhelming majority of all Dravidian-speakers, and they form the basis of the linguistic states of Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, and Kerala. All have borrowed liberally from Sanskrit. The only Dravidian language spoken entirely outside of India is Brahui, with fewer than two million speakers mainly in Pakistan and Afghanistan. Of the Dravidian languages, Tamil has the greatest geographical extension and the richest and most ancient literature, which is paralleled in India only by that of Sanskrit

million words. According to *The Hindu* (2006), an English language newspaper, The Department of Tamil Language in the University of Madras is now in the process of revising, enlarging and updating the Tamil lexicon. The work is going on in a large scale for the first time in 66 years. During 1924-39, the University of Madras had published the Tamil lexicon in seven volumes comprising 124,405 entries. Such a dictionary was a pioneering venture in the pre-independence period. Prof. Vaiyapuri Pillai had played a huge role in the compilation and publication. There have been persistent demands for updating and expanding the lexicon.

The many social, political and technological changes in the six-decade period have a direct bearing on the Tamil language. It is in this background that the Department of Tamil Language of the Madras University had put forth its plan to revise, enlarge and update the lexicon. The present Tamil lexicon, under preparation, will come out in 10 volumes, comprising at least 500,000 entries, will be bilingual in nature and at the same time render the meaning chronologically.

The 247 letters in the Tamil alphabet can be divided into 12 vowels, 18 consonants, 216 vowel consonants and 1 special letter. The vowel-consonants are formed by combining the vowel letters and consonant letters. The vowel-consonant letters also have long and short sounds. On top of the vast difference in the number of letters in their alphabet, the Tamil language also differs in many grammatical items compared to the English language. Much of Tamil grammar is extensively described in the oldest known

grammar book for Tamil, the *Tolkāppiyam*. Modern Tamil writing is largely based on the 13th century grammar *Nannūl* which restated and clarified the rules of the *Tolkāppiyam*, with some modifications. Traditional Tamil grammar consists of five parts, namely *eluttu*, *sol*, *porul*, *yāppu*, and *ani*. Of these, the last two are mostly applied in poetry.

Similar to other Dravidian languages, Tamil is an agglutinative language. Tamil is characterised by its use of retroflex consonants, like the other Dravidian languages namely Telugu, Malayalam and Kannadam. It also uses a liquid l (𑌧) (example Tamil), which is also found in Malayalam (for example Kozhikode), but disappeared from Kannada at around 1000 AD (but present in Unicode), and was never present in Telugu. Tamil words consist of a lexical root to which one or more affixes are attached. Most Tamil affixes are suffixes. Tamil suffixes can be *derivational suffixes*, which either change the part of speech of the word or its meaning, or *inflectional suffixes*, which mark categories such as person, number, mood, tense, etc. There is no absolute limit on the length and extent of agglutination, which can lead to long words with a large number of suffixes.

Morphology

Tamil nouns (and pronouns) are classified into two super-classes (*tinai*)—the "rational" (*uyartinai*), and the "irrational" (*agrinai*)—which include a total of five classes (*pāl*, which literally means 'gender'). Humans and deities are classified as "rational", and all other nouns (animals, objects, abstract nouns) are classified as "irrational". The "rational"

nouns and pronouns belong to one of three classes (*pāl*)—masculine singular, feminine singular, and rational plural. The "irrational" nouns and pronouns belong to one of two classes - irrational singular and irrational plural. The *pāl* is often indicated through suffixes.

Examples of Tamil verbs indicating the gender of the doer.

1. **He** danced yesterday.

The verb (**ஆடினான்**) in bold indicates the gender of the doer.

அவன் நேற்று நடனம் **ஆடினான்**.

2. **She** danced yesterday.

The verb (**ஆடினாள்**) in bold indicates the gender of the doer.

அவள் நேற்று நடனம் **ஆடினாள்**.

The letter ‘**ன்**’ - indicates male and, -‘**ள்**’ indicates female gender

The plural form for rational nouns may be used as an honorific, gender-neutral, singular form. Suffixes are used to perform the functions of cases or postpositions. Traditional grammarians tried to group the various suffixes into eight cases corresponding to the cases used in Sanskrit. These were the nominative, accusative, dative, sociative, genitive, instrumental, locative, and ablative. Modern grammarians, for

example, argue that this classification is artificial, and that Tamil usage is best understood

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if each suffix or combination of suffixes is seen as marking a separate case Tamil nouns can take one of four prefixes, *i*, *a*, *u* and *e* which are functionally equivalent to the demonstratives in English.

Tamil verbs are also inflected through the use of suffixes. A typical Tamil verb form will have a number of suffixes, which show person, number, mood, tense and voice.

- Person and number are indicated by suffixing the oblique case of the relevant pronoun. The suffixes to indicate tense and voice are formed from grammatical particles, which are added to the stem.
- Tamil has two voices. The first indicates that the subject of the sentence *undergoes* or *is the object of* the action named by the verb stem, and the second indicates that the subject of the sentence *directs* the action referred to by the verb stem.
- Tamil has three simple tenses—past, present, and future—indicated by the suffixes, as well as a series of perfects indicated by compound suffixes. Mood is implicit in Tamil, and is normally reflected by the same morphemes which mark tense categories. Tamil verbs also mark evidentiality, through the addition of the hearsay clitic *ām*. Traditional grammars of Tamil do not distinguish between adjectives and adverbs, including both of them under the category *uriccol*, although modern grammarians tend to distinguish between them on morphological and syntactical grounds. Tamil has a large number of ideophones

that act as adverbs indicating the way the object in a given state "says" or "sounds".

- Examples of forms of tense in Tamil language

1. He ate two plates of rice. (*past tense*)

அவன் இரண்டு தட்டு சோறு சாப்பிட்டான்.

2. He usually eats two plates of rice. (*present tense*)

அவன் வழக்கமாக இரண்டு தட்டு சோறு சாப்பிடுவான்.

3. He is going to eat two plates of rice. (*future time expression*)

அவன் இரண்டு தட்டு சோறு சாப்பிடப் போகிறான்.

The verb in Tamil takes different forms to indicate the tense in a sentence. The Tamil language has no articles. Definiteness and indefiniteness are either indicated by special grammatical devices, such as using the number "one" as an indefinite article, or by the context. In the first person plural, Tamil makes a distinction between inclusive pronouns *nām* (we), *namatu* (our) that include the addressee and exclusive pronouns *nāngkal* (we), *ematu* (our) that do not. The singular 'you' is 'nee', and the plural equivalent is *neengal* or *neenga* which is more formal and polite. The former is used to address those who are younger, lower in status as well as people who are very familiar with.

Syntax

Tamil is a consistently head-final language. The verb comes at the end of the clause, with typical word order Subject Object Verb (SOV). However, Tamil also exhibits extensive *scrambling* (word order variation), so that surface permutations of the SOV order are possible with different pragmatic effects. Tamil has postpositions rather than prepositions. Demonstratives and modifiers precede the noun within the noun phrase.

Tamil is a null subject language. In linguistic typology, a null subject language is a language whose grammar permits an independent clause to lack an explicit subject. Such a clause is then said to have a null subject. Typically, null subject languages express person, number, and/or gender agreement with the referent on the verb, rendering a subject noun phrase redundant.

Not all Tamil sentences have subject, verb and object. It is possible to construct valid sentences that have only a verb—such as *mudhiintuvittatu* {முடிந்துவிட்டது.} ("completed")—or only a subject and object, without a verb such as *atu en vīdu* ("That, my house"). The Tamil language does not have a copula (a linking verb equivalent to the word *is*) akin to BM.

The most obvious linguistic differences are like capitalization, syntactical order, the verb to be and tenses. There's no capitalization in the Tamil language writing. The word order in the Tamil language also differs compared to the English language. A brief illustration is given below:

Examples: (syntactical differences)

1. Ali (subject) kicks (verbs) the ball.(object) (English)

அலி பந்தை உதைக்கிறான் .

Ali (subject) ball (object) kicks. (verb) (Tamil)

2. Where (interrog. adv.) is (to be) my (possessive det.) book (noun)? (English)

என்னுடைய புத்தகம் எங்கே ?

My (possessive det.) book (noun) where (interrog. Adv.)? (Tamil)

Examples: (verb to be -missing in Tamil)

1. John is a boy.

ஜோன் ஒரு பையன் .

John – a – boy (word order in Tamil)

2. Peter is doing his homework.

பீட்டர் வீட்டுப்பாடம் செய்கின்றான் .

Peter – homework- doing (word order in Tamil)

3. Michael is a football player.

மைக்கல் ஒரு காற்பந்து விளையாட்டாளர் .

Michael- a- football- player (word order in Tamil)

4. Who is the fat boy?

யார் அந்த பருமனானச் சிறுவன்?

Who- that- fat- boy (word order in Tamil)

Vocabulary

A strong sense of linguistic purism is found in Modern Tamil. Much of the modern vocabulary derives from classical Tamil, as well as governmental and non-governmental institutions, such as the Tamil Virtual University, and Annamalai University in Tamil Nadu, India.

These institutions have generated technical dictionaries for Tamil containing neologisms and words derived from Tamil roots to replace loan words from English and other languages. Since mediaeval times, there has been a strong resistance to the use of Sanskrit words in Tamil. As a result, the Prakrit and Sanskrit loan words used in modern Tamil are, unlike in some other Dravidian languages, restricted mainly to some spiritual terminology and abstract nouns. Besides Sanskrit, there are a few loan words from Persian and Arabic implying there were trade ties in ancient times. Many loan words from Portuguese and Dutch and English were introduced into colloquial and written Tamil during the colonial period. But these have been gradually replaced by Tamil words.

Words of Tamil origin occur in other languages. Popular examples in English are cash (*kaasu* - காசு , meaning "money"), cheroot (*curuttu* - சுருட்டு meaning "rolled up"), mango (from *mangai* - மாங்காய்), mulligatawny (from *milaku tanneer* - மிளகுத் தண்ணீர் meaning pepper water), pariah (from *paraiyar* - பரையர்), ginger (from *ingi* - இஞ்சி), curry (from *kari* - கறி), rice (from *arici* - அரிசி) and catamaran (from *kattu*

maram - கட்டி மரம், meaning "bundled logs"), *pandal* (shed, shelter, booth), *tyer* (curd), *coir* (rope).

Aims and Objectives of the English Language Syllabus in Primary Schools

The English Language Syllabus for primary school aims to equip pupils with basic skills and knowledge of the English language so as to enable them to communicate both orally and writing, in and out of school.

By the end of primary school, pupils should be able to achieve the following:

1. to listen to and understand simple spoken English in certain given contexts;
2. to speak and respond clearly and appropriately in familiar situations using simple languages:
3. to read and understand different kinds of texts for enjoyment and information:
4. to write for different purposes and in different forms using simple language.

According to the Ministry of Education of Malaysia's, Curriculum Development Centre's English language syllabus (2001) for vernacular primary school or better known as (KBSR- Integrated Primary School Syllabus), English is taught in all primary and secondary schools in the country in keeping with its status as a second language in the country. The Cabinet Committee Report on the Review of the Implementation of the Education Policy 1979 states that the teaching of English is to enable learners to use English in everyday situations and work situations as well as to pursue higher education. At present, English is still taught for the purposes of higher education and the workplace. English is the language of Information Communications Technology (ICT) as well as the language for establishing international relations in a borderless world.

In order to enable our learners to access information on the Internet and other electronic media as well as to network with students in other parts of the country and abroad, it is important that they are proficient in the language. Such proficiency will also help learners to read and listen to academic, professional and recreational materials and to speak in seminars and conferences. The English curriculum for primary schools is designed to provide learners with a strong foundation in the English language. Learners will then be able to build upon this foundation and use the language for various purposes. The development of learners' linguistic ability is in keeping with the goals of the National Education Philosophy and the Education Act of 1996 which seek to optimise the intellectual, emotional, spiritual and physical potential of all students. In learning the English language, learners are taught the fundamentals of English grammar and how to use it correctly in both speech and in writing. Learners are also taught the English sound system to enable them to pronounce words correctly and to speak fluently with the correct stress and intonation so that from these early stages, pupils learn to speak internationally intelligible English.

Learners differ from each other in their individual strengths, abilities and learning styles and preferences. In teaching the curriculum, these differences are taken into account so that the aims and aspirations of the curriculum are fulfilled and the potential of the child is maximized. This document is the English Syllabus for primary schools. It gives an overview of the English language curriculum to be taught from Year 1 through to Year 6. This syllabus is for use in both the national primary schools (SK) and the national type primary schools (SJK). To help teachers teach this curriculum in the

classroom, supporting documents known as syllabus specifications or *Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran* are made available. In these documents, the curriculum is explained in greater detail for each year of schooling. There is one set of specifications for each primary level schooling. The syllabus outlines the Aims, Objectives, and Learning Outcomes to be achieved. The Language Content to be taught has also been given and this includes the sound system, the grammar of the English language, and the word list. The contents of the syllabus can be expanded upon if learners have the ability and are proficient in the language.

AIMS

The English language syllabus for primary schools aims to equip learners with basic skills and knowledge of the English language so as to enable them to communicate, both orally and in writing, in and out of school.

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the primary school, learners should be able to

- i. listen to and understand simple spoken English in certain given contexts;
- ii. ask and answer questions, speak and express themselves clearly to others using simple language;
- iii. acquire good reading habits to understand, enjoy and extract information from a variety of texts;
- iv. write legibly and express ideas in simple language; and
- v. show an awareness and appreciation of moral values as well as love for the nation.

CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

The English language curriculum is developed in line with the way English is used in society in everyday life when interacting with people, getting information, and when enjoying a good book or film. This is reflected in the learning outcomes of the curriculum. The learning outcomes are based on the four language skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. These four language skills in turn also incorporate the use of good grammar, the English sound system, and the use of appropriate vocabulary. In addition, the curriculum also takes into account other educational emphases such as thinking skills, ICT skills, values and citizenship education.

Language Skills

The language skills of listening, reading and writing form the core of the primary English curriculum. Learners use these skills to talk to and write to people, to obtain information from various sources, and to enjoy a poem or story read or heard. The skill of Listening is taught to enable learners to listen carefully to what is spoken so that they are able to obtain as much and as accurately as possible the information or ideas heard. Oral skills are taught to enable learners to express their ideas confidently and clearly. For this purpose, learners are taught to pronounce words correctly and to speak with correct stress, intonation and sentence rhythm. The skill of Reading is taught to enable learners not only to read independently a variety of texts but also to read with understanding so that they are able to extract information efficiently. The skill of Writing is taught to

enable learners to express their ideas clearly on paper in legible handwriting or to communicate via the electronic media if facilities are available in school.

Language Content

The Language Content of the curriculum comprises the grammar of the English language, the English sound system and a Word List to guide teachers.

Educational Emphases

In addition, current developments in education are included. These comprise Thinking Skills, skills of Learning How to Learn, and other educational emphases such as Values and Citizenship Education. Language teaching also takes into account learners' multiple intelligences and emphasizes the importance of using real life examples to prepare learners for the real world.

Learning Outcomes

Learning outcomes are statements to guide teachers in teaching and are derived from the objectives. Learning outcomes incorporate the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, grammar, the sound system and words from the word list. More details on the learning outcomes and the language content are given in the Syllabus Specifications documents from Year 1 through to Year 6.

CURRICULUM CONTENT

1 LEARNING OUTCOMES

In acquiring the four language skills, learners are required to perform tasks so that the following outcomes can be achieved.

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1.0 The Skill of LISTENING

The listening component aims at developing learners' ability to listen to and understand the spoken language better. The sub-skills of listening range from the basic level of sound, word and phrase recognition to an understanding of the whole text. Learners are encouraged to listen to various text types so that they will become familiar with the sounds, intonation and stress patterns of the English language as well as to get to know the correct pronunciation of words and the use of certain expressions. Learners are also encouraged to respond to the information or message heard in a variety of ways including verbal and non-verbal forms. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to listen to and understand various text types such as announcements, instructions, and message. (Refer Appendix XYZ for all the sub-skills)

2.0 The Skill of SPEAKING

As speaking is linked closely to listening, learners are taught to listen carefully to what is spoken and give an appropriate response. In the development of oral skills, learners are taught how to ask questions politely when seeking information or clarification and to reply giving relevant information. Learners are also taught to express their thoughts, feelings and ideas simply when talking to friends and older people. To this end, learners are taught to use appropriate words, phrases and expressions that do not offend others which can occur with the lack of proficiency. In making their utterances understood by others, learners are taught to pronounce words correctly and to speak clearly with the right stress and intonation. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to talk to friends, relatives, teachers and other people confidently

using simple language and with an acceptable level of grammar. (Refer Appendix XYZ for the skills)

3.0 The Skill of READING

The component on Reading emphasizes the teaching of the skills of reading to enable learners to become independent readers. The teaching of reading in the early stages begins at the word and phrase levels before progressing to sentence recognition and reading at the paragraph level. In this early stage of reading, a combination of phonics and the whole text approach will benefit young readers. Gradually, learners are also taught to extract specific information from a text and to also respond to a text with their own ideas and opinions. Information skills and study skills are also taught through the use of dictionaries and encyclopaedias. For those who have the facilities, accessing the Internet and other electronic media for information is also encouraged. Pupils are also taught to obtain information from maps, plans, graphs and timetables at a level suited to their ability. The use of a variety of texts for the teaching of reading skills will not only provide the opportunity for learners to learn new words but also enables them to see how grammar is used correctly. At the same time, reading a variety of texts will also help learners develop their reading skills for different purposes.

Learners are also encouraged to read extensively outside the classroom for enjoyment and information. This will not only improve their proficiency in the language but will also help them to become independent and efficient readers. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to read a variety of texts both in print and in the electronic media for information and enjoyment such as notices, warnings,

instructions, directions, recipes, messages, simple passages, letters, advertisements, poems, stories, descriptions, recounts; and maps, charts, graphs, time-tables. (Refer Appendix XYZ for the skills)

4.0 The Skill of WRITING

In this component, the focus is on developing learners' writing ability beginning at the word and phrase levels and progress to the sentence and paragraph levels. For those who are able and capable, they must be encouraged to write simple compositions comprising several paragraphs. Attention is also paid to penmanship so that even from a young age, learners are taught to write clearly and legibly both in print and cursive writing. In writing simple compositions, learners are taught the various steps involved in writing such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing. In the process, they are also taught to use appropriate vocabulary and correct grammar to get their meaning across clearly. Although much of the writing at this level is guided, the amount of control is relaxed for learners who are able and proficient in the language. All learners are encouraged to write for different purposes and for different audiences. Spelling and dictation are also given emphasis. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to write lists, messages, letters, instructions, directions, simple poems and stories, descriptions, simple recounts and simple reports for various purposes. (Refer Appendix XYZ for the skills)

II LANGUAGE CONTENT

1.0 The Sound System

The sound system forms part of the Language content in the syllabus. To enable learners to become familiar with the different patterns of sound and the different spelling of words

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that have the same sound, teachers are encouraged to give a wide range of examples.
(Refer to Appendix XYZ for other skills to be taught)

2.0 Grammar

Grammar also forms part of the language contents of the syllabus. These grammar items need to be taught in context and in a meaningful way so that they can be used both in speech and in writing. The grammar items can be reinforced and consolidated if learners encounter the items often enough through the various tasks set. The grammar items should not be taught in isolation but rather in the context of a topic. (Refer to Appendix XYZ for other skills that need to be taught)

3.0 Word List

The word list forms part of the language contents in the curriculum. The words in the list below are some key words that must be mastered by all learners according to their stages of development. More words have been listed in the Curriculum Specifications or *Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran* for each year and these words are listed under various topics. These are the minimum words to be taught and teachers may expand upon the list according to the level and ability of their learners as well as the topic under study.

STAGE 1

I, up, look, we, like, and, on, at, for, he, is, said, go, you, are

STAGE 2

about, after, again, an, another, as, back, ball, be, because, bed, been, boy, brother, but, by, call(ed), came, can't, could, did, do, don't, dig, door, down, first, from, girl, this, going, they, away, play, a, am, cat, to, come, day, the, dog, big, my, mother, good, got,

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had, half, has, have, help, her, here ,him, his, home, house, how, if, jump, just, last, laugh, little, live (d), love, made, make, man, many, may, more, much, must, no, father, all, get, in, went, was, of, me, she, see, it, yes, can, name, new, next, night, not, now, off, old, once, one, or, our, out, over, people, push, pull, put, ran, saw, school, seen, should, sister, so, some, take, than, that, their, them, then, there, these, three, time, to, us, very, want, water

STAGE 3

Above, across, almost, along, also, always, animals, any, around, asked, baby, balloon, before, began, being, below, better, between, birthday, both, brother, brought, can't, change, children, clothes, coming, didn't, different, does, don't, during, earth, every, eyes, first, follow (ing) found way, were, what, when, where, who, will, with, would, your, friends, garden, goes, gone, great, half, happy, head, heard, high, I'm, important, inside, jumped, knew, know, lady, leave, light, money, morning, much, near, never, number, often, only, opened, other, outside, own, paper, place, right, round, second, show, sister plus:

days of the week; months of the year; numbers to twenty; common colour pupil's, name, and address; name and address of school; Small, something, sometimes, sound, started, still, stopped, such, suddenly, sure, swimming, think, those, thought, through, today, together, told, turn(ed), under, until, upon, used, walk(ed,) (ing), watch, wear, while, white, why ,window ,without, woke, word, work, world, write, year, young

III EDUCATIONAL EMPHASES

These outline current developments in education that will help learners prepare for the real world. In this respect, moral education, citizenship education, patriotism and thinking skills will contribute towards the building of a modern and progressive society.

1.0 Thinking Skills

Critical and creative thinking skills are incorporated in the learning outcomes to enable learners to solve simple problems, make decisions, and express themselves creatively in simple language.

2.0 Learning How to Learn Skills

These skills are integrated in the learning outcomes and aim to enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning. These skills incorporate study skills and information skills to equip them to become independent life-long learners.

3.0 Information and Communication Technology Skills (ICT)

In this age of globalisation and ICT, skills relating to ICT are incorporated in the learning outcomes. These skills include the use of multimedia resources such as TV documentaries and the Internet as well as the use of computer-related activities such as e-mail activities, networking and interacting with electronic courseware.

4.0 Values and Citizenship

The values contained in the KBSR moral syllabus have been incorporated in the learning outcomes and include patriotism and citizenship.

Multiple Intelligences

The learning outcomes also reflect the incorporation of the theory of Multiple Intelligences. For example, interpersonal intelligence is reflected when learners are taught

the polite forms of language expression so as not to offend the people they communicate with. In getting learners to role play or dramatise sections of a text, their kinaesthetic intelligence is nurtured. When learners sing songs, recite poems and chant *jazz chants* either individually or in chorus, their musical intelligence is developed.

Knowledge Acquisition

In teaching the language, content is drawn from subject disciplines such as science, geography, and environmental studies. Content is also drawn from daily news items as well as current affairs.

Preparation for the Real World

The learning outcomes prepare learners to meet the challenges of the real world by focusing on language use in society. In developing learners' ability to listen carefully, speak confidently, read widely and write effectively in the English language, they will be equipped with the requisite skills that will enable them to achieve the long-term goals of pursuing higher education, of being more effective in the workplace, and of becoming a contributing member to the betterment of society and the world at large.

(Refer to Appendix XYZ for a complete curriculum content)

The English Language Syllabus in Tamil Schools

Mother tongue influence interference in L 2 has always been a problem among Tamil school students in Malaysia. Many students beginning to learn writing in L 2 always jumble up the grammatical rules of the two languages as the latter differ in many aspects.

Furthermore, Malaysian vernacular school students tend to be confused by the

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grammatical rules of the national language, Bahasa Melayu which is the main medium of instruction and the dominant language in the country. This has been found to be so from the researcher's experience. The main aim of this study is to detect, analyze and classify the influence of L1 Tamil on the writing of L2 English.

Tamil school students have to learn and be proficient in three languages, namely, Tamil, Bahasa Melayu and English. Prominence is given to the mother tongue language – Tamil, followed by the National Language, Bahasa Melayu, and finally the second language –English in Tamil schools. The English Language was only formally introduced to Tamil school students when they were in standard 3. This had been the practice for many years. But since 2003, English has been taught in Year 1 for an hour a week.

In terms of writing, The Curriculum Specification for English Year 5 Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan (SJK) specifies that at the level of Year 5, Tamil school students would have acquired the mechanics of writing and should be writing simple paragraphs of several sentences to make writing enjoyable. Teachers should make sure that pupils write in response to a variety of stimuli including stories, classroom activities and personal experiences. At this stage, teachers should encourage pupils to write independently, but when this is not possible, teachers need to set guided writing exercises relaxing the amount of control gradually as pupils show greater confidence.

Research Questions

The present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L1 to L2?
2. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L2 to L1?

3. Which linguistic items have been transferred positively?
4. Which linguistic items have been transferred negatively?

Statement of the Problem

The teaching and learning of the English Language has been the talk of the teaching fraternity of late. There have been many debates on the performance of students in all types of school in Malaysia. But the problems of Tamil school students have not been addressed adequately. Their failure of learning the language to the expected level needs to be studied thoroughly. Areas like cross- linguistics and teaching methodologies have to be given special attention. Since students of Tamil schools have to study more than two languages in a go, the chances of mother tongue interferences occurring in the learning is highly likely to take place. Therefore a thorough study in this area is pivotal. This study is hoped to address the issues stated above.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to identify the interference of L1 grammatical rules in the writing of L2 with specific reference to the interference of Tamil (L1) in English (L2). The identified interference will be used by the L2 teachers to help the students to learn L2, better without the cross linguistic problems.

Significance of the Study

There is a consensus of opinion among Malaysians of all walks of life on the need to improve the standard of English in Malaysia. Efforts are being made to improve the

teaching and learning of the English language in schools. Furthermore L2 learning provides valuable insights into teaching that will help teachers, whatever their methodological slant. This inter-language study seeks to find out the components of L1 grammar that students of Tamil schools use frequently in their daily writing of L2. It further seeks to find out which grammatical component or components dominate the inter-language grammar. This research hopes to seek further understanding regarding the theoretical debate on inter-language grammar influence. The study will be significant for English teachers of Tamil schools as they will be able to understand the influence of L1 knowledge in the writing of L2 and change their approach in correcting grammatical errors. Curriculum planners will be able to get a clearer picture of the scenario that takes place in the teaching of L2 in Tamil schools and adapt the curriculum accordingly.

Definition of Terms

First Language (L1)

First Language is one's native language.

Influence

”The power to affect the way someone or something develops, behaves or thinks without using direct force or orders” (Longman, 2003) p.833

Second Language (L2)

Second language is defined as the learning of any language to any level, provided only that the learning of the ‘second’ language takes place sometime later than the acquisition of the first language (Mitchell & Myles, 1996).

Negative Transfer

Negative transfer is defined as the use of first language rules in the learning of L2 although such rules do not exist in the latter (Nunan, 2000).

Positive Transfer

Positive Transfer is defined as the use of the rules that coincide in both L1 and L2 and the learners using the L1 rules to benefit from the learning of L2. (Nunan , 2000)

Limitation of the Study

This study has been designed to cater for Tamil primary school students in Malaysia, whose language background differs, in the sense that they have to learn Bahasa Malaysia and English as school subjects, which is different from students studying Tamil in other parts of the world. The pupils are restricted to one area in the state of Selangor. But its findings are relevant to other cases where similar or identical factors, which were operative in this study are also encountered. This study, though limited in scope to investigating grammatical influences on L2 and vice versa, by and large, is quite valuable and should provide insights to both classroom teachers of English language in Tamil schools and curricular planners of primary school English language syllabus.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the background to the studies, English as a Second Language in Malaysia, Tamil schools and the basic similarities and differences between the two languages. This chapter has also explained the aims and objectives of Year 5 English in Tamil schools as prescribed by the relevant education authorities. Finally the chapter has

also identified some benefits that the findings would offer to the main stakeholders involved in the teaching and learning of the English Language in Tamil schools.

The next chapter represents the literature review of the topic under investigation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter will explore all the sub areas related to SLA in general and language transfer in particular. This chapter offers a comprehensive overview of the field of second language acquisition. This chapter also provides background information on related areas such as first language acquisition as well as provides an historical overview of the field.

Extensive research has already been done in the area of native language interference on the target language. Dulay and Burt (1982) defines interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Lott (1983: 256) defines interference as 'errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue'. Ellis (1997: 51) refers to interference as 'transfer', which he says is 'the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2'. He argues that transfer is governed by learners' perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker, 1972, Seligar, 1988 and Ellis, 1997) with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible. .Ellis (1997) raises the need to

distinguish between errors and mistakes and makes an important distinction between the two. According to Pit Corder (1971), one of the pioneers in the field, errors are deviations from correct usage resulting because a learner does not know the relevant language rule yet. It is essential here to make a distinction between mistake and error; both Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1980) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so: it is the self-correctability criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are 'systematic,' i.e. likely to occur repeatedly and not recognized by the learner. Hence, only the teacher or researcher would locate them, the learner wouldn't (Gass & Selinker, 1994).

Several models describing the relationship, the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 acquisition have been outlined in SLA research (for example, Krashen, 1981; White, 1989; Gass & Selinker, 1994). Recent findings suggest that L1 or a previously learned language transfer can occur in all linguistic subsystems of both comprehension and production in the target language, and can have a facilitating/inhibiting/ modifying effect on L2 acquisition. The likelihood of native language influence is affected by the typological distance between the languages involved and by several interacting non-structural, extra-linguistic factors such as different social and psychological conditions. (Ellis, 1997, Kilborn, 1994).

In other words, there is an interdependence between the first and second languages because acquiring one's first language gives one a certain "routine" or experience, strategies and metacognitive skills, which can be generalised to subsequent

languages, but there are also language-specific constraints in L2 perception and comprehension (McLaughlin, 1990).

Transfer is a psychological term that is used to describe a situation where one learned event influences the learning of a subsequent learning event. Transfer can be positive or negative. That is, a previously learned event can either facilitate (positive transfer) or inhibit (negative transfer) the learning of a second event. Language transfer refers to a situation where the learning of a skill in one language transfers to a second language. For example, learning to read in Spanish will facilitate the ability to learn to read in English in an individual who speaks Spanish and is learning English (Gass and Selinker 1994). In his book, *Linguistics across cultures*, Robert Lado asserted that “individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives” (1957:2)

In his article, ‘A Role for the Mother Tongue’ in *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, Professor Corder (1981) reinvestigated the phenomenon and questions the term ‘transfer’. He suggests that mother tongue influence as a neutral and broader term to refer to what has most commonly been called transfer. Corder says that since most studies of error were made on the basis of the performance of learners in formal situations where it appears that errors related to mother tongue are more frequent, it was natural that an explanation of the phenomenon was of considerable concern to the applied

linguist. It was out of this concern that the whole industry of contrastive studies arose. He also claims that as far as the acquisition of syntactic knowledge is concerned, no process appropriately called interference takes place, if by that we mean that the mother tongue actually inhibits, prevents, or makes more difficult the acquisition of some feature of the target language. The term 'interference' is now most often used to mean what is no more than the presence in the learner's performance in the target language of mother-tongue-like features which are incorrect according to the rules of the target language.

Corder, however, is concerned primarily with the process of language transfer (rather than the milieu). He argues that the 'mother tongue, *facilitates* acquisition. He refers specifically to what he calls 'performance phenomenon'—'borrowing.' When a second language learner is under pressure, the learner will 'borrow' or substitute words from the mother tongue (p. 26). He further says that borrowing occurs because communication is the learner's primary goal, rather than obedience to grammar rules. "This was true when I took French literature in college. After four years of high school French, I could read French fairly well but could not (and still cannot) speak it without serious embarrassment. During class, the professor wanted us to use French to discuss the day's assigned reading. Inevitably, I would start out, "Je connais . . . " but within moments, I would fall back into English. I was *reverting*, not borrowing. Borrowers retrieve words and structures from the mother tongue to help their developing sense of the second language (Corder, 26). In both cases, however, being understood is the primary goal.

Corder's article is helpful to any teacher of English Language Learners (ELL) students. Since grammar courses are designed to be "cumulative"—to borrow Corder's term—such courses contain strong expectations that students will learn a concept and then move on. It is always disconcerting when students, both native and non-native speakers, continue to make errors covered in earlier lessons. An individual's internal understanding of a language is not nearly as systematic as grammar workbooks would have teachers believe.

Corder also makes clear that language transfer is not an equation. Many times, L1 does not contain forms or concepts that can be transferred to L2. It is hopeless to search for feminine and masculine articles (le/la) in English. English capital letters have no equivalent in Arabic. Learning a language does not mean forcing the mother tongue to conform to a new set of rules. A new language is its own entity.

Arabic and English, for example, have many differences. The differences are ingrained, not superficial. Arabic has no modal verbs (can, could, may, might, will, would) and also no form of "to be" in the present tense (am, is, are) (Swan & Smith, 2001, pp. 201, 203-204). Sudanese students tend to write, "[T]he demon didn't like my mother because she Christian." The same student combined a modal verb with a noun: "getting marriage" and "could get marriage" Another student produced a similar error, writing, "[I]t had never been snow."

There is considerable controversy over the extent to which interference (negative transfer) accounts for the numerous mistakes made by anyone learning a new language.

Some researchers claim that most mistakes are consistent with the learner's developing

rule system, called an interlanguage, and are due to faulty inferences about the target language rather than the interference from the first.

There are alternative theories regarding the acquisition of L2. Stephen Krashen has proposed a distinction between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is the process by which children unconsciously or subconsciously acquire their native language. He defines learning as “conscious knowledge of the second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them.” (Krashen .S 1982). Let us evaluate Krashen’s theory of SLA in the following section.

Description of Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses:

- * the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis,
- * the Monitor hypothesis,
- * the Natural Order hypothesis,
- * the Input hypothesis, and
- * the Affective Filter hypothesis.

The Acquisition-Learning distinction is the most fundamental of all the hypotheses in Krashen's theory and the most widely known among linguists and language practitioners. According to Krashen (1982) there are two independent systems of second language performance: 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'. The 'acquired system' or 'acquisition' is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful

interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act. The 'learned system' or 'learning' is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge 'about' the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules. According to Krashen 'learning' is less important than 'acquisition' because the acquisition-learning distinction has had a significant influence on the way teachers in American schools thought an L2 should be taught (de Bot et al, 2005)

The Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former. The monitoring function is the practical result of the learned grammar. According to Krashen, the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met: that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/her disposal, he/she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/she knows the rule.

It appears that the role of conscious learning is somewhat limited in second language performance. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor is - or should be - minor, being used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech and to give speech a more 'polished' appearance. Krashen also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to 'monitor' use. He distinguishes those learners that use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users); those learners who have not learned or who

prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users); and those learners that use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal users). An evaluation of the person's psychological profile can help to determine to what group they belong. Usually extroverts are under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. Lack of self-confidence is frequently related to the over-use of the 'monitor'.

The Natural Order hypothesis is based on research findings (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino, 1980 cited in Krashen, 1987) which suggested that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late. Although there are individual differences, the similarities among learners are very strong (de Bot, Lowie and Verspor, 2005)

This order seemed to be independent of the learners' age, L1 background, conditions of exposure, and although the agreement between individual acquirers was not always 100% in the studies, there were statistically significant similarities that reinforced the existence of a Natural Order of language acquisition. Krashen however points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis is not that a language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

The Input hypothesis is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the 'natural order' when he/she receives second language 'input' that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then

acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to 'Comprehensible Input' that belongs to level 'i + 1'. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative input is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence. Input that may be characterized as 'I + 2' may not be acquired meaningfully.

Finally, the fifth hypothesis, the Affective Filter hypothesis, embodies Krashen's view that a number of 'affective variables' play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up' it impedes language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary, but not sufficient on its own, for acquisition to take place.

Krashen has also been strongly criticized by both professional educators and educational theorists for failing to conduct any research to substantiate his claims. Gregg (1984) first notes that Krashen's use of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) gives it a much wider scope of operation than even Chomsky himself. He intended it simply as a construct to describe the child's initial state, which would therefore mean that it cannot

apply to adult learners. Drawing on his own experience of learning Japanese, Gregg contends that Krashen's dogmatic insistence that "learning" can never become "acquisition" is quickly refuted by the experience of anyone who has internalized some of the grammar they have consciously memorized. However, although it is not explicitly stated, Krashen's emphasis seems to be that classroom learning does not lead to fluent, native-like speech. Gregg's account that his memorization of a verb conjugation chart was "error-free after a couple of days" (p.81) seems to go against this spirit. The reader is left to speculate whether his proficiency in Japanese at the time was sufficient enough for him to engage in error-free conversations with the verbs from his chart.

The Role of Grammar in Krashen's View

According to Krashen, the study of the structure of the language can have general educational advantages and values that high schools and colleges may want to include in their language programs. It should be clear, however, that examining irregularity, formulating rules and teaching complex facts about the target language is not language teaching, but rather is language appreciation or linguistics.

The only instance in which the teaching of grammar can result in language acquisition (and proficiency) is when the students are interested in the subject and the target language is used as a medium of instruction. Very often, when this occurs, both teachers and students are convinced that the study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition, and the teacher is skillful enough to present explanations in the target language so that the students understand. In other words, the teacher talk meets the requirements for comprehensible input and perhaps with the students' participation

the classroom becomes an environment suitable for acquisition. Also, the filter is low with regard to the language of explanation, as the students' conscious efforts are usually on the subject matter, on what is being talked about, and not the medium.

This is a subtle point. In effect, both teachers and students are deceiving themselves. They believe that it is the subject matter itself, the study of grammar, that is responsible for the students' progress, but in reality their progress is coming from the medium and not the message. Any subject matter that held their interest would do just as well.

Asmah Haji Omar, a prominent linguist, has not opposed bilingual education in principle but opposes its practice in Malaysia. She says that in a “truly bilingual system of education, equality of the languages concerned cannot be attained. One language is certainly going to be more equal than the other.” (1979:55). In the case of Malaysia, this would be seen as a threat to Bahasa Melayu, the national language. While L2 acquisition by major communities has been widely studied, interference of the Tamil Language in the writing of English (L2) has rarely been done patchily and is hardly referred to in most standard introduction to L2 learning research.

Mohideen, H (1996) agrees that mother tongue interference as one of the main causes of errors in writing among Malaysian students. He says that there is mother tongue interference in the areas of syntax, grammar, lexis and pronunciation. Teachers of English in Malaysia are very familiar with erroneous constructions which have a strong influence of Bahasa Melayu (hereafter BM), for example:

Walaupun Ahmad malas, tetapi dia pandai.

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When a weak student attempts to transfer this construction to English he may write it as

* Although Ahmad is lazy, but he is clever.

The above sentence is an instance of negative transfer in grammar. When someone says

* I'll spend you

there could be mother tongue interference in the area of lexis.

Saya akan belanja awak.

An example of how mother tongue interference could affect the pronunciation of certain words in English is the way some Malay students pronounce 'film'. They pronounce it as 'filem' - the BM equivalent. Some students speak English with a strong vernacular accent, for example, as in India, Hong Kong, Ghana, etc.

* An asterisk indicates an erroneous item.

Language Universals

According to Chomsky, one aspect of the study of natural language is the quest for a universal grammar, a system that would explain conclusively the way all languages are organized and function. Noam Chomsky postulated the argument that the human brain contains a limited set of rules for organizing language. In turn, there is an assumption that all languages have a common structural basis. This set of rules is known as *universal grammar*. The Chomskyan view of Universal Grammar is that the language properties inherent in the human mind make up 'Universal Grammar', which consists not of particular rules or of a particular language, but a set of general principles that apply to all languages. Ellis (1985), states that Universal Grammar constrains the form which the

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grammars of individual language can take. However, it does not do this directly by providing the child with ready-made rules which he can incorporate into his grammar. Rather it sets parameters which must then be fixed according to the particular input data the child obtains. In other words, formal and substantive universals constitute constraints the kind of grammar that the child can develop. They delimit the number of options which the child needs to explore. The child, however, still has to discover which of the various options pertain to the target language. This is where the environment comes in: the child needs input data to fix the parameters by selecting the appropriate option. The theory does not attempt to claim that all human languages have the same grammar, or that all humans are 'programmed' with a structure that underlies all surface expressions of human language. Rather, universal grammar proposes that there exists underlying rules that help children to acquire their particular language.

According to Chomsky, Universal grammar is the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages. Cook (1997) gives a few examples of rules that supposedly belong to this universal grammar:

- Structure dependency. All operations on sentences are defined in terms of phrase structure, rather than e.g. linear sequence. This is probably the least controversial of all the proposed rules of universal grammar, being strongly supported both by all available data, and by most people's linguistic intuition.
- The Head parameter. Each phrase contains a 'head' (main word), and all phrases in a given language have the head in the same position. The head position is, however, different from language to language, which introduces the important concept of a

parameter-governed rule. Unfortunately it is not too difficult to find exceptions to this rule — for example, the two English noun phrases ‘high court’ and ‘court martial’ have the heads at opposite ends — weakening the case for including it in a universal grammar.

- The Projection principle. Properties of lexical entries project onto the structure of the phrases of which they are the head. This rule ensures e.g. that a verb gets the appropriate number and type of objects. The universality of this rule is far from self-evident — it is strongly dependent upon a particular grammatical theory, in which the lexicon carries much of the linguistic information that could otherwise be expressed as phrase structure rules. Some equivalent of the projection principle may be needed, but it might look completely different if another theory of grammar were used. There are several more universal-grammar rules proposed by Chomsky, and presumably the full set of rules required by the innateness hypothesis is rather large. But it would take us too far to go into more detail here.

Children are hypothesized to have an innate knowledge of the basic grammatical structure common to all human languages (i.e. they assume that any language which they encounter is of a certain restricted kind). This innate knowledge is often referred to as universal grammar. It is argued that modeling knowledge of language using a formal grammar accounts for the "productivity" of language: with a limited set of grammar rules and a finite set of terms, humans are able to produce an infinite number of sentences, including sentences no one has previously said.

The Chomskyan approach towards syntax, often termed generative grammar, studies grammar as a body of knowledge possessed by language users. Since the 1960s, Chomsky has maintained that much of this knowledge is innate, implying that children need only learn certain parochial features of their native languages. The innate body of linguistic knowledge is often termed Universal Grammar. From Chomsky's perspective, the strongest evidence for the existence of Universal Grammar is simply the fact that children successfully acquire their native languages in a short and almost effortlessly.

Some students of universal grammar study a variety of grammars to abstract generalizations called linguistic universals, often in the form of "If X holds true, then Y occurs." These have been extended to a range of traits, from the phonemes found in languages, to what word orders languages choose, to why children exhibit certain linguistic behaviors. as they considered issues of the argument from poverty of the stimulus to arise from the constructivist approach to linguistic theory.

The contrasting school of thought is known as functionalism. The idea can be traced to Roger Bacon's observation that all languages are built upon a common grammar, substantially the same in all languages, even though it may undergo in them accidental variations, and the 13th century speculative grammarians who, following Bacon, postulated universal rules underlying all grammars. The concept of a universal grammar or language was at the core of the 17th century projects for philosophical languages. Charles Darwin described language as an instinct in humans, like the upright posture. The idea rose to notability in modern linguistics with theorists such as Noam

Chomsky and Richard Montague, developed in the 1950s to 1970s, as part of the "Linguistics Wars".

Speakers proficient in a language know what expressions are acceptable in their language and what expressions are unacceptable. The key puzzle is how speakers should come to know the restrictions of their language, since expressions which violate those restrictions are not present in the input, indicated as such. This absence of negative evidence -- that is, absence of evidence that an expression is part of a class of the ungrammatical sentences in one's language -- is the core of poverty of stimulus argument. For example, in English one cannot relate a question word like 'what' to a predicate within a relative clause:

What did John meet a man who sold?

Such expressions are not available to the language learners, because they are, by hypothesis, ungrammatical for speakers of their native language. The speakers do not utter such expressions and note that they are unacceptable to language learners. Universal grammar offers a solution to the poverty of the stimulus problem by making certain restrictions on universal characteristics of human languages. Language learners are consequently never tempted to generalize in an illicit fashion.

The presence of creole languages is cited as further support for this phenomenon. These languages were developed and formed when different societies came together and devised their own system of language. Originally these languages were

pidgins and later became more mature languages that developed some sense of rules and native speakers. The idea of universal grammar which refers to “the innate principle and properties that pertain to the grammar of all human languages” (Fromkin et al, 2003: 598) is supported by the creole languages by virtue of the fact that such languages all share certain features.

However, there are many scholars who are opposed to Chomsky’s universal grammar theory; it is outspokenly opposed by Geoffrey Sampson (2005), who maintains that universal grammar theories are not falsifiable, arguing that the grammatical generalizations made are simply observations about existing languages and not predictions about what is possible in a language. Some feel that the basic assumptions of Universal Grammar are unfounded. Another way of defusing the poverty of the stimulus argument is if language learners notice the absence of classes of expressions in the input and, on this basis, they hypothesize a restriction. This solution is closely related to Bayesian reasoning. Elman et al. (1996) argue that the unlearnability of languages assumed by UG is based on a too-strict, "worst-case" model of grammar.

Better Understanding of SLA

Improved knowledge in the area of SLA is interesting in itself, and can also contribute to a more general understanding about the nature of language, of human learning, and of intercultural communication, and thus about the human mind itself, as

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well as how all these are interrelated and affect each other. The knowledge will be useful. If we become better at explaining the learning process, and are better able to account for both success and failure in L2 learning, it will be a boon for innumerable teachers and learners who are struggling with the second language learning task.

Various researchers have concentrated on those errors which demonstrate the influence of one's native language on second language acquisition. Before Corder's work, interference errors were regarded as inhibitory; it was Corder who pointed out that they can be facilitative and provide information about one's learning strategies (point 7, listed above). Claude Hagège (1999) is a supporter of this concept and he mentions it in his book "The child between two languages", dedicated to children's language education. According to Hagège, interference between L1 and L2 is observed in children as well as in adults. In adults it is more obvious and increases continuously, as a monolingual person gets older and the structures of his first language get stronger and impose themselves more and more on any other language the adult wishes to learn.

In contrast, as regards children, interference features will not become permanent unless the child does not have sufficient exposure to L2. If there is sufficient exposure, then instead of reaching a point where they can no longer be corrected (as often happens with phonetics features), interference features can be easily eliminated. Hagège stresses that there is no reason for worry if interference persists more than expected. The teacher should know that a child that is in the process of acquiring a second language will subconsciously invent structures influenced by knowledge she already possesses. These

hypotheses she forms may constitute errors. These errors, though, are completely natural; we should not expect the child to acquire L2 structures immediately.

In addition to studies of L1 transfer in general, there have been numerous studies for specific language pairs. Thanh Ha Nguyen (1995) conducted a case study to demonstrate first language transfer in Vietnamese learners of English. He examined a particular language form, namely oral competence in English past tense making. He tried to determine the role of L1 transfer in the acquisition of this English linguistic feature as *a function of age, time of exposure to English, and place and purpose of learning English*.

The influence of L1 on L2 was also examined by Lakkis and Malak (2000) who concentrated on the transfer of Arabic prepositional knowledge to English (by Arab students). Both positive and negative transfer were examined in order to help teachers identify problematic areas for Arab students and help them understand where transfer should be encouraged or avoided. In particular, they concluded that a teacher of English, whose native language is Arabic, can use the students' L1 for structures that use equivalent prepositions in both languages. On the other hand, whenever there are verbs or expressions in the L1 and L2 that have different structures, that take prepositions, or that have no equivalent in one of the languages, instructors should point out these differences to their students.

Not only was L1 influence examined according to language pairs, but also according to the type of speech produced (written vs. oral). Hagège (p. 33) discusses the influence of L1 on accent; he notes that the ear acts like a filter, and after a critical age

(which Hagège claims is 11 years), it only accepts sounds that belong to one's native language. Hagège discusses L1 transfer in order to convince readers that there is indeed a critical age for language acquisition, and in particular the acquisition of a native-like accent. He uses the example of the French language, which includes complex vowel sounds, to demonstrate that after a critical age, the acquisition of these sounds is not possible; thus, learners of a foreign language will only use the sounds existing in their native language when producing L2 sounds, which may often obstruct communication. We look at the critical period hypothesis (CPH) in more detail in the following section.

Second Language Acquisition and the Critical Period Hypothesis

Is there a single key issue in the field of second language acquisition/learning, an as yet unresolved matter on which all else depends? A good case could be made for the question of whether or not there is a critical period for second language learning. Lenneberg (1967) was the first to discuss the critical period for language acquisition, which proposes that the most effective learning of a second language takes place during early childhood and ends around puberty (as cited in Newport, 1991; Bernicot 1989). The CPH, also known as critical age hypothesis, “states that there is a window of time between early childhood and puberty for learning a first language, and beyond which first language acquisition is almost always incomplete” (Fomkin et al, 2003: 579). There are two schools of thought on the cognitive changes occurring during the critical period as described by Newport (1991). The first school asserts that targeted domains (such as language acquisition) are at their peak of learning at certain ages (at childhood for

language acquisition), after which the ability for the domain to be mastered diminishes over time. The second school contends that when one is in the early stages of cognitive development, innumerable domains are ready to be conquered. As one focuses on one domain, however, the mechanism for learning increases in that domain while other domains remain stagnant and undeveloped. Given that adults begin studying a foreign language and gain proficiency and even fluency, the second theory seems more adequate in explaining the critical period of language acquisition.

Another factor contributing to the critical period involves differences in learning strategies between children and adults. In the Less is More Hypothesis proposed by Newport (1991), children achieve a better morphology for the language because they process language in small pieces and gradually increase cognitively and in the amount of material to which they are exposed as they mature. Adults, however, extract at a word or sentence level and then find that they have difficulty putting it together in a foreign language (Newport, 1991).

Recognizing that adults and children approach language learning differently, Chen and Leung (1989) classified them among three groups based on their experimental studies. The first group, based upon a word-association hypothesis, is a direct word-to-word association from the native language to the foreign language, which is typical of adults learning a new language. The second is a concept-mediation hypothesis, where the two languages are created as separate systems in the mind and are linked through a conceptual system, common to children being raised with two languages. The third

hypothesis is a mixture of the first two hypotheses. Here one begins with the word-to-word, but gradually, as a distinct system develops for the second language, the learner converts to the concept-mediation approach. More specifically, as one reaches a certain level of mastery of a foreign language, the individual essentially establishes an independent system of the second language and no longer depends upon the first language for clarification of the second. This is represented by the novice fluent in one language learning a second, but who ultimately gains fluency parallel to a bilingual native to the two languages.

This is all somewhat confusing, and the only conclusion that, we can come to is that there are no easy answers on the CPH. What is clear is that the old notion that the nature of L2 acquisition changes suddenly and dramatically at around the age of 12-13 because of changes in the brain is much too simplistic (as has been generally recognized for some time). If there is any truth in the CPH, then there may be different critical periods for different language skills, different types of change at different ages. If, on the other hand, there is no physical change in the brain which can be directly related to language learning, other powerful explanations are needed to account for the dramatic decline in ultimate achievement generally seen in later second language learners compared to young children -- and such explanations are no more than tentative guesses at present. None of this is of much immediate help to the practicing language teacher; it may even be in the long run that the exact age of first L2 exposure and the CPH will not turn out to be such a central issue after all, at least not in a formal learning context. But

whether it is itself a key field, or whether it simply takes us into other areas which are key fields, further research into the relationship between age and language learning is likely to help us delve deeper into the mysteries of the mechanisms of second language acquisition.

In other words, does the nature of second language acquisition change if the first exposure to the new language comes after a certain age? This question is closely linked to the question of whether first language (L1) acquisition and second language (L2) acquisition are essentially the same process, or very similar processes, and if so whether this is the case for some learners, or for all. In practical terms, it could be central not only to such issues as the optimal age at which children should start learning foreign languages, but also to the best teaching/learning approach for adults. Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) is totally undermined if a critical period does indeed exist, since the hypothesis assumes not only that L2 acquisition is similar in nature to L1 acquisition, but also that this is the case for learners of any age.

Although many would claim that Krashen's theories are seriously flawed in any case, their influence in the field of second language teaching can hardly be denied. Issues such as the relative importance of lexis and syntax in teaching materials must ultimately link back to the way in which second language knowledge is organised in the brain. If that organisation is different in learners who have first been exposed to L2 after a certain age, then this has a bearing on choice of teaching approach. I believe there is a strong *prima facie* case for regarding the debate over the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) as a

central issue. Very often, we can attribute “the imperfect language learning of persons exposed to language” after the so called critical period to CPH (Fromkin et al, 2003)

The concept of a critical period is well known in nature. One example is imprinting in ducks and geese, where it is claimed that ducklings and goslings can be induced to adopt chickens, people, or even mechanical objects as their mothers if they encounter them within a certain short period after hatching. (Note, however, that the exact nature of even this apparently well-documented instance of a critical period is now coming under fire; see Hoffmann, 1996). According to Fromkin et al even some songbirds “appear to have a critical period for the acquisition calls and songs” (2003:62) In humans, on the basis of extant evidence, it seems that there is a critical period for *first* language acquisition; those unfortunate persons who are not exposed to any language before puberty seem unable to properly acquire the syntax of their first language later in life. (Inevitably, our knowledge in this area is sketchy and unreliable, being based solely on a very few documented cases.

Provided that a person learns a first language in the normal way, the question is then whether there is a certain biologically-determined critical period *during* which that person can acquire further languages using one’s mental mechanism, probably resulting in a high level of achievement if learning continues, and *after* which the learning process for new languages changes, so that the learning outcome will not be as good. Note that we are not talking here about the commonly-observed and widely-accepted generalisation that learning gets harder as one gets older; nor is the question one of whether changes in

attitudes or situation alter the learning process as one gets older. The issue is whether a fundamental change in the learning process and thus in potential learning outcomes related to second languages occurs in the brain at a fairly fixed age, closing a biological "window of opportunity".

Contrastive Analysis

In the words of Lado: "The view of grammar as grammatical structure opens the way to a comparison of the grammatical structure of the foreign language with that of the native language to discover the problems of the students in learning the foreign language. The result of such a comparison tells us what we should test and what we should not test. It helps us devise test items and techniques that also look quite acceptable from a common sense point of view, and this is the important consideration- we can test the control of the language on the part of the student." (Lado, 1961:19)

A systematic comparative study analyzing according to their differences and similarities among languages was clearly recognized towards the end of 19th century and at the beginning of 20th century. The term Contrastive Linguistics was suggested by Whorff (1941), for a comparative study which emphasized on linguistic differences. The publication of Robert Lado's book, *Linguistic Across Cultures*, in 1957 marked the real beginning of modern applied linguistics. Contrastive Analysis was rooted in the practical need to teach an L2 in the most efficient way possible. As Lado (1957), one of the prime movers of CA, made it clear, "The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the problems are

and can provide for teaching them.” The origin of CA therefore was pedagogic. This was reflected in comparisons of several pairs of languages by scholars in the United States, all directed at establishing the areas of learning difficulty that were likely to be experienced by native speakers, .the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis stated that learning difficulty was the result of interference from old habits in the learning of new habits. The greater the differences between the two languages the greater the difficulty and more errors will be made. This is the strong version of the CA hypothesis.

It was not until the late 1960s that the CA hypothesis was submitted to empirical investigation. The findings of researchers like Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974a) raised grave doubts about negative transfer as a major factor in the process of SLA. As a result of such studies, CA lost its attraction and became less fashionable. Anyhow, this research still seeks to utilize the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, as the current researcher believes to his knowledge that there has been no such research done involving the Tamil Language and its interference in the learning of the English Language, in a multilingual country like Malaysia.

Contrastive Analysis, popularly, is a method of analyzing the structure of any two languages with a view to estimate the differential aspects of their systems, irrespective of their genetic affinity or level of development. Contrastive analysis of two languages becomes useful, when it, for instance, adequately describes the sound structure and grammatical structure of two languages, with comparative statements, giving due emphasis to the compatible items in the two systems.

It is assumed that learning a second language is facilitated whenever there are

similarities between that language and the native tongue. Learning may be interfered with when there are marked contrasts between the mother tongue and second language (Nickle, 1971) The CA analysis emphasizes the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language at phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. An examination of the differences between the first and the second language helps to predict the possible errors that can be made by L2 learners. CA is really not particularly relevant for second language teaching, but it can make useful contributions to linguistic typology. It is relevant to the designing of teaching material for use in all age groups. Chaturvedi (1973) suggests the following guiding principles for contrastive studies:

1. To analyze mother tongue and the target language systematically and completely
2. To compare target items of the two languages item-wise-item at all levels of their structure
3. To arrive at the categories of:
 - Similar features
 - Partially similar features
 - Dissimilar features- for the target language, and
 - Principles of text preparation, test framing and target language in general

This type of study will provide an objective and scientific base for second language teaching. While learning a second language, if the mother tongue of the learner and the target language both have significantly similar linguistic features at all the levels of their structures there will be not much difficulty in learning the new language in a

prescribed time. In order to know the similarities in both languages, the first step to be adopted is that both languages should be analyzed systematically. After the systematic analysis, to sort out the different features of the two languages, a comparison of the two languages is necessary. From this analysis it will be easy for a researcher to figure out the similarities and dissimilarities.

Interlanguage Fossilization

In the process of mastering a target language (TL), second language learners (L2) develop a linguistic system that is self-contained and different from both the learner's first language (L1) and the TL (Nemser, 1971). This linguistic system has been variously called interlanguage (IL) (Selinker, 1972), approximative system (Nemser, 1971), idiosyncratic dialects or transitional dialects (Corder, 1971), etc. According to Corder (1981), this temporary and changing grammatical system, IL, which is constructed by the learner, approximates to the grammatical system of the TL. IL is an intermediate language that learners create on their quest to acquiring the more or less complete grammar of the TL (Fromkin et al, 2003). In the process of L2 acquisition, IL continually evolves into an ever-closer approximation of the TL, and ideally, a learner's IL should continue to advance gradually until it becomes equivalent, or nearly equivalent, to the TL. However, it has been observed that somewhere in the L2 learning process, such an IL may reach one or more temporary restricting phases during which the development of the IL appears to be detained (Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972; Schumann, 1975). A permanent cessation of progress toward the TL has been referred to as

fossilization (Selinker, 1972). This linguistic phenomenon, IL fossilization, occurs when progress in the acquisition of L2 becomes stable, despite all reasonable attempts at learning (Selinker, 1972). Fossilization includes those items, rules, and sub-systems that L2 learners tend to retain in their IL while in the process of acquiring a particular TL, i.e., fossilization encompasses those aspects of IL that become entrenched and permanent, and that will only be eliminated with considerable effort, for the majority of L2 learners, regardless of explanation or instruction (Omaggio, 2001). Moreover, it has also been noticed that adult L2 learners' IL systems, in particular, have a tendency, or propensity, to become stagnated or solidified (Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972, Selinker & Lamendella, 1980.), i.e., the language learners make no further progress in IL development toward the TL, and become permanently fossilized, in spite of the amount of exposure to the L2. de Bot et al contend that “for many L2 learners many sub-systems become stabilized before they have reached the target forms, especially in pronunciation (2005:17).

Selinker (1972) suggests that the most important distinguishing factor related to L2 acquisition is the phenomenon of fossilization. However, both his explanation that “fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction he receives in the target language” (Selinker, 1972, p. 215) and his hypotheses on IL fossilization are fascinating in that they contradict our basic understanding of the human capacity to learn. How is it that some learners can overcome IL fossilization, even if they only constitute, according to Selinker, “a mere 5%” (1972,

p. 212), while the majority of L2 learners cannot, ‘no matter what the age or amount of explanation or instruction’? Or is it perhaps not that they cannot overcome fossilization, but that they will not? Does complacency set in after L2 learners begin to communicate, as far as they are concerned, effectively enough, in the TL, and as a result does motivation to achieve native-like competence diminish? The concept of fossilization in SLA research is so intrinsically related to IL that Selinker (1972) considers it to be a fundamental phenomenon of all SLA and not just to adult learners. Selinker’s concept of fossilization is similar to that of, Nemser (1971), who attempted to explore the causes of fossilization in L2 learners’ IL.

Fossilization has attracted considerable interest among researchers and has engendered significant differences of opinion. The term, borrowed from the field of paleontology, and actually a misnomer, is effective because it conjures up an image of dinosaurs being enclosed in residue and becoming a set of hardened remains encased in sediment. The metaphor, as used in SLA literature, is appropriate because it refers to earlier language forms that become encased in a learner’s IL and that, theoretically, cannot be changed by special attention or practice of the TL. Despite debate over the degree of permanence, fossilization is generally accepted as a fact of life in the process of SLA.

One factor that has obvious relevance to fossilization is motivation and various studies have been conducted regarding motivation to learning L2 (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Smythe, 1976; Schumann. 1976, 1978a, 1978b), and the relationship of

fossilization to the learner's communicative needs (Corder, 1978; Nickel, 1998; Ushioda, 1993). Arguments have particularly emerged regarding adult learners' general lack of empathy with TL native speakers and culture. According to Guiora et al. (1972), adults do not have the motivation to change their accent and to acquire native-like pronunciation. Unlike children, who are generally more open to TL culture, adults have more rigid language ego boundaries. It is hypothesized that adults may therefore be inclined to establishing their cultural and ethnic identity, and this they do by maintaining their stereotypical accent (Guiora et al., 1972).

Notwithstanding this, there is a lack of needed research, particularly regarding achievement motivation, especially in view of the fact that fossilization can be considered the most distinctive characteristic of adult SLA. To date, fossilization continues to remain something of a mystery in SLA. According to Gass and Selinker (1993) historically, the question about language transfer raised by Selinker (1966) were obscured for a decade by the important research trend linking first and second language acquisition. The works of Dulay and Burt(1974) have been influential in the field of second language acquisition, especially concerning language transfer. Dulay and Burt were greatly influenced by first language studies, and attempted to make an analogy between the processes of first language acquisition and those of second language acquisition. In order to show that the L1=L2 hypothesis was correct, it was necessary to first show that language transfer was not and could not be a significant factor in second language learning. Gass and Selinker, feel that it is indeed

possible and not incompatible to view second language acquisition as both a process of hypothesis testing in which learners create bodies of knowledge from the second language data they have available to them, while at the same time viewing it as a process of utilizing first language knowledge as well as knowledge of other languages known to learners in the creation of a learner language. Thus it is clearly possible to accept some version of assumptions underlying the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis mentioned in this chapter.

Gass and Selinker (1993) , further say that there is overwhelming evidence that language transfer is indeed a real and central phenomenon that must be considered in any full account of the second language acquisition process. According to them in the face of increasing quantities of L2 data, researchers have begun to once gain focus their attention on language transfer , realizing that the baby has been mercilessly thrown out with the bathwater. The pendulum in recent years has begun to settle with language transfer being investigated as a phenomenon of importance in and of itself. Gass(1979) asks the same questions that were once asked by Selinker(1969): what evidence is necessary in order to attribute a form(s) to influence of the native language? And what is the relationship of transfer to language universals? Her work clearly shows that transfer does indeed take place but, importantly, that some aspects of the language are more likely to be transferred than others. Xiaofei Lu (2004), for instance, has found that Chinese learners of English are much involved with lexical and syntactic transfer errors.

Motivation as a Contributing Factor in Second Language Acquisition

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The Influence of First Language Grammar (L1) on the English Language (L2) Writing of Tamil School Students: A Case Study from Malaysia

Transfer and motivation play important roles in learning. Transfer, the application of prior knowledge to new learning situations (McKeough, 1995), is often seen as a learning goal, and thus the extent to which transfer occurs is a measure of learning success (Pea, 1987; Perkins, 1991). Motivation, defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal-seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989), is important because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning.

Motivation is one of the keys to successful language learning. Maintaining a high level of motivation during a period of language learning is one of the best ways to make the whole process more successful. As each individual is motivated in different ways, we have to find the right balance of incentives to succeed and disincentives to fail encouragement, and the right environment in which to learn. Research studies have shown that language acquisition is the result of an interplay between cognitive mechanism and environmental conditions (Spolsky, 1985; Sivert & Egbert, 1995). Understanding and creating optimal language learning environments thus becomes a primary concern of the language teacher. Teachers can observe circumstances under which learners acquire language and can make adjustments toward creating optimal learning conditions.

According to Gardner (1972), motivation is defined as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. Motivation is divided into two basic types: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is characterised by the

learner's positive attitudes towards the target language group and the desire to integrate into the target language community.

The work conducted by Gardner in the area of motivation was largely influenced by Mowrer (1950, cited in Larson-Freeman and Long 1994), whose focus was on first language acquisition. Mowrer proposed that a child's success when learning a first language could be attributed to the desire to gain identity within the family unit and then the wider language community. Using this as the basis for his research Gardner went on to investigate motivation as an influencing factor in L2 acquisition.

Unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner's model looks specifically at second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom. The model attempts to interrelate four features of second language acquisition. These include the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes (Gardner 1982).

The social or cultural milieu refers to the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language. It is these beliefs which have a significant impact on second language acquisition. An example of this can be seen in the largely monocultural setting of Britain, where many believe it is not necessary to learn another language and that minority groups should assimilate and become proficient in the dominant language of the country. The same can be said of many other predominantly monocultural communities throughout the world. However, in

countries such as Canada, bilingualism and biculturalism, are often encouraged within society (Ellis 1997). Gardner (1979, cited in Skehan 1993) suggests that expectations regarding bilingualism, combined with attitudes towards the target language and its culture, form the basis of an individual's attitude towards language learning.

The second phase of Gardner's model introduces the four individual differences which are believed to be the most influential in second language acquisition. These include the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety (Giles and Coupland 1991). Closely interrelated with these variables is the next phase of the model, referred to as the setting or context in which learning takes place. Two contexts are identified, namely formal instruction within the classroom and unstructured language acquisition in a natural setting. Depending upon the context, the impact of the individual difference variables alters. For example, in a formal setting intelligence and aptitude play a dominant role in learning, while exerting a weaker influence in an informal setting. The variables of situational anxiety and motivation are thought to influence both settings equally.

The final phase of the model identifies linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience. Linguistic outcomes refer to actual language knowledge and language skills. It includes test indices such as course grades or general proficiency tests. Non-linguistic outcomes reflect an individual's attitudes concerning cultural values and beliefs, usually towards the target language community. Ellis (1997) reasons that individuals who are motivated to integrate both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of

the learning experience will attain a higher degree of L2 proficiency and more desirable attitudes.

Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner 1982).

In order to make the language learning process a more motivating experience teachers need to put a great deal of thought into developing programs which maintain student interest and have obtainable short and long term and goals.

Code Switching as a Countenance of Language Interference

Interference may be viewed as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Berthold et al (1997) define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the first language influencing the second. Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at a lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another and orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another. Given

this definition of interference, code-switching will now be defined and considered in terms of its relationship to this concept.

Crystal (1987) suggests that code, or language, switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages during his/her speech with another bilingual person. A person who is bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, to varying extents, in a second language. This includes those who make irregular use of a second language, are able to use a second language but have not for some time (dormant bilingualism) or those who have considerable skill in a second language (Crystal, 1987). This type of alteration, or code switching, between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals and may take a number of different forms, including alteration of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and switching in a long narrative. Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartorowicz (1997, pg 2.13) supplement the definition of code switching thus far with the notion that it occurs where 'speakers change from one language to another in the midst of their conversations'. An example of code switching, from Russian to French, is "Chustvovali, chto le vin est tiré et qu'il faut le boire" meaning 'They felt that the wine is uncorked and it should be drunk' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). Further, Cook (1991) puts the extent of code switching in normal conversations amongst bilinguals into perspective by outlining that code switching consists of 84% single word switches, 10% phrase switches and 6% clause switching.

There are a number of possible reasons for the switching from one language to another and these will now be considered, as presented by Crystal (1987). The first of these is the

notion that a speaker may not be able to express him/herself in one language so switches to the other to compensate for the deficiency. As a result, the speaker may be triggered into speaking in the other language for a while. This type of code switching tends to occur when the speaker is upset, tired or distracted in some manner. Secondly, switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch. This type of switching may also be used to exclude others from a conversation who do not speak the second language. An example of such a situation may be two people in an elevator in a language other than English. Others in the elevator who do not speak the same language would be excluded from the conversation and a degree of comfort would exist amongst the speakers in the knowledge that not all those present in the elevator are listening to their conversation.

The final reason for the switching behavior presented by Crystal (1987) is the alteration that occurs when the speaker wishes to convey his/her attitude to the listener. Where monolingual speakers can communicate these attitudes by means of variation in the level of formality in their speech, bilingual speakers can convey the same by code switching. Crystal (1987) suggests that where two bilingual speakers are accustomed to conversing in a particular language, switching to the other is bound to create a special effect. These notions suggest that code switching may be used as a socio-linguistic tool by bilingual speakers.

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that code switching is not a language interference on the basis that it supplements speech. Where it is used due to an inability of expression, code switching provides a continuity in speech rather than presenting an interference in language. The socio-linguistic benefits have also been identified as a means of communicating solidarity, or affiliation to a particular social group, whereby code switching should be viewed from the perspective of providing a linguistic advantage rather than an obstruction to communication. Further, code switching allows a speaker to convey attitude and other emotives using a method available to those who are bilingual and again serves to advantage the speaker, much like bolding or underlining in a text document to emphasise points. Utilising the second language, then, allows speakers to increase the impact of their speech and use it in an effective manner.

To ensure the effective use of code switching there are however two main restrictions, as developed by Poplack (1980), cited in Cook (1991). The first of these is the free morpheme constraint. This constraint suggests that a 'speaker may not switch language between a word and its endings unless the word is pronounced as if it were in the language of the ending' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example given by Cook (1991) to illustrate this constraint is creation of the word "runeando" in an English/Spanish switch. Cook suggests that this is impossible because "run" is a distinctively English sound. The word "flipeando", on the other hand, is possible since "flip" could be a Spanish word. The second constraint is referred to as the equivalence constraint. This constraint is characterised by the notion that 'the switch can come at a point in the sentence where it

does not violate the grammar of either language' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example Cook uses to illustrate the equivalence constraint is a French/English switch with the suggestion that switches such as "a car americaine" or "une American voiture" are both unlikely as they are wrong in both languages. A switch "J'ai acheté an American car" (I bought an American car) is possible as both English and French share the construction in which the verb is followed by the object.

Other researchers (Di Sciullo, Muysken & Singh, 1986; Berk-Seligson, 1986; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981) have also worked on generating similar specific linguistic constraints on patterns of code switching, with a general view to contribute to the work on language universals. On this basis, constraints provide a mechanism whereby two languages may be integrated together without causing interference in the conversation between two bilingual speakers.

A varying degree of code switching may also be used between bilingual conversationalists depending on the person being addressed, such as family, friends, officials and superiors and depending on the location, such as church, home or place of work (Crystal, 1987). The implication here is that there are patterns which are followed reflecting when it is appropriate to code switch with regard to addressee and location. These patterns are the established norm for that particular social group and serve to ensure appropriate language use. Milroy (1987) is a further proponent of this proposal with the observation that bilingual speakers attribute different social values to different codes, or languages. Since a different social value is associated with each code, the

speaker considers use of one code more appropriate than the other with different interlocutors. Milroy (1987, pg 185) presents an example of perceived appropriate use of a given language over another with regard to the conversational participant, by stating:

.. in the West of Ireland, Irish/English bilinguals will switch to English not only in addressing an English-speaking monolingual, but in the presence of such a person who in Bell's terms is an auditor - that is, a person ratified as a participant in the interaction (Bell 1984b:172)

A similar study was carried out by Gal (1979), as cited in Milroy (1987), who concluded that the participant in the conversation is the variable to which the others were subservient in a study of code switching. The notions of Gal (1979), Bell (1984) and Milroy (1987) suggest that code switching occurs naturally and unobtrusively such that it is not an interference to language but rather a verbal mechanism of presenting an individuals' social standing with regard to a particular conversational participant. As such, code switching performs a socio-linguistic function.

Code switching may also be considered in relation to language acquisition. A number of theories have been postulated as to how an individual attains language and these will now be outlined. The first to be considered is that of Chomsky (1972; 1975; 1979) where he suggests that language acquisition takes place as the brain matures and exposure to the appropriate language is obtained. Chomsky also suggests that people are aided by innate universal language structures and as children learn, they realise how to express the

underlying universal structure according to their particular culture, as described by Bootzin, Bower, Zajonc and Hall (1986). From this point of view, addressees in conversations serve as facilitators of language development by means of exposing students to cultural elements required to express the universal structure appropriate to the cultural and social requirements of the individual. This biological theory is not accepted by behaviourists who suggest that language acquisition is a verbal behaviour which is an example of operant conditioning, as advocated by Skinner (1957). Behaviourists argue that individuals are reinforced by their own speech which matches the reinforcement of providers of affection during childhood. Further, grammatically correct constructions get desired results so the individual tends to repeat them. A point to note here is that the theories rely on exposure to appropriate samples of the language. The same is true when acquiring a second language.

Although switching languages during a conversation may be disruptive to the listener when the speaker switches due to an inability to express her/himself, it does provide an opportunity for language development. As may be derived from discussion above, language development takes place through samples of language which are appropriate and code switching may be signalling the need for provision of appropriate samples. The listener, in this case, is able to provide translation into the second language thus providing a learning and developing activity. This, in turn, will allow for a reduced amount of switching and less subsequent interference as time progresses. These principles may also be applied in the second language classroom.

Cook (1991) asserts that code switching may be integrated into the activities used for the teaching of a second language.

Code switching may be viewed as an extension to language for bilingual speakers rather than an interference and from other perspectives it may be viewed as interference, depending on the situation and context in which it occurs. This conclusion is drawn from the notions that switching occurs when a speaker: needs to compensate for some difficulty, express solidarity, convey an attitude or show social respect (Crystal, 1987; Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartorowicz, 1997). The switching also occurs within postulated universal constraints such that it may be integrated into conversations in a particular manner (Poplack, 1980; Cook, 1991). On this basis, given that it occurs within a particular pattern, potential for code switching to interfere into a language exists. It has also been outlined above that code switching may facilitate language development as a mechanism for providing language samples and may also be utilised as a teaching method for teaching second languages (Cook, 1989; 1991). Again, scope for code switching to cause interference in a language exists if it is not utilised carefully as a teaching method. It may be concluded then, that when code switching is to compensate for a language difficulty it may be viewed as interference and when it is used as a socio-linguistic tool it should not.

Writing in ESL Classroom

According to Thirumalai (2002), writing is an individual effort. Individuals compose their thoughts often in privacy and then reduce their thoughts to writing, using the strict conventions followed in the language. Writing is an individual effort or work, but it must follow the rules laid down. The development of writing even in native English speaking children is conscious and is thus non-spontaneous. The acquisition of writing is a step further and the learner must now transfer the symbolization he/she acquired in the process of speech acquisition to written language. In writing, the discrete nature of linguistic signs should be appreciated consciously. The learner must recognize the sound structure of each word, dissect it and reproduce it in alphabetical symbols, which he must have studied and memorized before. This same deliberate preparedness is needed to put words in a certain sequence to form a sentence (Vygotsky 1962; Thirumalai 1977).

Thirumalai (2002) asserts that teaching writing to native speakers of English has always been a major concern of education. More often than not, most students, both native speakers and second language learners of English, feel inadequate in the face of the writing task. Modern world demands some efficiency in writing skills.

“Writing is more an individual effort than speaking, while at the same time more rule-bound and therefore more error-prone. . . The speaker does not have to pronounce each word exactly according to one standard of pronunciation or one model of structure, while the writer is expected to produce according to one model of spelling, and usually a

reduced range of structures, with 100 percent accuracy” (Bowen et al. 1985:252). Everyone will agree with Bowen et al (1985:253) when they declare that “writing is more rule-bound than speaking. Considering the control of the orthographic system, the careful organization, and the linguistic conservatism required, writing is the most demanding of the language skills.”

Thirumalai (2002) asserts that the writing classes have the potential to help consolidate and improve the students’ speaking and reading skills. However, it is important for teachers to remember that writing is an important skill which can be taught as an end in itself, although none of the language skills is far removed from the other language skills. Focusing on writing as an independent skill helps teachers to identify the specific problems faced by the learners, and to identify the specific needs of the learners relating to writing. Mechanics of writing are distinct from the mechanics of other skills such as speaking and reading. While reading involves seeing and pronouncing, writing involves association of sounds with mental composition of thoughts and their orderly presentation, and hand movements.

Raimes classifies approaches to teaching writing into five types: controlled to free, free writing, paragraph pattern, grammar-syntax-organization, communicative, and process approaches. In the controlled to free approach, “students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically by, for instance, changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular. They might also change words or clauses or combine sentences” (Raimes 1983:6).

In the free writing approach, students are asked to “write freely on any topic without worrying about grammar and spelling for five or ten minutes. . . . The teachers do not correct these short pieces of free writing; they simply read them and perhaps comment on the ideas the writer expressed” (Raimes 1983:7). In the paragraph pattern approach, “students copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences” (Raimes 1983:8). In the communicative approach to writing, students are asked to assume the role of a writer who is writing for an audience to read. Whatever is written by a student is modified in some way by other students for better communicative effect. In the process approach to writing, students “move away from a concentration on the written product to an emphasis on the process of writing” (Raimes 1983:10). They ask ‘not only questions about purpose and audience, but also the crucial questions: How do I write this? How do I get started?’ (Raimes 1983:10).

Conclusion

An understanding of second language acquisition can improve the ability of mainstream teachers to serve the culturally and linguistically diverse students in their classrooms (Fillmore & Snow, 2002). While significant professional development is necessary to gain a full understanding of second language acquisition theory, some key concepts can be quickly understood and applied in the classroom. Understanding these theories can help teachers develop appropriate instructional strategies and assessments that guide

students along a continuum of language development. A basic knowledge of language acquisition theories is extremely useful for mainstream classroom teachers and directly influences their ability to provide appropriate content-area instruction to ELL students. It is especially important in those schools or districts where limited resources result in little or no instructional support in a student's native language. In these "sink-or-swim" situations, a committed mainstream teacher with a clear understanding of language acquisition can make all the difference.

The next chapter represents the methodology of the topic under investigation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This section describes the sampling procedure, instruments, data collection and analysis procedures to fulfil the objectives of this research. The main objective of this study is to study the grammatical influence of mother tongue, in this case Tamil, in the writing of L2 and whether the influence (if any) is a ‘negative transfer’ or a ‘positive transfer’. The study further seeks to identify the implications of the influence and interference of Tamil in the teaching and learning of the English language in Tamil schools.

Brown (1994) and Ellis (1995) elaborated on how to identify and analyze learners’ errors. Ellis (1997) and Hubbard et al. (1996) gave practical advice and provided clear examples of how to identify and analyze learners’ errors. The initial step requires the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. The errors are then classified. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, provides a plausible explanation of different types of errors. S. Pit Corder’s article “A Role for the Mother Tongue” can help the teacher recognize language transfer in the classroom as natural and even necessary. Corder (1992) argues that with the original model of language transfer whereby the mother tongue interferes or inhibits the learner from grasping rules of the new language. Learning a language, Corder contends, is not like memorizing a list of structures. “This notion”, he says, “is reinforced by the nature of the structural syllabus upon which our teaching programmes have been for so

long based” (pp 21-22). Corder’s article is more than ten years old, but his comments are still applicable today. The process of learning a language is more complex than accumulating drills. Grammar rules in L1 cannot be transferred directly to the grammar of L2. People do not always learn languages progressively. Consider the difference between a second language learner who learns from textbook (linearly) and the second language learner who lives amongst speakers of the second language. As common knowledge (and language students) testifies, the latter group learns the language more rapidly and more idiomatically.

Research Design

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a generic term for investigative methodologies described as ethnographic, naturalistic, anthropological, field, or participant observer research. It emphasizes the importance of looking at variables in the natural setting in which they are found. Interaction between variables is important. Detailed data is gathered through open ended questions that provide direct quotations. The interviewer is an integral part of the investigation (Jacob, 1988). This differs from quantitative research which attempts to gather data by objective methods to provide information about relations, comparisons, and predictions and attempts to remove the investigator from the investigation (Smith, 1983). Qualitative research seeks out the ‘why’, not the ‘how’ of its topic through the analysis of unstructured information – things like interview transcripts and recordings,

emails, notes, feedback forms, photos and videos. It doesn't just rely on statistics or numbers, which are the domain of quantitative researchers.

When conducting qualitative research, the investigator seeks to gain a total or complete picture. According to Stainback and Stainback (1988), a holistic description of events, procedures, and philosophies occurring in natural settings is often needed to make accurate situational decisions. This differs from quantitative research in which selected, pre-defined variables are studied.

Corroboration

The purpose of corroboration is not to confirm whether people's perceptions are accurate or true reflections of a situation but rather to ensure that the research findings accurately reflect people's perceptions, whatever they may be. The purpose of corroboration is to help researchers increase their understanding of the probability that their findings will be seen as credible or worthy of consideration by others (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

Triangulation

One process involved in corroboration is triangulation. Denzin (1978) has identified several types of triangulation. One type involves the convergence of multiple data sources. Another type is methodological triangulation, which involves the convergence of data from multiple data collection sources. A third triangulation

procedure is investigator triangulation, in which multiple researchers are involved in an investigation. Related to investigator triangulation is researcher-participant corroboration, which has also been referred to as cross-examination.

Other procedures can be used to improve understanding and/or the credibility of a study. These include research or inquiry audit, peer debriefing, and the seeking of negative cases in the field that might disconfirm interpretations.

Quantitative Research

According to Ann L Casebeer and Marja J Verhoef (1997), quantitative research is defined as "the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect," and qualitative research is described as "the non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations, for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships." Reviewing these definitions of what is meant by quantitative versus qualitative research helps identify the reasons for the primarily separate use of each method and the continuing debate among researchers concerning the relative value of each approach. The arguments can be complicated and often are philosophical; however, they essentially make the following kinds of distinctions.

The word qualitative implies an emphasis on processes and meanings that are not rigorously examined or measured (if measured at all), in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency. Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of

reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry ... In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Inquiry is purported to be within a value-free framework.

While it may be somewhat naive to delineate the differences between qualitative and quantitative research so definitively, it is helpful to begin to understand the nature of the debate by understanding commonly held divisions and basic definitions. The basic constructs for viewing what "scientific" research is too often divide researchers in the health field, where the clinical trial remains the gold standard against which all other research is bench-marked. Unfortunately, these definitions tend to establish two separate and contrary schools of research, emphasizing the arguments commonly engaged in to justify the use of one or the other technique, rather than simply stating the varying positions and perspectives contained within qualitative and quantitative research paradigms.

On the other hand quantitative and qualitative research methods are most often associated with deductive and inductive approaches, respectively. Deductive research begins with known theory and tests it, usually by attempting to provide evidence for or against a pre-specified hypothesis. Inductive research begins by making observations, usually in order to develop a new hypothesis or contribute to new theory. Quantitative research is usually linked to the notion of science as objective truth or fact, whereas qualitative research is more often identified with the view that science is lived experience

and therefore subjectively determined. Quantitative research usually begins with pre-specified objectives focused on testing preconceived outcomes. Qualitative research usually begins with open-ended observation and analysis, most often looking for patterns and processes that explain "how and why" questions.

This study will follow a mixture of qualitative and quantitative survey research design, the purpose of which is to find out the influence of mother tongue linguistic items in the writing of English (L2), among the standard 5 students of a selected school. It further seeks to uncover the types of 'transfer' that takes place in the process of writing, whether negative or positive.

Instruments

The instruments utilized in this research are questionnaires with the sample, analysis of pupils' writings from exercise books and workbooks. Data were also collected from interview questions from teachers of L1 & L2 and the sample.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires are used for a number of reasons, not all obvious, for using questionnaires, and a number of different bodies that might want to use them. Questionnaires might be used to obtain information and views, or to attempt to justify/quantify impressions. Reasons for wanting such information include:

- statistical information, perhaps to meet an external requirement, or to inform e.g. admissions policy

- research - finding out what students think or do, possibly for academic publication, but not intending change at present
- feedback - to help you change the way you do things
- information to help you argue for change in your department or elsewhere

A further kind of purpose is to aim to change the students' perceptions by

- making the teacher more approachable
- making the student more aware and critical of the teaching/learning process

An experienced interviewer knows how to begin and conduct an interview to obtain the information desired. A questionnaire is also a form of interview, and therefore the perception of the student when answering the questions may be significant in determining their responses, and may also influence their attitude to future surveys.

However, if the first few questions asked address the student's own input and attitude (e.g. what proportion of classes did you attend?, how many hours per week ...?, how much did you use textbooks?, etc.) then, apart from the information you gain, which may be correlated with their other responses (e.g. how difficult?, how interesting?), you may influence their attitude in commenting on your presentation or on the content of the course. The widely-used standard questionnaire form QQQ0102 uses this approach.

It is possible that the regular use of questionnaires also has a significant effect on the respondents' attitudes and perception in other contexts, such as in lectures and

tutorials. Apart from the influence on questionnaire responses themselves (see previous paragraph), we could be unwittingly reinforcing the belief that 'if we were perfect teachers, they'd be perfect learners'. If we wish to avoid this possibility, then how we present questionnaires, as well as the type and order of questions asked, may need to be considered.

Assessment may be worth considering. A slight change of wording can make an exam question (answered under pressure) very much more difficult or easier. A *change* in assessment pattern can cause havoc - expectations on both sides must be clear. Coursework assignments may cause confusion, partly because they are used for several purposes: to encourage regular work, to help students pass exams, to assess skills or material not covered in exams. The organizational skills required of students to manage several overlapping assignments, and to balance them against lectures, tutorial examples, etc. may in some cases detract from the intellectual effort they should devote to their course.

Questions may be specific or general, aimed at obtaining information or feedback as described above. However, they may also be used to orient the respondent to the next question, or to the whole remainder. Using two questions that are likely to be closely correlated (e.g. 'Pace of lectures' and 'Difficulty' or 'Amount of material') *may* be a waste of a question. However, it is also possible that asking several overlapping questions may encourage the student to think harder about the issue, so that the second answer is more

reliable than it would have been. Some psychometric questionnaires ask many questions, but ignore some responses in forming their final assessment, presumably for this reason.

Clearly a good question is unambiguous and easy to interpret (unless, conceivably, it is designed to make the student think - see previous paragraph). (For example, a researcher should not ask a question like: 'Did the course emphasise thought and discussion, or recall of facts? Yes /No'). There are also questions that the student finds rather difficult to answer accurately (e.g. 'how many hours per week do you spend on this module?', which may be very variable, and will certainly be unrecorded!).

A good question is also one that elicits a *range* of responses. Two or three (realistic) options may be appropriate, but four, five or six will usually produce a more interesting result, especially as many students avoid the extremes. It's best to label the extreme responses in a 'mild' way for this reason. Use 'poor' rather than 'bad' and 'very good' rather than 'excellent'. Open-ended questions (which can be added to the back of Formats 1 and 2, etc.) can be very illuminating, but may be best asked after some set-response questions which firstly deal with predictable, routine comments, and secondly may clarify for the student what they wish to say. In order to reduce the time and effort for the student, and produce some constructive feedback, questions like 'Suggest *one* feature of this module that could be improved', and 'Which topic did you find most difficult?' can be useful.

The questionnaire for this research (refer to Appendix C) contains a list of questions in Tamil (L1) pertaining to the selected students' perception in the writing of English. The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify the kind of cognition that takes place in the students' thinking before they start writing. This questionnaire contains 3 questions in Tamil and all the questions were explained by the researcher to the students. This was to ensure that any limitation of their reading ability did not mask the answers. Students were asked to write the answers in Tamil in order to obtain good and genuine responses. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher and the class teacher. This questionnaire was the first to be given to the students, followed by the worksheets the following week. The students were given approximately 30 minutes to answer all the questions. The class teacher and the researcher went around the classroom, assisting students who had problems in answering the questions in the questionnaire.

Interviews

Frankel and Norman, (1996) believe that “Interviewing is an important way for a researcher to check the accuracy of-to verify or refute- the impressions he or she has gained through observation. Fetterman, in fact, describes interviewing as the most important data collection technique a qualitative researcher possesses. We interview people to find out from them things that we cannot directly observe.”

The present researcher conducted three semi-structured interviews with selected subjects to identify the development of fluency in learners, and how learners improve access to their linguistic system with time and practice. The respective school teachers of L1 and L2 were also interviewed to identify the kinds of grammatical errors that the students

make in their daily writing. The interview also aimed to find out the influence of the learners' L1 on their written English.

Interview 1

This interview was conducted with one L2 teacher of the sample. This interview was conducted to collect more data about the background of teaching and learning English in a Tamil school. The researcher also wanted to obtain more info pertaining to methods of teaching L2 in this school.

Interview 2

This interview was conducted with 5 selected students of the school to identify the problems that they face in the learning of English language.

Interview 3

The interview was conducted with one L1 teacher. The purpose of the interview was to identify the kind of problems the students face in the writing of L1. The interview also provided valuable insights pertaining to the students' social and cultural background.

Analysis of Sample's Exercise Books

The researcher read and analyzed the written exercises of the samples to identify the errors made by the samples in their daily writing activities. The source of the written work will be from the students' classroom exercise book, workbooks and worksheets given by their L1 teacher. The results of the errors made were tabulated and categorized according to linguistic items. The sample's exercise books and worksheets used in the classroom are sure to provide valuable information (provided the written work

was not directly copied from the teacher's notes) pertaining to students' L1 interference in the L2 writing. Therefore, the researcher only analyzed written materials that were done by the students without the L2 teacher's help or guide. The written materials were thoroughly analyzed in order to obtain the required valuable information. The tabulated linguistic items were later compared and corroborated to substantiate the theoretical arguments in the field of language transfer.

Sample

The sample for this study comprises 96 Year 5 students from one selected Tamil school Klang Valley, Sekolah Rendah Kebangsaan Tamil Serdang, hereafter known as SRK(T) Serdang. The school is strategically located in the campus of Universiti Putra, Malaysia. The total population of the school is 800 with 50 teaching staff and 5 non academic staff. Most of the students of the school are children of local residents who are mainly from the average income group and a small number from above average group. The school has two sessions, namely morning session and afternoon session. Four students from the selected 100 students did not have any exercise books with them and therefore the researcher failed to get any analysis. 52.1% of the samples are male and 47.9% are females, (refer to Table 1). The majority of the samples are eleven year olds and most of them are of Tamil speaking parents. The class Mutiara has the highest number of students (41 students), 42.7%, followed by Intan (36 students), 37.5% and Rubi (19 students)19.8% This is due to the fact that Rubi is weakest class in terms of academic

achievements (refer to Table 2). They are streamed into three classes according to their competency in science and mathematics in previous year examinations.

Table 1: Distribution of Students According to Gender

		Number	Percent
Valid	Male	50	52.1
	Female	46	47.9
	Total	96	100.0

Table 2: Distribution of Students According to Classes

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Intan	36	37.5
	Mutiara	41	42.7
	Rubi	19	19.8
	Total	96	100.0

Though they use Bahasa Malaysia and English interchangeably every now and then, Tamil, being the mother tongue dominates their daily communication, both at home and at school. Most of the sample have high proficiency in their mother tongue.

Data Collection

The researcher spent a total of fourteen days (five hours each day) in SRK(T) Serdang to collect all data required for this research. The sample's writings were carefully and thoroughly analyzed to detect the errors made and were tabulated accordingly to form a

corpus (please refer to Appendix XY). The researcher collected (with the L2 teacher's Language in India www.languageinindia.com 108

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permission) read all the English exercise books and worksheets and underlined the transfers (positive/negative) and tabulated them according to their linguistic categories.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is a process of gathering, modeling, and transforming data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making.

Brenda Power (1996), Susan and William Stainback (1988) and Marion MacLean and Marian Mohr (1999) recommend several ways teacher researchers can analyze the data that they have collected. They should:

1. Triangulate. Study the research question from at least three separate pieces of data and three points of view. For example, those three pieces of data might be the teacher researcher's observations in the research log, recorded comments by a student or students (such as the tape recorded comments or quotes the teacher researcher has noted in the research log) and examples of student work. Does the research question still fit the data that is emerging from the study?

2. Compare constantly. Look through the data and keep comparing the data that was collected earlier in the study with data collected later in the study. Use different bases for comparison. For example, if the teacher researcher has compared what the students did in October with what they did in January, the teacher researcher may try comparing the students' written work with their oral work.

3. Categorize and sort. Set up charts, columns, outlines, and ways of counting occurrences. The teacher researcher can make up different categories that fits the teaching situation(s) or use categories developed by another researcher. Watch for ways that the data develops into categories different from other researchers and explore those differences. Coding your findings will help categorize the data.
4. Order. Decide on a way to order the data findings such as data chronologically, by importance and by frequency (how often an occurrence occurs, for example).
5. Contrast. Look for what doesn't fit the assumptions or theories of other researchers and note what sticks out, goes against the grain.
6. Speculate. Try out different hunches about what the data means. Make an educated guess and then see if it's supported by the data. Don't stick rigidly to an assumption or hypothesis that was originally held.
7. Restate the question. Rewrite the question many times, changing it when necessary to fit what's important from the data that has been collected. What is it that the teacher researcher really wants to figure out? Sometimes the teacher researcher will want to make the question more global, sometimes the question may become more tightly focused.
8. Visualize. Create a visual representation for what you have collected. Map out your data; draw it all on one page. Sketch the metaphors that come to mind when thinking of the data and what it all means. Use colors and shapes to separate ideas. Use diagrams,

sketches of things, people, happenings to show different ideas and groupings. Inspiration software can help map your data by making connections through webs.

9. Abstract and distill. State the essence of your findings as if you had to explain them in 50 words or less. What matters most in this data? Write the findings as an abstract such as one that would be part of conference program.

10. Talk and validate. Talk with others about your research. Explain the data interpretations to others; see if they can see the same things. Consider their different interpretations and use them to clarify, broaden and otherwise validate the findings.

11. Confer with students. Ask your students what they think about what you are observing and writing about in your log. They may offer new ideas about their learning or validate what you are finding. Students may become co-researchers, but be careful of compromising confidentiality.

12. Take a break. Sometimes it helps to step back from the research process in order to clear your mind and give yourself a rest. Coming back to the process with a refreshed outlook will often lead to new understandings and perspectives.

13. State your theories. You build your ideas about teaching as you try out new strategies. Theories come from and are grounded in practice. Your research group should help you look at your data from multiple data sources and help you interpret your findings and draw conclusions and implications for future teaching.

Having administered the instruments for this research, the responses were collected and interpreted. The data from all the writing sources were analyzed using frequency count and percentage based on the errors made and presented accordingly in table form. The data were analyzed using the SPSS analysis method. All the three interviews were transcribed and used to strengthen the data collected. The questionnaire was analyzed and used to understand the thinking that took place in the students' mind before they started to write in L2.

The next chapter deals with the data analysis of the research topic.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The main objective of this study is to examine the types of mother tongue transfer in the writing of L2 among the Year 3 students of a vernacular school. This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected using the three instruments:

- a. Questionnaire
- b. Interviews
- c. Students exercise books, workbooks and worksheets

The data collected were aimed at answering the following research questions:

Research Questions:

1. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L1 to L2?
2. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L2 to L1?
3. Which linguistic items have been transferred positively from L1 to L2 and vice versa?
4. Which linguistic items have been transferred negatively from L1 to L2 and vice versa?

Questionnaire

A questionnaire consisting of 3 questions was administered to 36 randomly selected students involved in this research (please refer to appendix C. This was to assess their perception in the writing of L2 and the kind of cognition that took place in the students' brain before they started writing. Due to the students' inability to understand the needs of the questions the researcher explained the questions orally. This was also done so that the answers did not mask the intended findings.

The answers to the questions clearly showed that the students thought and visualized things in their mother tongue before they started writing in L2. (Refer to Appendix C) For every Tamil word, they then translated to English. This kind of perception and thinking contributed to the syntactical disorder in the L2 writing as there were significance differences between the Tamil language syntactical order and the English language syntactical order as elaborated earlier in the first chapter.

Examples of questions and answers given by the selected students.

1. ஆங்கிலத்தில் எழுதும் முன், நீ உன் மனதில் என்ன நினைப்பாய் ?

(What do you think in your mind, before writing in English?)

நான் தமிழில் நினைத்து பின் ஆங்கிலத்தில் எழுதுவேன்.

(I think in Tamil, then I write in English)

Table 3: Breakdown of answers for Question 1

Answers	No. of Students	Percentage
I think in Tamil and then write in English	30	83.3%
I think in English without thinking in Tamil	6	16.7%

2. ஒவ்வொரு வார்த்தையாக நினைப்பாயா அல்லது ஒரு முழு வாக்கியமாக நினைப்பாயா ?

(Do you think word by word, or as a whole sentence, before writing?)

நான் ஒவ்வொரு சொல்லாக தமிழில் நினைத்து, பிறகு ஆங்கிலத்தில் எழுதுவேன்

(I will think one word by one word in Tamil and then write in English)

Table 4: Breakdown of answers for Question 2

Answers	No. of Students	Percentage
I will think one word by one word in Tamil and then write in English	32	88.8%
I will think as a whole sentence in English and write in English	4	21.2%

3. நீ வேறேதும் மொழியில் சிந்திப்பாயா ?

(Do you think in any other language?)

இல்லை.

(No.)

Table 5: Breakdown of answers for Question 3

Answer	No. of Students	Percentage
Yes	33	91.6%
No	3	8.4%

Therefore, from the questionnaire answers given we can conclude that the learning of L2 in Tamil schools is seriously influenced and affected by the students' mother tongue. By and large, most of the sample gave the same answers. However there are students who come from families whose parents are bilingual and the influence of the mother tongue is minimized. Among the L1 grammatical influences in the writing of L2, the following linguistic items seem to be the strongest.

Analysis of Linguistic Items

Table 6: Overall Statistics of Data Collected

		Punctuation	Missing verb to be	The use of Tamil syntax	Wrong spelling of plural nouns
N	Valid	96	96	96	96
Mean		.96	.76	.28	.09
Std. Deviation		1.968	1.074	.593	.327

Data collected from the students' writing were tabulated and analyzed. It is quite obvious, from the statistics obtained and tabulated that native tongue interference did take place in the writing of these Tamil school students. Many linguistic items were transferred

negatively as evident from the students' written work. From the chart above we can observe that four linguistic items were mainly transferred negatively, namely, (arranged according to the mean obtained).

1. Punctuation.
2. Missing verb to be.
3. The use of Tamil Word Order
4. Wrong Spelling of Plural Nouns

Below is the item by item elaboration of the study.

Table 7: Punctuation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	66	68.8	68.8
	1	7	7.3	76.0
	2	7	7.3	83.3
	3	6	6.3	89.6
	4	6	6.3	95.8
	5	3	3.1	99.0
	14	1	1.0	100.0
Total	96	100.0	100.0	

Missing upper case in the writing of L2 is another clear evidence of mother tongue influence in the writing of L2.

Capital letters or majuscules (in the Roman alphabet *A, B, C, D, . . .*) are also called capitals, or caps. Upper case, upper-case, or uppercase is also often used in this context as synonym of capital. Manual typesetters kept them in the upper drawers of a

desk or in the upper type case, while keeping the more frequently used minuscule letters in the lower type case. This practice might date back to Johannes Gutenberg.

In English, capital letters are used as the first letter of a sentence, a proper noun, or a proper adjective, and for initials or abbreviations. The first person pronoun 'I' and the interjection 'O' are also capitalised. Lower-case letters are normally used for all other purposes. There are however situations where further capitalisation may be used to give added emphasis, for example in headings and titles or to pick out certain words (often using small capitals). There are also a few pairs of words of different meanings whose only difference is capitalization of the first letter. Other languages vary in their use of capitals. For example, in German the first letter of all nouns is capitalised, while in Romance languages the names of days of the week, months of the year, and adjectives of nationality, religion, etc., begin with a lower-case letter.

If an alphabetic system has case, all or nearly all letters have both a majuscule and minuscule form. Both forms in each pair are considered to be the same letter: they have the same name, same pronunciation, and will be treated identically when sorting in alphabetical order. Languages have capitalisation rules to determine whether majuscules or minuscules are to be used in a given context. Capital and small letters are differentiated in the Roman, Greek, and Cyrillic alphabets. Most writing systems (such as those used in Arabic, and Devanagari) make no distinction between capital and lowercase letters (and, of course, logographic writing systems such as Mandarin have no "letters" at all). Indeed, even European languages did not make this distinction before about 1300;

both majuscule and minuscule letters existed, but a given text would use either one or the other.

In letters with a case distinction, capitals are used for:

1. Capitalization,
2. Acronyms,
3. Supposed better legibility, for example on signs and in labeling, and
4. Emphasis (in some languages).

Capital letters were sometimes used for typographical emphasis in text made on a typewriter. However, long spans of Latin-alphabet text in all upper-case are harder to read because of the absence of the ascenders and descenders found in lower-case letters, which can aid recognition. With the advent of modern computer editing technology and the Internet, emphasis is usually indicated by use of a single word Capital, italic, or bold font, similar to what has long been common practice in print. In typesetting, when an acronym or initialism requires a string of upper-case letters, it is frequently set in small capitals, to avoid overemphasizing the word in mostly lower-case running text. In electronic communications, it is often considered very poor "netiquette" to type in all capitals, because it can be harder to read and because it is seen as tantamount to shouting. Indeed, this is the oft-used name for the practice.

Capitalization is the writing of a word with its first letter in uppercase and the remaining letters in lowercase. Capitalization rules vary by language and are often quite

complex, but in most modern languages that have capitalization, the first word of every sentence is capitalized, as are all proper nouns. Some languages, such as German, capitalize the first letter of all nouns; this was previously common in English as well.

The researcher analyzed all the sentences in the students' writing materials and almost half of the sample's books have missing capital letters. They failed to start the sentences with a capital letter. It was as if the capital letter did not exist in the language. (Refer to Appendix 1). The researcher listed the number of errors in this grammatical item and tabulated them. From the SPSS analysis we can observe that 31.1% or 30 students did not use upper case to start the sentences. The 30 students made a total of 92 errors in this grammar component.. Even the word 'I' is written as 'i' by many students. This statistics is also supported by the literature of the Tamil language pattern and transcripts of interviews (Refer to Appendix Z) conducted with L1 and L2 teachers. The L2 teacher too agreed that Tamil is not an easy subject compared to English. All the English sentences written by the students were carefully analyzed and the researcher found that most of the sentences constructed by the students did not begin with a capital letter. Neither did they wrote the first person pronoun, 'I' in capital. Most of the proper nouns too were not capitalized. Their writing (mostly from the poor class) seemed to be as if capitalization did exist in the English language.

Below are some of the examples from the students' books:

1. music radio computer in the English.
2. listen music very long.

3. sitting next music doing.
4. next raman (proper noun) open the door.
5. the children are very happy
6. menu (proper noun) and sonu (proper noun)sang and read to the blind pupils.

The researcher strongly believes that this is a classic example of mother tongue interference in L2 writing. The researcher’s random observation on the writing of other students from different levels also shows that these students tend to miss the capital letters in their writing very frequently.

Table 8: Missing Verb to Be

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	57	59.4	59.4	59.4
	1	15	15.6	15.6	75.0
	2	16	16.7	16.7	91.7
	3	6	6.3	6.3	97.9
	4	2	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	96	100.0	100.0	

The verb ‘To be’ most frequently works in conjunction with another verb: “He is playing the piano,” “She will be arriving this afternoon.” Occasionally, though, the verb will stand by itself, alone, in a sentence. This is especially true in simple, brief answers to questions.

“Who's coming with me?”

“I am”

“Who's responsible for this tragedy?”

“She is.”

In sentences such as these, the subject usually receives the intonation stress and the voice falls off on the verb.

An auxiliary can be combined with the base form of ‘To be’ to provide simple answers to questions that use forms of “to be.”

“Is Rama in class this morning?”

“Well, he might be.”

“Is anyone helping Rama with his homework?”

“I'm not sure. Seetha could be.”

The verb ‘To be’ also acts as a linking verb, joining the sentence subject with a subject complement or adjective complement. A linking verb provides no action to a sentence: the subject complement re-identifies the subject; the adjective complement modifies it (For further information and additional vocabulary in dealing with linking verbs, visit the hyperlinks in this paragraph.).

- Professor Herald is the Director of Online Learning.
- Our trip to Michigan was fantastic!

A form of the verb ‘To be’ is combined with a past participle to form the passive. Passive verb constructions are useful when the subject of an action is not as important as what the subject did (the action of the sentence) or when the subject is unknown. For

instance, the police might report that “The professor was assaulted in the hallways”

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The Influence of First Language Grammar (L1) on the English Language (L2) Writing of Tamil School Students: A Case Study from Malaysia

because they do not know the perpetrator of this heinous crime. In technical writing, where the process is more important than who is doing the activity, we might report that “Three liters of fluid is filtered through porous glass beads.” Regardless of the verb's purpose, only the auxiliary form of ‘To be’ changes; the participle stays the same. The ‘To be’ will change form to indicate whether the subject is singular or plural:

- The foundation is supported by enormous floating caissons that keep it from sinking into the swamp.
- They were constructed by workers half submerged in the murky waters.

Notice how the information about who did the action is frequently found in a prepositional phrase beginning with ‘by.’ Passive constructions do not always include this information:

- Wooden caissons were used until fiberglass structures were developed in the 1950s.
- Caissons were also designed to function under water in the construction of bridges.

The ‘To be’ will also change to indicate the time of the action and the aspect of the verb (simple, progressive, perfect).

- Water is pumped out of the caisson to create an underwater work chamber.
(simple present)

- Some caissons were moved to other construction sites. (simple past)
- While the water was being pumped out, workers would enter the top of the waterproof chamber. (past progressive)
- Many other uses of caisson construction have been explored. (present perfect)
- Caissons had been used by the ancient Romans. (past perfect)
- Other uses will be found. (future)

The 'To be' verb can be combined with other modal forms (along with the past participle of the main verb) to convey other kinds of information. See the section on modals for the various kinds of information conveyed by modals (advisability, predictability, guessing, necessity, possibility, etc.).

- The wall joints may be weakened if the caissons can't be rebuilt.
- Perhaps the caissons should be replaced; I think they ought to be.
- These ancient, sturdy structures might have been rotted by constant exposure to water.

When 'To be' verbs are combined with modal forms in this manner, the construction is called a phrasal modal. Here are some more examples:

- Rosario was able to finish her degree by taking online courses.
- She wasn't supposed to graduate until next year.
- She will be allowed to participate in commencement, though.

- She is about to apply to several graduate programs.
- She is going to attend the state university next fall.

Sometimes it is difficult to say whether a ‘To be’ verb is linking a subject to a participle or if the verb and participle are part of a passive construction. In “Certain behaviors are allowed,” is "are” linking “behaviors” to "allowed" (a participle acting as a predicate adjective) or is “are allowed” a passive verb? In the final analysis, it probably doesn't matter, but the distinction leads to some interesting variations. Consider the difference between

- The jurists were welcomed.
and
- The jurists were welcome.

In the first sentence, the participle “welcomed” (in this passive construction) emphasizes the action of welcoming: the smiles, the hearty greetings, the slaps on the back. In the second sentence, the predicate adjective “welcome” describes the feeling that the jurists must have had upon being so welcomed.

Progressive forms include a form of ‘To be’ plus a present participle (an *-ing* ending). Frodesen and Eyring (1997) categorize progressive verbs according to the following functions:

- to describe actions already in progress at the moment "in focus" within the sentence, as in “I was doing my homework when my brother broke into my

room, crying.” or “I will be graduating from college about the same time that you enter high school.”

- to describe actions at the moment of focus in contrast to habitual actions, as in “We usually buy the most inexpensive car we can find, but this time we're buying a luxury sedan.”
- to express repeated actions, as in “My grandfather is forever retelling the same story about his adventures in Rangoon.”
- to describe temporary situations in contrast to permanent states, as in “Jeffrey goes to the University of Connecticut, but this summer he is taking courses at the community college.”
- to express uncompleted actions, as in “Harvey and Mark are working on their deck.”

The researcher too finds that the missing verb ‘to be’ is another glaring evidence of L1 influence in the writing of L2 in this research. From the chart we can observe that 40.7% or approximately 39 samples’ writing analysis indicated such influence. The 39 sample made a total of 73 errors in this linguistic item. This influence is also supported by the literature and the interviews conducted with teachers and the samples. This clearly shows the existence of L1 grammatical influence in the writing of L2. This is because the Tamil language does not have a copula (a linking verb equivalent to the word *is/are*). The examples below clearly contrast the differences between the two languages in terms of the use of verb ‘to be’. (Refer to Appendix 2)

“This is my bag.” (English) is written as “This my bag.”

(இது என் பை.)

“I am a boy.” (English) is written as “I a boy.”

(நான் ஒரு பையன்.)

“He is sleeping.” (English) is written as “He sleeping.”

அவன் உறங்கினான்.

Ramu is doing his English homework in the computer (English) is written as

“Ramu doing the English homework a computer.”

இராமு அவன் ஆங்கில வீட்டு பாடத்தை கணினியில் செய்துக்கொண்டுயிருக்கிறான்..

The elaboration and examples above clearly support and answer the first research question, that components such as: failure to use proper punctuation to start a sentence, syntactical structure similar to L1 and wrong use of verb to be’ all from L1, dominate the writing of L2 of the Tamil school students. This is a clear evidence for the occurrence of negative transfer in the writings of Tamil school students.

Table 9: The Use of Tamil Word Order

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0	75	78.1	78.1	78.1
1	16	16.7	16.7	94.8
2	4	4.2	4.2	99.0
3	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	96	100.0	100.0	

In linguistics, syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing sentences in natural languages. In addition to referring to the discipline, the term *syntax* is also used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language, as in ‘the syntax of Modern Irish’. Modern research in syntax attempts to describe languages in terms of such rules. Many professionals in this discipline attempt to find general rules that apply to all natural languages. The term *syntax* is also sometimes used to refer to the rules governing the behavior of mathematical systems, such as logic, artificial formal languages, and computer programming languages.

There are a number of theoretical approaches to the discipline of syntax. Many linguists (e.g. Noam Chomsky) see syntax as a branch of biology, since they conceive of syntax as the study of linguistic knowledge as embodied in the human mind. Others (e.g. Gerald Gazdar) take a more Platonistic view, since they regard syntax to be the study of an abstract formal system. Syntax is the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence. It concerns both word order and agreement in the relationship between words. Syntax is primarily concerned with structure of sentences.

Examples

The following statements follow normal English word order:

- The cat sat on the mat.
- My old brown leather suitcase.

The following statements do not follow normal English word order:

- The cat on the mat sat.
- My brown leather old suitcase.

Word order is very important in English. Changes to conventional syntax are often used to create dramatic, poetic, or comic effect. A normal sentence in English usually contains at least three elements: subject, verb, and object.

Subject	Verb	Object
The cat	ate	the goldfish
John	likes	Football
Mary	chose	the wallpaper

Every language has rules of syntax, and to the linguist the essential rules are descriptive. They are the rules which underpin the life of the language and which are extremely slow to change. These are not to be confused with the prescriptive 'rules' of traditional grammar [For instance, 'Never end a sentence with a preposition'].

An example of a descriptive rule of English syntax is that in the imperative in English, the verb takes the initial position in the sentence, usually directly before the noun which is the object.

- Put those books on the table.
- Take the lid off after half an hour.
- Remove all packaging before heating the soup.
- Isolate the switch in case of fault.

It is important to make a distinction between grammar and syntax, and to realize that syntax is a component of grammar. The term 'grammar' refers to the whole structure

of the language including the naming of its parts, its rules of tense, and its sound system. It is a comprehensive term. Syntax only refers to the relationship between the grammatical components of language in use. In other words it is the nature, quality or type of relationship between terms in any given statement which is the province of syntax. The construction of the passive voice is a syntactic issue, as it involves word order. The following statement is in the passive voice:

- A woman was run over in central London today by a vehicle traveling at high speed.

If we transfer this to the active voice, we have:

- A vehicle traveling at high speed ran over a woman in central London today.

The semantic content is similar in the two statements, but the emphasis is changed according to whether it is expressed as active or passive. The difference between the two versions is dependent on the positioning of the subject and the object in the sentence. In the passive version, the object takes the initial position. This is a syntactic principle. The use of wrong syntactical order was also quite obvious in the analysis of the samples' writing. It has been stated in the Literature of this study that the Tamil language and the English language have different syntactical order. From the data collected we can observe that 21.9% or approximately 21 subjects have used the syntactical structure of the Tamil language in their L2 writing. The 21 students made a total of 27 errors in this linguistic

item. Some of the examples picked from the sample's writings are as follows: (Refer to Appendix 3)

"John kicks the ball."(English) is written as *"John the ball kicks."* (ஜான் பந்தை உதைத்தான்.) in Tamil. This type of error is quite glaring in the writing samples. (Refer to Appendix 3) *"Where is my book?"* is written as, *"My book where?"*(என் புத்தகம் எங்கே?) (as in the Tamil language structure)

More examples from the sample's writings.

அவள் வானொலி கேட்டாள்.

She radio listen.

இராமு, கணிதம் மற்றும் ஆங்கிலம் பாடம் செய்துக்கொண்டுயிருக்கிறான்.

R amu is mathematics and English lesson doing.

குமார் கணினியில் பாடம் செய்துக்கொண்டுயிருக்கிறான்.

Kumar in computer lesson doing.

This is also strongly supported by the word order of the L1 (Tamil), whereby Tamil is a consistently head-final language. The verb comes at the end of the clause, with typical word order Subject Object Verb (SOV). However, Tamil also exhibits extensive scrambling (word order variation), so that, surface permutations of the SOV order are possible with different pragmatic effects.

Tamil is a null subject language. Not all Tamil sentences have subject, verb and object. It is possible to construct valid sentences that have only a verb—such as mudhiintuvittatu

(முடிந்துவிட்டது) ("completed")—or only a subject and object, without a verb, primary or auxiliary such as *atu en vīdu* (அது என் வீடு) ("That, my house"). Tamil does not have a copula (equivalent to the word *is*).

Students who answered the interview questions have clearly said that they do direct translation from Tamil to English without looking at the sentence as ‘whole’ in English. This ‘practice’ is supported by the questionnaire answered by the selected students, (refer to Appendix W) This statement is further strengthened in the interview with the students (refer to Appendix Y),

Therefore, we do understand the reason for the failure of the use of proper verb-to-be in their writing of L2

Table 10: Wrong Spelling of Plural Nouns

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0	88	91.7	91.7	91.7
1	7	7.3	7.3	99.0
2	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	96	100.0	100.0	

Forming the plural in English is very easy. Add '-s' to any singular word Example: *apple - apples* and you have made the plural! Some words are formed differently:

- Words ending in '-y'. Add '-ies' if '-y' is followed by a consonant

Example: *candy - candies, jelly - jellies*

- Words ending in '-ch'. Add '-es'

Example: *watch - watches, peach - peaches*

- Words ending in '-s'. Add '-es'

Example: *grass - grasses, glass - glasses*

Some important exceptions to the plural rule include:

- man - men
- woman - women
- person - people
- child - children

Spelling Rules for Adding the Plural S to Singular Nouns

- The general plurals rule: Usually add the letter *s* to the end of a singular noun to make it plural.

I'll take this book; you can use those books over there.

We have one bedroom on the first floor and three more bedrooms on the second.

- In compound nouns, add *s* only to the main noun.

This family uses one air- conditioner and one washing machine . Their neighbors use three air- conditioners and two washing machines .

I have one son-in-law; my friend Frieda has three sons-in-law.

- Add *es* to a noun ending with a whistling sound (*s,sh,ch,x,z*) to make it plural.

- one bus – three buses, a church – many churches, a box – boxes, a buzz – buzzes

- If the singular noun ends with a consonant + *y*, drop the *y*, replace with an *i* and add *es*.

- Don't drop the *y*, if the *y* is preceded by a vowel.

- Yes: one city – two cities, a baby – babies, a country – countries

- No: a toy – toys, a day – days

Note: If the noun ending with a y represents a person or a country, add only *s* in any case.
John F. Kennedy was the most famous of the Kennedys. In 1963, he didn't visit the two Germanys after giving his speech in West-Berlin.

• If the singular noun ends with a consonant + *o*, add *es*. If the *o* is preceded by a vowel, only add *s* to make the plural form.

Yes: a potato – five potatoes, a hero – heroes, an echo – echoes

No: a radio – radios, a studio – studios, a kangaroo – kangaroos

Irregular Noun Plurals

1. Singular Nouns Ending with f/fe

• Some nouns ending with *f*, *fe*, drop this ending and add *ves* to make the plural form.

There may be alternative spelling.

- Yes : a knife – knives, one half – two halves, my life – their lives, a wolf – wolves.

- No : one roof – roofs, a cliff – many cliffs, a safe – safes

- Both : a dwarf – the seven dwarfs/ dwarves, one wharf – a few wharfs/ wharves

2. Unique Old English Plural Nouns

• These nouns have unique plural forms that survived from Old English. Learn them well according to the following groups, as they are in common use.

a man – men a woman – women (Plural pronounced /wimen/) a person -- people	a foot – feet a goose – geese a tooth – teeth
a child – children an ox – oxen (castrated bulls) a brother – brethren (in church orders), brothers (in a family)	a mouse – mice a louse – lice a die – dice (for playing games)

3. One Form for Singular & Plural

- Many nouns have identical forms for both singular and plural.
 - a sheep – sheep, a deer – deer, a moose – moose
 - a fish – fish (fishes, if used for different species of fish)
 - a dozen – two dozen roses, a hundred – several hundred men
(but: dozens of roses, hundreds of people)

Special Singular - Plural Cases

1. Plural-Only Nouns

- Some nouns only have a plural form, ending with *s* or without.
 - The police are looking for the robbers.
 - I like these pants / jeans / shorts.
 - Use either scissors or nail clippers.
 - Binoculars are stronger than any glasses.
- Other nouns ending with *s* only have a plural form only with certain meanings.
 - customs (at the airport, not practices), guts (courage, not intestines)
 - quarters (lodgings, not 1/4s), clothes (garments, not fabrics)
 - goods (merchandise, not the opposite of bad), arms (weapons, not limb)

2. Singular Nouns with an S Ending

- Some nouns end with *s* but are usually singular. They take a singular verb with an *s* ending in the Present Simple.
 - diseases: measles, rabies.
 - fields of study and occupation: economics, ethics, linguistics, politics, physics, gymnastics.
 - games: dominoes, darts, cards

- I study mathematics, which is very difficult. Dominoes is my favorite pastime.
 - Some nouns have an identical form for singular and plural that both end with s.
- barracks, means, headquarters, crossroads,
- a TV series – many TV series,
 - Money is a means to an end.
 - Newspapers and TV are means of mass-communication.
 - There is one species of humans but many species of cats.

According to Bhadriraju. K (2001), there are only two grammatical numbers in Tamil- singular and plural. An entity which is one in number is singular, and those which are more than one are plural. The singular items are unmarked in the sense that they are taken to be the basic forms from which the plural forms are derived. Plural forms of nouns are derived by suffixation process in which plural suffixes are added to various stems which are semantically and formally singular in number.

The plural suffix ‘kal’ – ‘**கள்**’, is added to a noun to form the plural word.

Examples of Tamil singular nouns derived to plural nouns:

பிள்ளை - பிள்ளை கள் -----	child - children
முட்டை - முட்டை கள் -----	egg - eggs
கை - கை கள் -----	hand - hands
பூ - பூ க்கள் -----	flower - flowers
புத்தகம் - புத்தக ங்கள் -----	book - books
ஆசிரியர் - ஆசிரியர் கள் -----	teacher - teachers

பழம் - பழங்கள்	-----	fruit - fruits
வீடு- வீடுக்கள்	-----	house - houses
ஆண் - ஆண்கள்	-----	man - men
பெண் - பெண்கள்	-----	woman - women
மரம் - மரங்கள்	-----	tree - trees
மேசை - மேசைகள்	-----	table - tables
யானை - யானைகள்	-----	elephant - elephants

The underlying morphological structure for a Tamil noun is as follows:

Noun stem Or + [plural suffix] + [the euphonic suffix] + [the case suffix]

Oblique stem

While generating the noun derivatives from the roots, linguistic rules determining the form of a plural suffix has to be considered. The attachment of case suffixes to nouns is an important part of the morphological generator for nouns. In addition, this has to take into consideration the fact that certain nouns can take case suffixes only in oblique form. The euphonic suffix sometimes comes along with oblique suffixes or with plural suffixes. This has also to be considered. During the combination of the root noun with the above mentioned suffixes, "sandhi rules" have to be taken in to account. Some nouns in Tamil take case only when it is converted to an oblique stem form. Oblique is a meaningless word stem which can come between two morphemes. An example of the rule for this conversion are root "maram" when converted to oblique becomes "marattu". Noun stems ending with "-m" when converted to oblique would have "m' replaced be "ththu".

Similarly root "vidu" when converted to oblique becomes "vitt". Hence separate rules to check endings of noun and converting them to oblique form if necessary is an important part of the morphological generator of nouns.

Many students in this research wrote the plural forms of English nouns that require special spelling change by just adding –‘s’ to the root word as they were under the impression that all plural nouns must end with-‘s’ as in the Tamil language whereby the plural nouns end with the suffix- ‘கள்’. A total of 8 students or 8.3% of them made a total of 8 errors in this linguistic item. This was a clear example of mother tongue influence in their writing (Refer to Appendix 4). Some of the examples in the students writing:

e.g.

Child- **childs**

The **childs** are playing in the field.

Man-**mans**

The **mans** are going to work.

Woman-**womans**

There are many **womans** teacher in my school.

Tooth – **tooths** (was written as the plural for teeth)

Apart from the grammatical influences mentioned above, the researcher also identified other L2 linguistic items that influenced the students L1 writing.

Doubling of Letters- Missing in L2

Doubling of consonants in the English language takes place for a myriad of reasons. Some of the reasons are as stated below:

Words that end in a single vowel plus a single consonant usually double the final consonant before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel: stop can become stopped, stopping, stopper, and unstoppable. Thus snip becomes sniper, but snipe becomes sniper. Most words that end in two consonants do not ordinarily double the final consonant before a suffix: print becomes printed, printing, and printer. If the suffix begins with a consonant instead of a vowel, the final consonant of the base word stays single: ship becomes shipment and clap becomes claptrap. Words of two and more syllables that are stressed on the final syllable normally double the final consonant before adding a suffix: infer becomes inferred and inferring.

But two-syllable words stressed on the final syllable do not double the final consonant when the suffix begins with a consonant: regret becomes regretting but regretful. And words stressed on the final syllable but ending with two consonants or with a vowel do not double the consonant: predict becomes predicting and predicted; reduce becomes reducer and reduced. Words that end in -c usually add a k before the suffix: panic becomes panicking; picnic, picnicked. In words of more than one syllable ending in a consonant, especially -l, the British generally (but not always) double the

final consonant, and Americans generally do not, although American dictionaries frequently report divided usage. But these genre of rulings are never used in the writing of the Tamil language.

In this research, approximately 10 students or 10.3% missed the doubling of consonants in their writing. Doubling of consonants in the English language is quite common in writing. But this is a complete contrast to the writing of Tamil language. There are hardly many words in the Tamil language whereby the letters in the alphabet are repeated except for a few words like, மமதை (mamathai)- arrogance, and கட்டடம் (kattedam)- building. Therefore when Tamil school students engage themselves in the writing of L2, they tend to miss or omit the repetition of letters in words like swimming and running. The analysis of the exercise books revealed that they write the above words as, 'swiming' and 'runing'

This is due to the fact that they assume that (in the flow of writing or copying from a text) the same letter will never be doubled in a word. The analysis of the exercise books clearly revealed that although the L2 teacher had given the correct spelling on the blackboard, students still end up copying minus the doubling of the letters. This further strengthens the theoretical argument that the L2 writing is indeed influenced by the L1 knowledge.

The Use of Bahasa Malaysia (BM) in L2 Writing

The researcher strongly believes that, not only the L2 learning is interfered and influenced by the L1, but also the national language. Malaysia is a unique country with many languages and races. A student in a vernacular school has to master their L1 (Chinese/ Tamil), L2 (English Language) and also the national language, the Malay language.

The Malay language, also known locally as *Bahasa Melayu* or *Bahasa Malaysia*, is an Austronesian language spoken variously by the Malay people who reside in the Malay Peninsula, southern Thailand, the Philippines, Singapore, central eastern Sumatra, the Riau islands, and parts of the coast of Borneo. It is an official language of Malaysia, Brunei and Singapore. It is very similar to the Indonesian language, known locally as *Bahasa Indonesia*, the official language of Indonesia.

In Malaysia, the language is officially known as *Bahasa Malaysia*, which translates as the "Malaysian language". The term, which was introduced by the National Language Act 1967, was predominant until the 1990s, after most academics and government officials reverted to "*Bahasa Melayu*," which is used in the Malay version of the Federal Constitution. According to Article 152 of the Federal Constitution, *Bahasa Melayu* is the official language of Malaysia. "*Bahasa Kebangsaan*" (National language) was also used at one point during the 1970s. As of late, however, the name has been reverted back to "*Bahasa Malaysia*". In spoken Malay and Malaysian English, the language is also referred to by the initialism BM.

Malay is normally written using the Roman alphabet, although a modified Arabic script called Jawi also exists. It is an agglutinative language, meaning that the meaning of the word can be changed by adding the necessary prefixes or suffixes. According to Kamus Tatabahasa Dewan Bahasa, root words are either nouns or verbs, e.g. *masak* (to cook) yields *memasak* (cooks, is cooking, etc.), *memasakkan* (cooks, is cooking for etc.), *dimasak* (cooked - passive) as well as *pemasak* (cook - person), *masakan* (cooking, cookery). Many initial consonants undergo mutation when prefixes are added: e.g. *sapu* (sweep) becomes *penyapu* (broom); *panggil* (to call) becomes *memanggil* (calls, is calling, etc.), *tapis* (sieve) becomes *menapis* (sieves, is sieving, etc.)

In this research we can see that 3.1% of the students involved in the research prefer to use the Malay language whenever their vocabulary command in L2 is exhausted. Other grammatical items of the Malay language do not affect the writing of L2 because most linguistic items in the Malay language are similar to the English language. According to the students these words were used when they have exhausted their limited vocabulary and therefore they resorted to the use of the national language. (refer to Appendix Y, interview with the selected students)

Mohideen. H (1996) too agrees that mother tongue interference as the main cause of errors in writing among Malaysian students. He says that there is mother tongue interference in the areas of syntax, grammar, lexis and pronunciation. Teachers of English in Malaysia are very familiar with erroneous constructions such as using

"although" and "but" in the same sentence. This is in fact a direct influence of Bahasa Malaysia.

Use of Tamil- Speech Style in Writing

Students who are very Tamil oriented prefer to use the L1 speaking pattern in the writing of L2. Though this is very limited in this research, as only 2.1% of the students did this, it should not be sidelined or overlooked as the researcher believes that such a pattern may occur more frequently if more of their writings are analyzed. One frequently used speech expression in Tamil is to express the degree of the quality of a thing or a person, whereby Tamil speakers are very fond of repeating the word ‘very’ a couple of times to express their depth of the quality of the item they are describing. Therefore such a speech pattern has clearly influenced the writing of L2 by the Tamil school students. This statement is also supported by the interview the researcher had with the L2 teacher. (Refer to Appendix X).

Table 11: Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Punctuation	Male	50	1.20	2.399	.339
	Female	46	.70	1.331	.196
Missing verb to be	Male	50	.70	1.035	.146
	Female	46	.83	1.122	.165
The use of Tamil word order	Male	50	.36	.631	.089
	Female	46	.20	.542	.080
Wrong Spelling for Plural Nouns	Male	50	.08	.274	.039
	Female	46	.11	.379	.056
	Female	46	.02	.147	.022

The group statistics clearly shows that there is no clear evidence to support if there is a relationship between the L1 influence in L2 and the gender of the sample as the standard error mean in all the influences identified are below one. Therefore we can conclude that gender does not play a role in the L1 influence of L2 writing. Hence we can conclude that in the writing of L1, any student who learns more than a language is influenced by his/her native language.

The following is the class by class description of linguistic items that interfered the samples' writing.

Table 12: CLASS 1: 5 Intan

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Punctuation	36	17	.47	.971
Missing verbs to be	36	31	.86	1.073
The use of Tamil word order	36	8	.22	.540
Wrong spelling for plural nouns	36	3	.08	.368
Valid N (listwise)	36			

From the tabulated data we can conclude that there were 17 errors in punctuation followed by 31 in missing verb to be, 8 in the use of Tamil word order and 3 in wrong spelling for plural nouns. These students in this class come from a more educated family

and are better in their studies. Therefore, by and large, the linguistic items did not interfere heavily with their writing as much as other classes.

Table 13: CLASS 2: 5 Mutiara

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Punctuation	41	37	.90	1.609
Missing verb to be	41	34	.83	1.160
The use of Tamil word order	41	11	.27	.633
Wrong spelling for plural nouns	41	5	.12	.331
Valid N (listwise)	41			

This is a class with the largest number of students. The students are average performers. The data and analysis from this class clearly shows that the interference of L1 was quite obvious in, punctuation and missing verb to be being more evident than the other linguistic components. A total of 37 punctuation errors were made by the 41 students in this class.

Table 14: CLASS 3: 5 Ruby

	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Punctuation	19	38	2.00	3.350
Missing verbs to be	19	8	.42	.838
The use of Tamil word order	19	8	.42	.607
Wrong spelling for plural nouns	19	1	.05	.229
Valid N (listwise)	19			

Ruby, being the lowest class (in terms of academic performance), made many mistakes in their writing. Many L1 linguistic items interfered with their L2 writing. Since

there are only 19 students in this class the means for the interference are quite high. Punctuation was the highest (38), followed by missing verb to be (8), the use of Tamil word order (8), and wrong spelling for plural nouns (1). The use of Tamil word order among the students of this class is quite high as they are more Tamil oriented students with weak command of the English language. Therefore we can conclude that the students' educational and home background and L2 command more or less determines the degree of L1 interference in L2. The reason for the interference of missing verb to be is comparatively lower compared to the other better classes is not because they are better than other students in this area.

Interviews

The analyses of exercise books, the questionnaire and the transcription of the interviews were used to seek answers for all the research question.

“The research interview has been defined as ‘two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation,” (Cannell and Kahn, 1968)

The researcher in this survey employed this tool to obtain further data to answer the research questions. It was felt that an interview would allow the respondents to give clearer input on their opinion and attitude towards writing in L2. 5 students, one L1

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teacher and one L2 teacher participated in the interview that was conducted during school hours. The researcher conducted one to one interview with the teachers and group interview with the randomly selected students.

The interview data was transcribed from the recordings and analyzed based on the:

- a. The common grammatical errors that the L1 teacher always came across.
- b. The common grammatical errors that the L2 teacher always came across.
- c. The kinds of thinking/perception that the students experienced when they were writing in L2.

Interview with the L1 Teacher

This interview was conducted with the L1 teacher of standard 5 Ruby. From the interview it was quite clear that the chances of mother tongue interference in the writing of L2 were high. The students came from a 100% Tamil educated and speaking parents. Therefore it was quite obvious for the students to master the mother tongue better and faster than the L2. And it was quite likely that these students with high proficiency level of the mother tongue were influenced by the grammatical rules that exist in Tamil in the writing of L2. (Refer to Appendix Z)

Furthermore, from the interview and the literature review we know that the Tamil language has 247 letters in its alphabet compared to the English language, with only 26 letters. Therefore, the chances of people claiming that the Tamil language were an easier subject to master was quite slim. Anyhow, students in a Tamil school still managed to

excel in the language because of the extended teaching hours of the language (Tamil) and it being the medium of instruction in school. According to the L1 teacher, it was highly unlikely that the knowledge of English grammatical rules could interfere or influence the writing of L1. Therefore we could conclude that most of the ‘transfer’ that took place in the students’ writing was “Negative Transfer”, whereby the rules of L1 that are not found in L2, used wrongly in the writing of L2. The researcher did not come across any positive transfer in the data collected. Therefore, the answer to research question No. 2 is, there was no transfer of linguistic items from L2 to L1. Similarly, no linguistic items were transferred positively from L1 to L2 and vice versa. This answers research question No. 3.

Interview with the L2 Teacher

The interview with the L2 teacher of 5 Mutiara shed a lot of doubts for the researcher. As she was a Tamil trained teacher with a Bachelor’s degree in TESL, she understood my research questions and problems better than the other teachers. According to this L2 teacher the students hardly spoke in English in class (Refer to Appendix X).

Researcher:	How do they perform in the English language?
Sumathi:	Well, they perform moderately in their examination but they hardly speak in English in class.

The L2 teacher also stressed that the 60 minutes of teaching hours a week for the English language is definitely insufficient if compared to other language subjects like Bahasa Malaysia. This was also agreed upon by the L1 teacher in her interview. (Refer to Appendix Z)

Researcher: Being a senior teacher in this school, what do you think is the major stumbling block in the students learning of the English language ?
Karpaham: I think, more time should be allocated for the learning of English, starting from Year 1 ? (like what they've started now for the Year 1)

And this would have seriously contributed to the low proficiency level of L2.

(Refer to Appendix X)

Sumathi : I teach them four periods of 30 minutes each.
Researcher: Do you think this is enough?
Sumathi : Definitely not. You know they are already learning their mother tongue and the national language for longer hours compared to English. The complications and interference they have between Tamil and BM are already so great. And with the limited time given to teach English, we the English teachers could hardly explain the differences between these languages to them. Therefore I strongly suggest that and by the way with the introduction of the teaching of science and mathematics in English, more time should be allocated for the teaching of English. I'm very serious about this, you know.

According to the L2 teacher, the students are already having many linguistic problems with their L1 and the Malay language. Therefore learning L2 with limited teaching hours is sure to limit their learning.

The L2 teacher also admitted that at times she had to resort to code-switching in her teaching to consolidate the understanding of certain topics among the students. The students had very limited vocabulary command in L2 and therefore sometimes resorted to the use of national language (Bahasa Malaysia).

Interview with the Selected Students

The interview with the students was conducted to get a clearer picture of the problems they faced in the writing of L2 and to understand their language background. When the students were asked to rank their language competency level, all the students placed their

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mother tongue first, followed by the national language and lastly the English language.

(refer to Appendix Y)

Researcher: Could you tell me which language you are very good at, followed by the not so good ? (ranking of language competence)
All: Tamil, Malay and English.

The L2 teacher in her interview said that the students in her class (5 Mutiara) were poor in English. (Refer to Appendix X)

Researcher: What are the kinds of mistakes they make in their writing?
Sumathi : Well, to be honest, I don't really analyse their writing. But one thing for sure. They have a very poor command of vocabulary. They really have to learn a lot of new English words. Sometimes they use Malay and Romanized Tamil in their writing.

In contrast the students said that they found the English language easy but their limited vocabulary stopped them from using the language freely. (Refer to Appendix Y)

Researcher: How do you find learning English?
Menaka & Ganesha: Easy, we understand the language. We always get good marks in English but sometimes we do not know what word to use.
Puvarasan & Mehnaka: We had so much problems when we were in standard 4 but we are okay now.

To a question on how they found the questionnaire, all the 36 (5 Intan) students answered that the questions were quite difficult and they used the direct translation method to answer the questions. The interview also gave a clear picture that the students hardly used English outside the classroom. And therefore it was quite reasonable to find their writing in L2 being influenced and interfered with by the L1. To a question why they must think in Tamil before they start writing in L2, all the students answered that

they were better in their L1 and this kind of thinking ‘just comes’ automatically to them (they are so used to it) (Refer to Appendix Y).

The discussion and elaboration clearly indicates that the kind of transfer involved is the ‘Negative Transfer’ whereby the grammatical rules in L1 that are not found in L2 were used wrongly in the writing of L2.

Summary of Findings and their Implications

Based on the data collected from the writing analysis, questionnaire and Interviews, it is possible to draw up the following conclusions about the influence of L1 grammatical rules in the writing of L2:

1. The linguistic items such as syntactical rulings, doubling of consonants, Tamil speech pattern, capitalization and failure to use the verb-to-be are influenced by the L1 in the writing of L2 among the Tamil school students.
2. The kind of transfer that dominates the influence is the ‘Negative Transfer’ – whereby the grammatical rules of L1 that are not found in L2 are used wrongly in the writing of L2.
3. Students of Tamil schools should be exposed to some kind of contrastive studies in order to help them understand the differences between L1 and L2.
4. When the limited L2 vocabulary command is exhausted the students have the tendency to use Bahasa Melayu as an alternative in their writing of L2.
5. In order to improve the standard of L2 in Tamil schools, longer teaching hours for the subject should be seriously considered.

6. Students in the Tamil schools should be directly or indirectly taught about the differences of the linguistic items (some, if not all) between the L1 and L2.
7. The research results clearly shows that there is no evidence of positive transfer from the L1 in the writing of L2 among the Tamil school students.

The next chapter is the concluding chapter of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

The main objective of this study was to study the grammatical influence of the mother tongue in the writing of L2, and whether the influence (if any) is a 'Negative Transfer' or a 'Positive Transfer'. The study further seeks to identify the implications of the positive influence and interference in the teaching and learning of the English language in Tamil schools.

In this chapter, the researcher aims to conclude the findings of this study. The various insights that have emerged in the course of this study will be dealt with in the light of the research questions that are:

1. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L1 to L2?
2. What are the linguistic items that have been transferred from L2 to L1?
3. Which linguistic items have been transferred positively from L1 to L2 and vice versa?
4. Which linguistic items have been transferred negatively from L1 to L2 and vice versa?

In recent years, English language teaching in a developing country like Malaysia has taken a new character. A need has arisen to specify the aims of English language learning more precisely in terms of the learning of formal grammar as English is expected to play an important role in our society. Through out the world, students at different

levels of education find it a struggle to learn English. In most countries English has taken a unique position whereby students or scholars are pushed to a situation where they cannot have better career or higher education without the knowledge of English. The students remain in a compulsory situation to learn English in order to remain competitive. In Malaysia English, naturally, was given an important place before independence. In most of the institutions English had been the medium of instruction. The students were happy to learn the language because highly proficient non-native and native speakers of English taught it. The study of English was considered to be superior, not only status wise but also for career. A child was expected to interact through English with its family members, neighbours in various types of interaction.

One common and accepted approach to language teaching is through contrastive method. In other words, the language specific features of both the mother tongue of the learner and the second language are studied thoroughly and an attempt is made to teach the second language and also to prepare instructional materials for second language teaching. There are, of course, many other influences at play when we learn a second language, but the influence that the mother tongue has on the language we produce when we use a second language has become a very important area of study for people interested in second language acquisition, language teaching, ELT publishing, and language in general and is usually referred to as ‘Language Interference’, ‘Transfer’, or ‘Cross-linguistic influence’. It is suggested that the language produced by foreign learners is so unavoidably influenced, and even distorted, by the mother tongue of the

learner that it should rather be termed an ‘Interlanguage’, since it has features of both the target language and the mother tongue. The better the learner is at overcoming language interference, the more diluted that blend will be.

The reliance on similarities between the language being learnt and the mother tongue can be both a help and a hindrance, similarities are expected to lead to positive transfer. This would help the learner to get things right. This is a rich area of study.

While discussing the influence of first language over the second language, it is appropriate to mention what Lado (1971:2) who had said that “those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult.” In this context, it is evident that the language teacher and language learners should ideally know the structures of both the mother tongue and the second languages. Because such knowledge can help the language teacher to identify the areas of influence of mother tongue on the second language and also to develop some teaching techniques to rectify the interference.

Language teaching practice often assumes that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English (a contrastive analysis approach). A native speaker of Tamil language, for example, might face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is closely related to English, whereas Tamil is not. However it

must be emphasized that not all similarities result in ease of learning and differences in difficulties.

Language learners often produce errors of syntax and pronunciation thought to result from the influence of their L1, such as mapping its grammatical patterns inappropriately onto the L2, pronouncing certain sounds incorrectly or with difficulty, and confusing items of vocabulary known as false friends. This is known as L1 transfer or "language interference". However, these transfer effects are typically stronger in beginners' language production. SLA research has highlighted many errors which cannot be attributed to the L1, as they are present in learners of many language backgrounds (for example, failure to apply 3rd person present singular -s to verbs, as in 'he make'). Teachers of vernacular primary schools believe that English should only be introduced to the Tamil pupils at a much later stage after the students have had a good grasp of their mother tongue. They believe that the L2 should follow L1, the L2 should be taught in secondary schools

However, Akinbote and Ogunsanwo (2003) have a different view on the use of English language in the early years of the primary school. They opined that the use of mother tongue in the process of teaching and learning in the early years helps, not only to preserve and value one's culture but also to develop it lexically. According to the authors the use of English language in the early primary school makes the average primary school child unable to be sufficiently literate in either the mother tongue or English language.

They felt that to use English language at that level will lead to the children having a

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mental translation of all concepts presented in English language to their mother tongue in order to gain sufficient meaning of the concepts presented. These researchers believe that a citizen that is literate even only in the mother tongue will be sufficiently equipped to live a useful life in the fast changing world. So if permanent literacy is to be promoted in the primary schools the use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction in schools ought to be encouraged. It is therefore generally accepted that in teaching and learning processes, the mother tongue of the child is of utmost importance. For one thing, it categorizes a large part of the child's environment, that is, it has names for most of the objects, actions, ideas, attributes and so on that are so important to him, as well as to any society.

The learning of English is no more complex than other languages, it has several features which may create difficulties for learners.

Some of the complexities in English Grammar

- Tense and Perfect - English has a relatively large sequence of tenses with some quite subtle differences, such as the difference between the simple past "I ate" and the present perfect "I have eaten." Progressive and perfect progressive forms add complexity. (See English verbs.)
- Functions of auxiliaries - Learners of English tend to find it difficult to manipulate the various ways in which English uses the first auxiliary verb of a tense. These include negation (eg *He hasn't been drinking.*), inversion with the subject to form a question (eg *Has he been drinking?*), short answers (eg *Yes, he*

has.) and tag questions (*has he?*). A further complication is that the dummy auxiliary verb *do /does /did* is added to fulfil these functions in the simple present and simple past, but not for the verb *to be*.

- Modal verbs - English also has a significant number of modal auxiliary verbs which each have a number of uses. For example, the opposite of "You must be here at 8" (obligation) is usually "You don't have to be here at 8" (lack of obligation, choice), while "must" in "You must not drink the water" (prohibition) has a different meaning from "must" in "You must not be a native speaker" (deduction). This complexity takes considerable work for most learners to master.
- Idiomatic usage - English is reputed to have a relatively high degree of idiomatic usage. For example, the use of different main verb forms in such apparently parallel constructions as "try to learn", "help learn", and "avoid learning" pose difficulty for learners. Another example is the idiomatic distinction between "make" and "do": "make a mistake", not "do a mistake"; and "do a favour", not "make a favour".
- Articles - English has an appreciable number of articles, including the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a, an*. At times English nouns can or indeed must be used without an article; this is called the zero article. Some of the differences between definite, indefinite and zero article are fairly easy to learn, but others are not, particularly since a learner's native language may lack articles or use them in different ways than English does. Although the information conveyed by articles is rarely essential for communication, English uses them

frequently (several times in the average sentence), so that they require some effort from the learner.

Summary of Findings

The data collected for this study were obtained by using 3 instruments:

- Questionnaire
- Interviews
- Students' exercise books, workbooks and worksheets

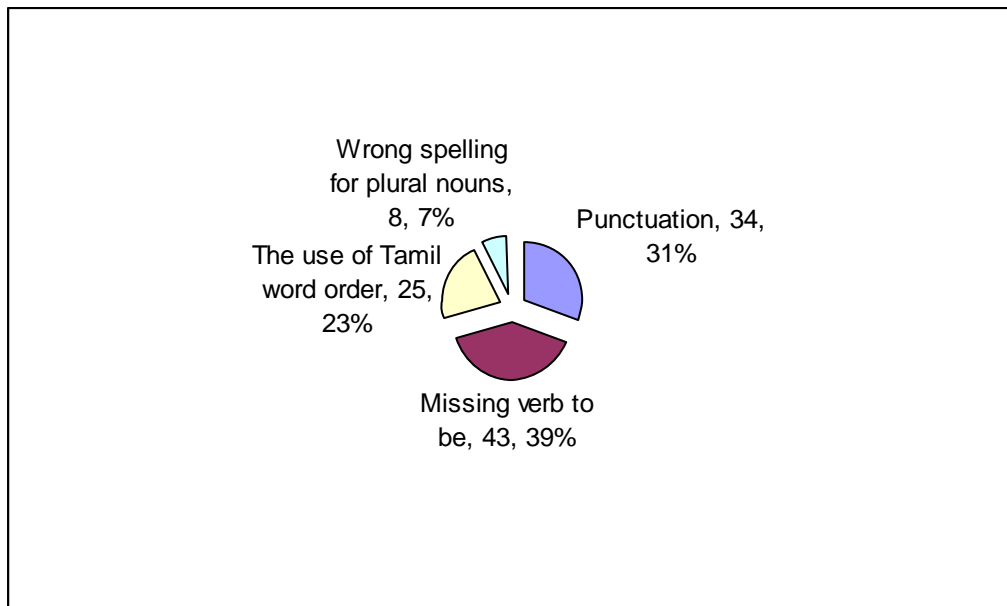
The findings in the data showed that there was interference and negative influence of mother tongue in the writing of L2. The writing analysis clearly showed that majority of the sentences constructed in the writings were to the grammatical patterns of the mother tongue.

The interviews with L2 teachers, selected sample and the literature review clearly showed that the failure to use the capital letter which was 31.3% was due to the non-existence of such requirement in the Tamil writing script. A total 23% of the sentences constructed in the writing analysis had syntactical disorders that are similar to the pupils' mother tongue. Furthermore, a total of 39% of the sentences constructed in the writing analysis were without the use of verb to be that does not exist in the Tamil language.

The use of wrong spelling for the L2 plural nouns were also from the negative transfer from L1. This consisted 7% of the total students in the research. All this was classic evidence for the occurrence of negative transfer.

Apart from the grammatical influence, the students also constructed sentences using one or two Bahasa Melayu words. The interviews clearly showed that the use of Malay words were due to the insufficient vocabulary command in L2. In addition to this, some of the sample used the Tamil speech style pattern in their L2 writing. This further reinforces us to believe that the Tamil linguistic items heavily influenced the writing of L2 among the Tamil school students. Refer to the pie chart below for the illustration of the breakdown of the grammatical items that were negatively transferred.

Breakdown of the Linguistic Items -Interference in L2 Writing



The data also clearly showed that the grammar items that existed in L1 and that did not exist in L2 clearly played an important role in the influence and therefore we can conclude that the kind of non-positive transfer that took place here was 'Negative Transfer'.

The interview with the L1 and L2 teachers also strengthened this data. When the data went through triangulation there's also clear and comprehensive evidence that there was negative influence of mother tongue in the writing of L2. The researcher failed to identify any evidence of positive transfer in this research.

Personal insights and Implications of the Findings

Learning a new language can be a stressful event. Even the best-prepared teacher will encounter problems unconnected, on the surface, to grammar, sentence structure, and vocabulary. In their introduction to *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, editors Susan Gass and Larry Selinker (1992) list various factors in learning a new language: "age . . . motivation, loyalty to a language, language aptitude, and attitude" (p. 4). Teachers cannot cancel out these factors, but they can, hopefully, lessen the uneasiness or fear felt by most language learning students. Teachers need to be alert to "transfers" and "borrowings" that students may make as they acquire the new language.

By and large, the study explicitly shows that there is a considerable amount of influence of mother tongue in the writing of L2 among the standard 5 students of the said Tamil school. Therefore students of Tamil schools who have to face the challenges of

learning three language subjects, namely, Tamil, English and Malay, should be offered equal teaching hours with equal effort so that one language does not interfere with the other, especially in our Malaysian context. Because of this kind of complications in the early stage of language learning, Tamil school students are at a disadvantaged position in L2 learning and mastery.

It is to be hoped, however, that SLA research will soon provide some fairly more definitive answers to this question. The optimal pedagogical methodology to help the students to gradually eradicate mistakes clearly depends to a large extent on why he or she makes them.

Recommendation for Further Studies

This study looked at the mother tongue influence in the writing of L2 that was carried out with a writing corpus and interviews. It would have yielded more comprehensive and interesting results if there had been more time to study the L1 writing of the sample over a longer period of time.

A similar research programme involving various schools may be conducted with a larger sample to study the L1 influence in the writing of L2 and vice versa. This study was conducted in a big (A Category) Tamil school in an urban area. Thus the results of this study cannot be generalized and applied to all types of Tamil schools in Malaysia. A greater influence and interference could be expected, if this research were to be conducted in a rural school. Researchers with the knowledge of Mandarin language

should carry out such research in Chinese vernacular schools in Malaysia to study the influence of Mandarin on their L2 output, for our purpose, English.

This study only focused on the writing component. Additional research could take the study a step further by including the influence of the speaking (phonological) component. A longitudinal study on the development of phonological skills among Tamil school students would give an additional insights into the influence of L1 on L2 is the speaking component.

There have been very few studies done on the phonological influence between the Tamil language and the English language. Anyhow, there is a common belief that the process of the acquisition of phonological skills in a second language is more influenced by ‘Negative Transfer’ from the learners’ L1 than it is by their inter language grammar.

Poor vocabulary command has been identified as one of the reasons for the standard 5 students not being able to perform well in L2. Therefore more vocabulary building activities should be included in the syllabus.

Conclusion

Small amount of data, carefully analyzed, can be very productive in terms of interpretation. Although in the beginning of the primary school life, these Tamil school students faced a lot of stumbling blocks in the learning of L2, paradoxically they seem to improve by leaps and bounds when they reach the secondary school. The researcher conducted a random survey with ten secondary school students of Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Sultan Abdul Samad, Petaling Jaya, who came from Tamil primary school.

The researcher analyzed their essay exercise book and found out that there was not even a single influence of L1 found in their L2 writing. When, where and how they improve their language competency level is still a question that needs to be answered. This could be due to their attitude, motivation, exposure, socialization and the benefit of instruction.

The pupils need both implicit instruction and explicit instruction to improve their grammatical output. In implicit instruction, such as the communicative approach, students are exposed to examples of writing that use certain grammar rules. The communicative approach rests on the idea that grammar structures occur in context, not in the "ordered lists" criticized by Corder. Certainly, the communicative approach has a place in grammar curriculums. Yet Fotos cites research where "learners benefit from formal instruction prior to meaning-focused activities because such instruction promotes their attention to the forms they will encounter" (p. 137). Learners need explicit instruction to help them focus.

The grammar-translation method could benefit the pupils in Tamil schools to understand the L2 better since both languages can be used actively in classrooms. According to Davis and Pearce (2000), translation is regarded as a very good technique to practise the application of rules and for transformation exercise. In order to improve their grammatical performance "Limited response questions which ask students to perform certain tasks, multiple choice completion, simple completion of sentences and cloze tests" may be provided (Thirumalai, 2002:127).

The mother tongue is the child's environment and is the natural basis on which verbal skills can be built, children learn through communicating in a language, which

they understand. These recommendations are made in order to solve some of the problems militating against students' competence in English language in a Tamil school. Having discovered that the use of mother tongue in school interferes with students performance in English, the English language should also be used as a medium of communication within and outside the classroom. Both teachers and students should endeavour to improve their proficiency level of the language. Teachers need to do more than teaching theories in class. Proper method of teaching and appropriate instructional materials should be adopted to complement teacher's knowledge.

This goes a long way in influencing the teaching and learning process in the English language. Materials selected should be commensurable with the grade or maturity level of students. Good reading habit and library study should also be developed in the students. Students should be encouraged to approach reading with alertness and a critical mind. They should be made to develop a taste for books which is significant in the achievement of good results in English language in the Primary School Assessment also known as UPSR. The relevant authorities should organize debates and essay competitions among students within and outside their schools. Students should also be given the opportunity to explain points and express views in class discussion and any error made should be corrected by the teacher without any intimidation as these will enhance a proper evaluation of learners' performance or progress in the English language. The pupils need to be encouraged to use English at home with their school-going siblings, alongside their native language.

Provision of a well-equipped library should be made in all the vernacular schools and community. Textbooks and workbooks that are useful in English language should be made available in the library to augment the teachers' and students' efforts. The majority of the students lack relevant reading materials because of their poor socio-economic background. Teachers must continually update their knowledge within their discipline. They must acquire information about new methods and materials that will make their teaching more effective. These can be achieved by participating in in-service courses, workshops, participating in and attending professional meetings and embarking on postgraduate programmes which can extend their present knowledge as well as expose them to areas within which they had no previous or little contact. Above all, if all the recommendations are strictly adhered to, there will be great improvement on students' performance in English language in the Tamil schools of Malaysia.

By and large the findings reveal that mother tongue negatively influences the students written output and results in poor performance in the English language at primary school level and that there are also other factors contributing to students' poor performance in the language. These other factors are inadequate exposure to good models of language use, lack of textbooks, home language background and lack of opportunities for professional growth and development of teachers. On the whole, the performance of students in English is poor, and if the discovered factors are not tackled on time, it will cause a drastic decline in the standard of English education. Finally, I think students of vernacular schools are capable of learning all the three languages efficiently if equal teaching hours are invested on them.

It is hoped that this study would contribute to the understanding of Tamil school pupils' acquisition of English as an L2 and efforts will be made to upgrade their English language proficiency to prepare them for secondary education which includes more learning hours in English.

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APPENDICES

Appendix C

1. ஆங்கிலத்தில் எழுதும் முன், நீ உன் மனதில் என்ன நினைப்பாய் ?

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.....

2. ஒவ்வொரு வார்த்தையாக நினைப்பாயா அல்லது ஒரு முழு வாக்கியமாக நினைப்பாயா ?

.....
.....

3. நீ வேறேதும் மொழியில் சிந்திப்பாயா ?

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Appendix D

	அ	ஆ	இ	ஈ	ஊ	஋	எ	ஏ	ஐ	ஓ	ஔ	ஔள
க்	க	கா	கி	கீ	கு	கூ	கெ	கே	கை	கொ	கோ	கௌ
ங்	ங	நா	நி	நீ	நு	நூ	நெ	நே	நை	நொ	நோ	நௌ
ச்	ச	சா	சி	சீ	சு	சூ	செ	சே	சை	சொ	சோ	சௌ
ஞ்	ஞ	ஞா	ஞி	ஞீ	ஞு	ஞூ	ஞெ	ஞே	ஞை	ஞொ	ஞோ	ஞௌ
ட்	ட	டா	டி	டீ	டு	டூ	டெ	டே	டை	டொ	டோ	டௌ
ண்	ண்	ணா	ணி	ணீ	ணு	ணூ	ணெ	ணே	ணை	ணொ	ணோ	ணௌ
த்	த	தா	தி	தீ	து	தூ	தெ	தே	தை	தொ	தோ	தௌ
ந்	ந	நா	நி	நீ	நு	நூ	நெ	நே	நை	நொ	நோ	நௌ
ப்	ப	பா	பி	பீ	பு	பூ	பெ	பே	பை	பொ	போ	பௌ
ம்	ம	மா	மி	மீ	மு	மூ	மெ	மே	மை	மொ	மோ	மௌ
ய்	ய	யா	யி	யீ	யு	யூ	யெ	யே	யை	யொ	யோ	யௌ
ர்	ர	ரா	ரி	ரீ	ரு	ரூ	ரெ	ரே	ரை	ரொ	ரோ	ரௌ
ல்	ல	லா	லி	லீ	லு	லூ	லெ	லே	லை	லொ	லோ	லௌ
வ்	வ	வா	வி	வீ	வு	வூ	வெ	வே	வை	வொ	வோ	வௌ
ழ்	ழ	ழா	ழி	ழீ	ழு	ழூ	ழெ	ழே	ழை	ழொ	ழோ	ழௌ
ள்	ள	ளா	ளி	ளீ	ளு	ளூ	ளெ	ளே	ளை	ளொ	ளோ	ளௌ
ற்	ற	றா	றி	றீ	று	றூ	றெ	றே	றை	றொ	றோ	றௌ
ன்	ன	னா	னி	னீ	னு	னூ	னெ	னே	னை	னொ	னோ	னௌ

Appendix X

Interview 1 (Transcript of Interview with L2 Teacher)

Researcher : Hi, Sumathi. Thank you for sparing your free time for this interview.

Sumathi : It's okay.

Researcher : How long have you been in this school Sumathi?

Sumathi : Approximately fourteen years. I've been teaching here ever since I got my first posting after college.

Researcher : How do you find teaching in the afternoon?

Sumathi : I find it quite boring. I hope I get my new posting soon, by the way actually I'm a TESL graduate And move on to a secondary school.

Researcher : What did you specialize in teachers training college?

Sumathi : Actually, I was trained to teach Tamil. I obtained good results in STPM Tamil papers and I was offered this course in 1987 in Maktab Perguruan Seri Kota. But later in 1999 I furthered my studies via the distance learning programme in TESL in UPM. And after my graduation I was asked to teach English by my evening supervisor.

- Researcher : That means you are equally good in English and Tamil.
- Sumathi : I don't know. Maybe.
- Researcher : Do you enjoy teaching English?
- Sumathi : Sure. Definitely.
- Researcher : What classes do you teach?
- Sumathi : I teach all the four standard 5 classes. And I'm also the class teacher of 5 Intan.
- Researcher : What is the yardstick used to separate the students according to their classes ? Are they streamed? And, the names of the classes sound familiar
- Sumathi : The students are actually streamed based on their final examination performances in the previous year. And the classes are named after great gemstones.
- Researcher : Could you please tell me more about the students in your class ?
- Sumathi : Sure. There are 34 students in Intan. This class is considered as one of the best classes among the standard five classes. Most of the students in this class are prefects and are highly motivated students. They are very impulsive but responsible. But the poor ones are fairly poor and the rich ones are really rich. There is big social gap between the students in the class. Anyhow, their parents are not really keen on spending big money for the children's

education. The parents come to school only once, in the beginning of the year and after that you can hardly see them in school.

Researcher : Do you find any differences in the academic achievements of the students based on the social status ?

Sumathi : No. Not actually. There are children from poor family who excel better in their studies compared to the rich ones. Therefore I would not say that financial status of a child determines his / her performance in school.

Researcher : How do they perform in the English language?

Sumathi : Well, they perform moderately in their examination but they hardly speak in English in class.

Researcher : How many periods of English do they have in a week?

Sumathi : I teach them four periods of 30 minutes each.

Researcher : Do you think this is enough?

Sumathi : Definitely not. You know they are already learning their mother tongue and the national language for longer hours compared to English. The complications and interference they have between Tamil and BM are already so great. And with the limited time given to teach English, we the English teachers could hardly explain the differences between these languages to them. Therefore

I strongly suggest that and by the way with the introduction

of the teaching of science and mathematics in English, more time should be allocated for the teaching of English. I'm very serious about this, you know.

Researcher : Do they answer / speak in English in the classroom? Does teaching and learning really take place in English ? Or you have to do a lot of translation for them?

Sumathi : Of course, I teach in English. But then, there are times where you have to explain to them in Tamil. But I try not to make it a routine. And I really have to pressure them to make them answer in English.

Researcher : What are the kinds of mistakes they make in their writing?

Sumathi : Well, to be honest, I don't really analyse their writing. But one thing for sure. They have a very poor command of vocabulary. They really have to learn a lot of new English words. Sometimes they use Malay and Romanized Tamil in their writing. In terms of mother tongue interference, I'm not very sure as I've not made any serious attempt to check if there was such interference in their writing. Maybe with your inter-language studies I can learn some new things. Anyhow I've brought some of the students' English exercise books for you to see

Researcher : Thank you very much.

(The researcher goes through all the five exercise books brought by Madam Sumathi. The researcher could not detect any glaring mistakes as most of the exercises by the students are copied from the blackboard. The students haven't really constructed their own sentences or composed a composition without the teacher's help. Therefore the researcher could not postulate that there have not been any errors in their writing. Therefore the researcher decided to give worksheets to be done in the classroom in the presence of the researcher.)

Finally, what do you think should be done to improve the standard of the English Language in Tamil schools? And does the school management offer any kinds of assistance to the English teachers?

Sumathi : I think, the teaching hours should be extended and equated with the number of teaching periods of Bahasa Melayu.. In terms of assistance from the management, I think they've been very helpful in assisting the English teachers to carry out all the projects planned by the English Department.

Researcher : One more question Sumathi, among the three languages that they learn in school, could you please rank them according to their level of competency.

Sumathi : Sure. Obviously the mother tongue comes first, followed by the

national language and last but not least the English language.

Researcher : Thank you for being so helpful Sumathi.

Sumathi : You are welcome.

Appendix Y

Interview 2 (Transcript of Interview with 5 students selected by the researcher)

Researcher : Could you please tell me your names?

Juliana : I'm Juliana.

Nanthini : I'm Nanthini.

Puvarasan : I'm Puvarasan.

Mehnaka : I'm Mehnaka.

Ganesha : I'm Ganesha.

Researcher : How old are you guys?

All : We are eleven years old.

Researcher : How long have you been in this school?

All : We have been here for almost five years.

Researcher : What language do you speak at home?

Juliana & Nanthini: Tamil and Bahasa Melayu.

The others : Tamil and English.

Researcher : Could you tell me which language you are very good at, followed

by the not so good ? (ranking of language competence)

All : Tamil, Malay and English.

Researcher : How do you find learning English?

Menaka & Ganesha : Easy, we understand the language. We always get good marks in English but sometimes we do not know what word to use.

Puvarasan & Mehnaka: We had so much problems when we were in standard 4 but we are okay now.

Researcher : Why did you have so much problems in standard 4?

Juliana: : I didn't understand the words at all.

Ganasha: I always make a lot of spelling mistakes.

Researcher : Do you still make the spelling mistakes?

Kumar : Yes, I still have problems in writing in English.

Researcher : Why do you think you are weak in English spelling?

Shamila : Because we don't use English all the times like Tamil and Malay.

Kumar : We don't do spelling in the classroom.

Researcher : Do you all read any English books other than the books used in the classroom?

Arun : No, my father doesn't buy any English books at home.

Lechumanan : No, I don't understand the English stories, therefore I don't read anything in English.

Shamila : Sometimes I read easy to understand English storybooks in the school library.

- Nisha : No, I don't really understand the books in the library.
- Kumar : Yes, sometimes my father buys English newspapers at home and whenever he's free he teaches me to read.
- Researcher : How do you find the translation tests that you did in the classroom?
- All : Quite difficult but we answered all the questions.
- Researcher : How did you actually answer all the questions?
- Arun : I think in Tamil and then I write in English.
- Lechumanan : I translated one by one (word) in English.
- Shamila : I think in Tamil and then write in English one by one word.
- Nisha : I also think in Tamil first and then translate them in English.
- Kumar : I read the whole Tamil sentence and then translate them in English.
- Researcher : Does that mean that for every Tamil word that you write down in English word?
- All : Yes.
- Researcher : Other than your English teacher speaking to you in the classroom in English, do you speak or listen to any other English words in school ?
- All : No.
- Researcher : Do you sometimes mix Tamil when you are speaking English with your friends ?
- All : Yes, sometimes.

- Researcher : Do you sometimes mix Tamil when you are writing in English?
- All : No, sir.
- Researcher : What do you do when you do not know an English word when you are writing in English?
- Kumar : I use BM.
- Nisha : I also use BM.
- Arun : I don't write anything.
- Researcher : Do you think what you've learnt in Tamil sometimes disturbs you when you are speaking or writing in English ?
- Kumar : Yes. Sometimes when I write the English sentences, I always write after thinking about the sentences in Tamil first, and then I translate in English.
- Lechumanan : Before I speak and write, I imagine the sentence in Tamil and then say them in English.
- Researcher : Why do you have to think in Tamil first?
- Arun : Because we know Tamil better than any other languages and it just comes to us.
- Shamila : Because we always speak and think in Tamil most of the time.
- Researcher : Okay kids. That's all for today. Thank you very much.

Appendix Z

Interview 3 (Transcript of Interview with L1 Teacher)

- Researcher : Thank you Ms Karpaham, for making yourself free for the interview.
- Karpaham : It's okay.
- Researcher : What are you trained to teach? Could you please tell me about your teaching experience ?
- Karpaham : I am trained to teach Tamil. I'm a college-trained teacher. I've been teaching for the past 20 years About 15 years in this school. And currently teaching the Year 5 students.
- Researcher : How do you find the competency level of Tamil among your students?
- Karpaham : Good. Most of the standard 3 students come from a Tamil speaking home and they are well versed in the language.
- Researcher : What do you think contributed to their proficiency?
- Karpaham : Oh There are many factors. Firstly Tamil is their L1. I also think that their parents are playing an important role as most of the students' parents are Tamil educated and therefore they are able to teach the students at home. And the students are weak in other language subjects because they do not get proper guide at home.

The parents are also very dependent on the school when it comes to the teaching of BM and English. They can't afford to send their kids to tuition centres. The students read Tamil newspapers and watch a lot of Tamil movies. They made up a lot of language skills from these activities.

Researcher : Do you think that Tamil is an easier subject compared to English?

Karpaham : No, I don't think so because there are 247 letters in the Tamil alphabet compared to 26 in English.

Researcher : Do you know any major differences between these two languages?

Karpaham : Not actually. My English is not that good. But I know that in Tamil we do not have capital letters like in the English Language. And we use all other punctuation that exists in English.

Researcher : How do the students fare in the examination, particularly in Tamil language?

Karpaham : By and large they are good except for the 'very poor' cases.

Researcher : Do you think that they do well in Tamil because of the extended teaching hours compared to other language subjects ?

Karpaham : Of course, that is one of the reasons. Furthermore they also learn other subjects in Tamil.

Researcher : When they write in Tamil, have you ever come across students' writing being influenced by the English language ?

Karpaham : Could you elaborate? I don't really understand.

- Researcher : Like, have you ever come across a sentence like, “*Ali utheithan (kicked) panthei (the ball)*” instead of “ *Ali panthei (ball) utheithan (kicked) { Romanized Tamil }*”
- Karpaham : Not actually. I don’t think the students’ L1 writing is influenced by English or by BM.
- Researcher : Do the students often speak in other languages during your class?
- Karpaham : No. They speak strictly Tamil. Once in a blue moon some smart students use either English or BM in their speaking but not in their writing.
- Researcher : Being a senior teacher in this school, what do you think is the major stumbling block in the students learning of the English language ?
- Karpaham : I think, more time should be allocated for the learning of English, starting from Year 1 ? (like what they’ve started now for the Year 1)
- Researcher : Do you think if more time is allocated for English, the learning of mother tongue will be affected ?
- Karpaham : No, because the medium of instruction in school and home is Tamil and therefore Tamil language will sustain its supremacy in Tamil schools.
- Researcher : That’s very confident answer. Thank you very much, Ms Karpaham.

Appendix XYZ

CURRICULUM CONTENT

1 LEARNING OUTCOMES

In acquiring the four language skills, learners are required to perform tasks so that the following outcomes can be achieved.

1.0 The Skill of LISTENING

The listening component aims at developing learners' ability to listen to and understand the spoken language better. The sub-skills of listening range from the basic level of sound, word and phrase recognition to an understanding of the whole text. Learners are encouraged to listen to various text types so that they will become familiar with the sounds, intonation and stress patterns of the English language as well as to get to know the correct pronunciation of words and the use of certain expressions. Learners are also encouraged to respond to the information or message heard in a variety of ways including verbal and non-verbal forms. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to listen to and understand various text types such as announcements, instructions, and message. They should be able to:

1.1 Listen to and discriminate similar and different sounds of the English language;

1.2 Listen to and repeat accurately the correct pronunciation of words, and the correct intonation and word stress when uttering phrases, expressions and sentences;

1.3 Acquire vocabulary and understand the meaning of words and phrases in context;

1.4 Listen to and follow simple instructions and directions accurately;

1.5 Obtain information from texts listened to in relation to:

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- main ideas
- specific details
- sequence
- cause and effect relationships

1.6 Listen to and enjoy the rhyme, rhythm and sounds of poetry, jazz chants and songs; and

1.7 Listen to and enjoy stories, fables and other tales of imagination and fantasy and predict outcomes, and draw conclusions at a level suited to their ability.

2.0 The Skill of SPEAKING

As speaking is linked closely to listening, learners are taught to listen carefully to what is spoken and give an appropriate response. In the development of oral skills, learners are taught how to ask questions politely when seeking information or clarification and to reply giving relevant information. Learners are also taught to express their thoughts, feelings and ideas simply when talking to friends and older people. To this end, learners are taught to use appropriate words, phrases and expressions that do not offend others which can occur with the lack of proficiency. In making their utterances understood by others, learners are taught to pronounce words correctly and to speak clearly with the right stress and intonation. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to talk to friends, relatives, teachers and other people confidently using simple language and with an acceptable level of grammar. They should be able to:

2.1 Speak clearly by pronouncing words accurately, and speaking with the correct stress, intonation and sentence rhythm;

- 2.2. Talk confidently on topics of interest in simple language;
- 2.3 Express thoughts and feelings and talk about things heard, read, seen, and viewed in simple language;
- 2.4 Ask questions politely to obtain information and clarification;
- 2.5 Give relevant information politely in response to enquiries made:
- to state
 - to identify
 - to disagree
 - to make comparisons
- 2.6 Take simple messages and convey them accurately;
- 2.7 Make and receive telephone calls using polite speech forms;
- 2.8 Tell stories based on pictures and other stimuli, and recite simple poems;
- 2.9 Talk about the people, places and moral values of the stories heard, read and viewed using simple language;
- 2.10 Perform a variety of functions in a social context such as exchanging greetings, making introductions, inviting people, etc.;
- giving simple instructions and directions;
- 2.11 Respond to audio-visual materials such as cartoons on TV and suitable films by
- giving opinions, and
 - relating the material to personal experiences and previous knowledge.

3.0 The Skill of READING

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The component on Reading emphasizes the teaching of the skills of reading to enable learners to become independent readers. The teaching of reading in the early stages begins at the word and phrase levels before progressing to sentence recognition and reading at the paragraph level. In this early stage of reading, a combination of phonics and the whole text approach will benefit young readers. Gradually, learners are also taught to extract specific information from a text and to also respond to a text with their own ideas and opinions. Information skills and study skills are also taught through the use of dictionaries and encyclopaedias. For those who have the facilities, accessing the Internet and other electronic media for information is also encouraged. Pupils are also taught to obtain information from maps, plans, graphs and timetables at a level suited to their ability. The use of a variety of texts for the teaching of reading skills will not only provide the opportunity for learners to learn new words but also enables them to see how grammar is used correctly. At the same time, reading a variety of texts will also help learners develop their reading skills for different purposes.

Learners are also encouraged to read extensively outside the classroom for enjoyment and information. This will not only improve their proficiency in the language but will also help them to become independent and efficient readers. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to read a variety of texts both in print and in the electronic media for information and enjoyment such as notices, warnings, instructions, directions, recipes, messages, simple passages, letters, advertisements, poems, stories, descriptions, recounts; and maps, charts, graphs, time-tables. Learners should be able to:

3.1 Acquire word recognition and word attack skills so that they are able to recognise sight words.

3.2 Acquire key words at various stages of development.

3.3 Read and understand phrases, sentences, paragraphs and whole texts based on the key words suitable to their level of development.

3.4 Read aloud expressively and fluently pronouncing words correctly and observing correct stress, intonation and sentence rhythm;

3.4 Understand the meaning of words by guessing their meaning through the use of

- base words

- prefixes

- suffixes

- contextual clues;

3.5 Use the dictionary to get the appropriate meaning of words and phrases;

3.6 Acquire additional vocabulary including

- synonyms and antonyms

- homographs and homophones

- compound words and collective nouns

- common proverbs and similes.

3.7 Skim and scan texts for the gist and specific information;

3.8 Read and understand simple factual texts for

- main ideas

- supporting details

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- sequence
- cause and effect relationships;

3.9 Read and enjoy simple stories and poems and respond to them

by

- talking about the people, animals and moral values in the story or poem, and
- relating the story or poem to one's life;

3.10 Read simple texts and predict outcomes at a level suited to learners' ability;

3.11 Read simple texts and make inferences, and draw conclusions;

3.12 Acquire problem-solving skills;

3.13 Read and obtain information from non-linear texts such as timetables, maps, graphs, and diagrams at a level suited to learners' ability; and

3.14 Read widely and independently.

4.0 The Skill of WRITING

In this component, the focus is on developing learners' writing ability beginning at the word and phrase levels and progress to the sentence and paragraph levels. For those who are able and capable, they must be encouraged to write simple compositions comprising several paragraphs. Attention is also paid to penmanship so that even from a young age, learners are taught to write clearly and legibly both in print and cursive writing. In writing simple compositions, learners are taught the various steps involved in writing such as planning, drafting, revising, and editing. In the process, they are also taught to use appropriate vocabulary and correct grammar to get their meaning across clearly.

Although much of the writing at this level is guided, the amount of control is relaxed for

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learners who are able and proficient in the language. All learners are encouraged to write for different purposes and for different audiences. Spelling and dictation are also given emphasis. By the end of their primary schooling, learners should be able to write lists, messages, letters, instructions, directions, simple poems and stories, descriptions, simple recounts and simple reports for various purposes. They should be able to:

4.1 Copy correctly;

4.2 Match words to linear and non-linear texts:

- match word to word
- match word to phrase
- match word to picture or symbol;

4.3 Complete texts with the missing word, phrase, or sentence;

4.4 Write at word, phrase, sentence and paragraph level in clear legible print and cursive writing;

4.5 Construct simple and compound sentences with guidance and independently;

4.6 Write longer texts in the form of paragraphs

- using simple and compound sentences
- in guided and /or free writing;

4.7 Spell correctly and take dictation accurately;

4.8 Punctuate appropriately;

4.9 Give accurate information when writing messages, instructions, simple reports, and when filling in forms;

4.10 Write simple informal letters to friends, parents and other family members, and to pen-pals in a social context;

4.11 Write short simple descriptions of things, events, scenes and what one did and saw;

4.12 Write to express one's feelings and exercise one's creativity such as when writing a diary, composing simple poems and stories, creating greeting cards, posters, etc.;

4.13 Plan, draft, revise, and proof-read one's written work; and

4.14 Communicate with people on the Internet and other electronic media by writing letters, messages, sending birthday greetings, etc.

II LANGUAGE CONTENT

1.0 The Sound System

The sound system forms part of the Language content in the syllabus. To enable learners to become familiar with the different patterns of sound and the different spelling of words that have the same sound, teachers are encouraged to give a wide range of examples. The list below must be taught.

1.1 Consonants, Vowels, and Diphthongs

Consonants – initial, medial, final positions Vowels – long and short sounds

1.2 Consonant clusters

1.3 Stresses in two- three- and four syllable words.

1.4 Stresses in compound words

1.5 Sentence stress and intonation

1.6 Homographs and homophones

1.7 Contractions

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2.0 Grammar

Grammar also forms part of the language contents of the syllabus. These grammar items need to be taught in context and in a meaningful way so that they can be used both in speech and in writing. The grammar items can be reinforced and consolidated if learners encounter the items often enough through the various tasks set. The grammar items should not be taught in isolation but rather in the context of a topic. The listing below must be taught.

2.1 Word Order

2.1.1 Positive and negative statements

2.1.2 Positive and negative questions and response

2.1.3 'Wh' questions and responses – *What Where When Why Who Which How Whose*

2.1.4 Requests, imperatives, commands, responses

2.1.5 Sentence type: simple, compound

2.2 Connectors

2.2.1 Conjunctions – *and but or so although therefore*

2.2.2 Sequence connectors – first next then finally before after

2.3 Verbs

2.3.1 Simple present tense

2.3.2 Simple past tense

2.3.3 Simple future tense

2.3.4 Present continuous tense

2.3.5 Past continuous tense

2.3.6 Future continuous tense

2.3.7 Simple perfect: *has have*

2.3.8 Modals: *can may might must could will would shall should*

2.3.9 Conditional: *If*

2.3.10 Subject-verb agreement

2.4 Articles

2.4.1 Articles with singular and plural countable nouns, and zero article: *a an the*

2.4.2 Articles with non-countable nouns

2.4.3 Articles with proper nouns

2.5 Prepositions

In, out, on, under, by, next, to, near, behind, over, at, between, among, through, above, around, across, from, since, of, off, to, against, in front of, at the back of

2.6 Nouns and Pronouns

2.6.1 Noun forms: countable uncountable collective

2.6.2 Possessives: *his hers theirs ours mine*

2.6.3 Pronoun forms:

Personal – *I he she it they we our us their* Interrogative – *who which what whose where when how why*

2.6.4 Gender: masculine feminine neuter

2.7 Modifiers

2.7.1 Adjectives, Adverbs

2.7.2 Comparative and superlative forms

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3.0 Word List

The word list forms part of the language contents in the curriculum. The words in the list below are some key words that must be mastered by all learners according to their stages of development. More words have been listed in the Curriculum Specifications or *Huraian Sukatan Pelajaran* for each year and these words are listed under various topics. These are the minimum words to be taught and teachers may expand upon the list according to the level and ability of their learners as well as the topic under study.

STAGE 1

I, up, look, we, like, and, on, at, for, he, is, said, go, you, are

STAGE 2

about, after, again, an, another, as, back, ball, be, because, bed, been, boy, brother, but, by, call(ed), came, can't, could, did, do, don't, dig, door, down, first, from, girl, this, going, they, away, play, a, am, cat, to, come, day, the, dog, big, my, mother, good, got, had, half, has, have, help, her, here, him, his, home, house, how, if, jump, just, last, laugh, little, live (d), love, made, make, man, many, may, more, much, must, no, father, all, get, in, went, was, of, me, she, see, it, yes, can, name, new, next, night, not, now, off, old, once, one, or, our, out, over, people, push, pull, put, ran, saw, school, seen, should, sister, so, some, take, than, that, their, them, then, there, these, three, time, to, us, very, want, water

STAGE 3

Above, across, almost, along, also, always, animals, any, around, asked, baby, balloon, before, began, being, below, better, between, birthday, both, brother, brought, can't,

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change, children, clothes, coming, didn't, different, does, don't, during, earth, every, eyes, first, follow (ing) found way, were, what, when, where, who, will, with, would, your, friends, garden, goes, gone, great, half, happy, head, heard, high, I'm, important, inside, jumped, knew, know, lady, leave, light, money, morning, much, near, never, number, often, only, opened, other, outside, own, paper, place, right, round, second, show, sister plus:

Ø days of the week; Ø months of the year; Ø numbers to twenty; Ø common colour Ø pupil's, name, and address; Ø name and address of school; Small, something, sometimes, sound, started, still, stopped, such, suddenly, sure, swimming, think, those, thought, through, today, together, told, turn(ed), under, until, upon, used, walk(ed,) (ing), watch, wear, while, white, why ,window ,without, woke, word, work, world, write, year, young

III EDUCATIONAL EMPHASES

These outline current developments in education that will help learners prepare for the real world. In this respect, moral education, citizenship education, patriotism and thinking skills will contribute towards the building of a modern and progressive society.

1.0 Thinking Skills

Critical and creative thinking skills are incorporated in the learning outcomes to enable learners to solve simple problems, make decisions, and express themselves creatively in simple language.

2.0 Learning How to Learn Skills

These skills are integrated in the learning outcomes and aim to enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning. These skills incorporate study skills and information skills to equip them to become independent life-long learners.

3.0 Information and Communication Technology Skills (ICT)

In this age of globalisation and ICT, skills relating to ICT are incorporated in the learning outcomes. These skills include the use of multimedia resources such as TV documentaries and the Internet as well as the use of computer-related activities such as e-mail activities, networking and interacting with electronic courseware.

4.0 Values and Citizenship

The values contained in the KBSR moral syllabus have been incorporated in the learning outcomes and include patriotism and citizenship.

Multiple Intelligences

The learning outcomes also reflect the incorporation of the theory of Multiple Intelligences. For example, interpersonal intelligence is reflected when learners are taught the polite forms of language expression so as not to offend the people they communicate with. In getting learners to role play or dramatise sections of a text, their kinaesthetic intelligence is nurtured. When learners sing songs, recite poems and chant *jazz chants* either individually or in chorus, their musical intelligence is developed.

Knowledge Acquisition

In teaching the language, content is drawn from subject disciplines such as science, geography, and environmental studies. Content is also drawn from daily news items as well as current affairs.

Preparation for the Real World

The learning outcomes prepare learners to meet the challenges of the real world by focusing on language use in society. In developing learners' ability to listen carefully, speak confidently, read widely and write effectively in the English language, they will be equipped with the requisite skills that will enable them to achieve the long-term goals of pursuing higher education, of being more effective in the workplace, and of becoming a contributing member to the betterment of society and the world at large.

Appendix XY

Tabulated Data of Sample's Writing

f	mutiara	3	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	2	0	0
f	Intan	0	1	0	0
m	mutiara	4	1	0	0
f	mutiara	0	3	0	0
f	mutiara	0	3	0	0
m	mutiara	0	1	0	0
m	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	2	0	2	0
m	Intan	1	0	2	0
m	Rubi	3	0	2	0
f	Rubi	0	1	0	0
f	Rubi	4	0	0	0
m	Rubi	0	0	0	0
m	Rubi	5	0	0	0
f	Rubi	0	0	0	0
f	Rubi	1	2	0	0
m	Rubi	0	3	0	0
m	Rubi	14	0	1	0
f	Rubi	0	1	0	0
f	Rubi	0	0	1	0
m	Rubi	2	0	0	0
m	mutiara	1	0	1	0
f	Rubi	0	0	0	0
m	Rubi	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	5	0	0	0
f	Rubi	3	0	0	0
m	Rubi	3	0	1	1
f	mutiara	4	0	0	0
m	Rubi	0	0	1	0
m	Rubi	0	1	1	0
m	mutiara	0	0	1	0
m	Rubi	3	0	1	0
m	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	0	2	0	0
m	Intan	0	2	0	0
m	Intan	1	1	0	0
f	Intan	0	2	0	0
f	Intan	0	2	1	0
f	Intan	0	2	0	0

f	Intan	1	0	1	0
m	Intan	2	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	4	0	0	0
m	mutiara	2	0	0	0
m	mutiara	0	1	0	0
m	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	2	0	0
m	mutiara	0	4	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	0	2	0	0
m	mutiara	0	1	1	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	0	0	1	1
m	mutiara	1	0	0	1
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	2	2	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	0	3	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	1	1	0
m	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	Intan	1	4	0	1
m	Intan	0	2	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	2	0
m	Intan	4	0	0	0
m	Intan	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	5	2	0	0
m	mutiara	0	1	0	1
m	mutiara	0	3	0	0
f	mutiara	4	1	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	3	0
f	mutiara	0	2	0	0
f	mutiara	0	2	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	0	0
m	mutiara	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	0	0	1	1
m	Intan	0	2	0	0
m	Intan	0	1	0	0
m	Intan	0	1	0	0

f	Intan	0	0	1	2
f	Intan	0	1	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	Intan	3	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	mutiara	2	2	1	1
f	Intan	2	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	0	0	0
f	Intan	0	3	0	0

A- sex

B- class

C- Punctuation

D- Missing verb to be

E- The use of Tamil
word order

F- Wrong spelling of plural nouns

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**Economic Hardship and Emotional Humiliation in
Mulik Raj Anand's *Untouchable***

R. Amudha, M.A., M.Phil.

On the Life of Down-trodden Communities in India

The novel *Untouchable* is a fictional story set in the so-called outcastes' colony outside of an unnamed town during the British rule and is based on the life of the most downtrodden, despised and oppressed section of Indian Society, the outcastes. The story is based on a single day in the life of Bakha, an 18 year old Bhangi, who is a toilet cleaner and a sweeper boy. This novel shows the realistic picture of society.

Bakha, the central character of this novel, is the representative of all the down-trodden society in Pre-Independence India. He is a universal figure to show the oppression, injustice and humiliation done to the whole community of the outcastes in India. He symbolizes the hardships and humiliation which has been the fate of untouchables like him. He suffers because of his caste. With Bakha, the central character, there are other characters who also suffer because of their lower caste. The paper focuses on the hardships and emotional humiliation undergone by the untouchables.

Aches and Agonies

The untouchables lived in mud-walled cottages huddled in a colony and the people who lived there were the scavengers, the leather workers, the washer men, the barbers, the grass-cutters, the sweepers and other outcastes. The conditions which the untouchables are enforced into

are really shocking though one can only share their aches and agonies. Their plight is so dire that even for the fulfillment of the basic needs like water and food, they had to depend on the mercy of high-caste Hindus.

This novel is a faithful record and a transcription of the pathetic plight of untouchables who were subjected to immitigable social indignities only because of their lowly birth.

Bakha

Bakha was the son of Lakha, the jamadar of the sweepers and had to start his routine work with his father's cascade of abuses:

“Get up. Ohe, you Bakhya, ohe, son of pig! ...
Are you up? Get up, you illegally begotten ...

and also with his encounter with high caste people who cannot put up with his very sight. But he was hardworking and he never disobeyed his father despite his repugnance for him and his lifestyle.

Bakha worked in the barracks of a British regiment and was caught by the glamour of the white man's life. The British or 'Tommies' as Bakha called them, treated him with respect despite his caste. The simplest way for Bakha to imitate the Tommies was through “fashun” by which he learned the art of wearing trousers, breeches, coat, boots, etc. He was trying to rise above his caste by westernizing, yet he only received insults from his friends about his dress. They chided him for dressing like a *sahib* and trying to appear to be something he was not.

The Ordeal of Fetching Water from the Community Well

Sohini, Bakha's sister had to go to the community well to fetch water for her tired and thirsty brother. She had to wait near the well for a long time putting up with the lustful men. One of the Hindus, Pandit Kali Nath, drew water for her and called her to his house to clean the courtyard and tried to molest her. But when she shouted to protect herself, he cried out “polluted”, “polluted”. Bakha arrived at the scene only to remain a mute witness, though his first thought was to beat him up. He desperately went home and told his father:

“They think we are mere dirt, because we clean their dirt”.

Assaults in the Bazaar

Bakha had a few *annas* (coins) and wanted to buy some sweet to eat. He asked the shopkeeper to give him jalebis for four annas. The shopkeeper cheated him and, though Bakha knew it, he could not complain. The confectioner threw the packet like a cricket ball, placed the coins on the shoe-board for his assistant to splash some water on them and Bakha walked away embarrassed. As he was eating the sweet with delight, he touched a man without his consciousness. The touched man abused him, gathered a crowd around him and said that he should have warned him of his approach as:

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“Posh, Posh, sweeper coming”

Suddenly one child said that he had beaten children. Though Bakha tried to defend that it was a lie, nobody voiced support him.

“To Bakha, every second seemed an endless age of woe and suffering. His whole demeanour was concentrated in humility, and in his heart there was a queer stirring”.

The touched man slapped him and disappeared. Bakha lost his humility for a while but self revelation came to him later when he realized that he was an untouchable.

Polluting the Place of Gods

The defiant consciousness or the “faint stirrings of rebellion” which had started in Bakha by the slapping incident began to take an articulate form. He entered the temple courtyard to clean it. He became inquisitive to see the hidden mystery in the temple and to know the reason why people came there to worship. He advanced towards the stairs with a determined step but went back to collect the heaps of rubbish. He then strengthened his will and reached the top step and had glimpse of the hidden mystery. But a Brahmin who was standing below shouted “polluted, polluted, polluted”. Immediately, the crowd of people in the temple shouted that he had defiled their whole service.

Woeful Living

The Bhangis had to clean different houses and the owners gave them some bread to eat. This was their means to get their food. Bakha had to remain content with the *rottis* thrown at him by the high caste Hindus. The bread fell on the ground and he picked it up and wrapped it in a duster with the other bread he had received. Charat Singh, the Havildar, gifted Bakha with a hockey stick and when he was playing with the others, a small child got wounded. Bakha picked him up in his arms and took him to the hall of his house to save him. But the child’s mother only said:

“You have defiled my house, besides wounding my son.”

Though Bakha tried to do something good, he was only abused and insulted.

Reasoning, Rationalization, Demands

Deprived of hope and fed up with humiliations, Bakha had a difficult day and had to leave his house. He then had three options placed in front of him. First, a Christian missionary invited him to join Christianity so that the untouchability based on the caste could be removed. But Bakha did not like the idea of being called a sinner. He also felt that the religion of his father was in no way inferior to Christianity. Here, the author suggests that replacing one faith with another will not solve the problem of untouchability and their sufferings but will only further complicate the matter.

The second option was the idea of sacrifice from Mahatma Gandhi, who came there to preach against the discrimination of the lower caste. Gandhi recounted the story of a Brahmin boy and a sweeper in his ashram. The Brahmin said to the sweeper that to do his work well, he must do it himself and set an example. This action while appearing to be sympathetic and understanding, only undermines the very existence of an untouchable because it assumes that they are incapable of doing such menial work well. Gandhi then criticized the untouchables by saying that they have to cultivate habits of cleanliness, must get rid of their 'evil habits' such as drinking liquor, gambling, eating deadmeat and also not to accept leftovers from the plates of high caste Hindus. But Bakha feels and says:

“but now, now the Mahatma is blaming us. That is not fair”.

This suggests that the author's view of Gandhi and his political rhetoric cannot be idealized because it too contains elements of oppression and humiliation.

The third option as a solution to the entire problem was the flush system. Mulk Raj Anand considered that the caste system can only prevail with the job one carried and the easy way to remove it is to upgrade the work environment and bring dignity to each work so that they are economically uplifted and are no more humiliated.

Is Change At Hand?

Thus, the novel *Untouchable* is the story of Bakha who was all enthusiastic and had his own set of dreams. His dreams varied from to dress like a 'Tommie' (Englishman) and also to play hockey. However, his limited means and the circumstances forced him to literally beg for food and get humiliated in each turn of the road.

The nature of their work pulled down bhangis to the last of the table of castes. They were not permitted even to take water from a well. The food was given to them by throwing and if they touched anybody by accident, they were punished. The upper class, however, did not find any untouchability when they molest/molested girls or women from untouchable communities. It is a typical day in the life of the Bhangi, mixed with hunger, hope, small pleasures, humiliations and setbacks.

By the character of Sohini, the author tried to picture the lower caste females. She is the passive sufferer of humiliation. It seems that according to the novel, the only way to alleviate untouchability must come from something beyond the untouchables' control and understanding. As E. M. Forster suggests:

“His Indian day is over and the next day will be like it, but on the surface of the earth if not in the depths of the sky, a change is at hand”.

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Effects of Using Urdu Dictionary as a Teaching Tool for Teaching Urdu in Urdu Language Classroom in Pakistan

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Abstract

Dictionary can be a great tool for teaching and learning language as it covers the language at stretch.

The present study aims at investigating the effects of using a dictionary during language teaching at secondary level. The hypothesis tested was that the use of dictionary brings no difference in language learning.

The study, quantitative in nature, followed a pre-test, post-test single group experimental design. A questionnaire was also administered among the teachers imparting language education. The population of the study consisted of the high school students learning Urdu as a subject as well as the teachers teaching Urdu at this level. Fifty secondary school teachers teaching Urdu at secondary level and 100 students learning Urdu at the said level were selected as the sample of the study. It was found that the use of dictionary during teaching enhanced the language learning. The students started taking more interest in language learning and the use of dictionary made Language in India www.languageinindia.com 215

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language teaching very powerful and learners brought significantly different results from the group who were learning language without using a dictionary.

Key Words: language; teaching and learning; dictionary; students; Urdu.

1. Introduction

Teaching dictionary skills hold great importance in language teaching. Assam (2006:196) advises to avoid negligence about the teaching of dictionary skills and providing them with the education of dictionary culture. Hadebe (2004) suggests that the dictionary skills can be incorporated by including the said activity in “teacher training syllabi”.

A dictionary is a “book about language” (Jackson, 2002:21) which can play a vital role in language teaching. As a reference book, dictionaries help to do away with confusions about a language. Dictionaries have developed not only as a theoretical instrument but as practical tools (Al-Kasimi, 1977) with the increased roles language has assumed. A dictionary, an encyclopaedia and a thesaurus are learner’s great aids to learning. A dictionary is a part of language learners’ essential equipment and may be regarded as the repository of final linguistic authority and a bank account of words. Reliable information about words as well as their usage is taken from it. The success of a dictionary largely depends on the way information is organized and patterned in it.

Dictionaries are a great source of information about words; their origin, their meaning and the context in which they are used. From primary to higher level, it is vocabulary that poses a great deal of problems since vocabulary is more than learning more words; rather it is concerned with knowing more about them.

Words have literal and contextual meanings. The meanings of a word is composed of a number of features: its relation with real world, the association that it carries with it, its relationship with other words in the vocabulary and the regular company that it keeps with other words in sentence and text structure. Many words have more than one meaning (Jackson, 2002).

Dictionaries can be used in class rooms to enhance the impact of language teaching and learning. In order to explain the exact meanings of a word and its use in a particular context, the dictionaries can be used as a part of the curriculum as well. Chi (2003) suggests that the dictionary teaching should be introduced in the curriculum of tertiary level; moreover, she maintains that the teacher of language should be trained about using dictionary.

Urdu is the national language of Pakistan. It is used as a lingua franca in this society where a lot of linguistic diversity exists.

The research work on Urdu language generally and particularly on Urdu lexicography is very little. The teaching of Urdu in the class room is based on literature. From tertiary to master level, literature is used to teach the language. Unfortunately, the syllabi on all the levels do not contain element regarding use of dictionary. As it is stated above, the use of dictionary for teaching language can be of great help. The present study aims at finding out the role of dictionary skills in improving language learning.

1.1 Aim of the study

Dictionaries can play very important role in the learning of language. These comprehensive books of language can be a great source for enhancement of language skill. The main aim of the study is to investigate the effects of using dictionary as a teaching tool during teaching of language to a language class room. The study is limited to find the answer to the following questions:

1.1.1 Research Questions

1. Does dictionary affect language learning?
2. Is there any significant difference between the language learners who use a dictionary and those who do not use a dictionary?

2. Methodology

The method of research opted for this study is quantitative. The study followed a single group pre-test post test experimental design. A questionnaire was also administered among the teachers teaching language to the secondary students.

2.1 Population and sample

The population and sample of the study is as following:

1. The teachers engaged in teaching Urdu at secondary level and the students engaged in learning Urdu language at the same level were selected as the population of the study.
2. 100 students and 50 teachers were selected as the sample of the study. A questionnaire was administered among these teachers. A test of language skills of the students was taken from the students as a pre-test. Then the researchers managed to teach the students language during which they used dictionary as a tool of teaching language. The proper use of dictionary during language learning was also taught separately. After the teaching of 6 weeks, a post-test was conducted and the results were analyzed.

2.2 The Questionnaire

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The questionnaire was adapted from Hartmann (1999), Nesi (2000), Tono (2001), Lan (2009) and Ahmad (2009). The questionnaire included 13 questions. The questionnaire was administered among the teachers teaching language at secondary level. The questionnaire included questions about the habits of using dictionaries, the use of specific type of the dictionary, the frequency of dictionary use during language teaching tasks, information about the ownership of dictionaries, the use of electronic and online dictionaries and teaching the use of dictionaries in language class rooms.

2.3 The Test

A pre-test was taken from the selected 100 students to assess their language skills. Then training was managed one hour daily for six weeks about the use of a dictionary during language learning tasks. After the training, a post-test was administered to the same group of students. The pre-test and the post-test included 100 questions based on the following areas:

1. Using dictionary to know the meaning of lexemes.
2. Finding out grammatical information in a dictionary.
3. Arranging lexemes in alphabetical order.
4. Explaining pronunciations of the words.
5. Finding collocations of phrases and idioms from the dictionary.

The test was evaluated and t-test was used to compare the results of pre-test and post-test results.

3. Findings

The findings of the tests and questionnaire are discussed below separately:

3.1 The test

The students selected as sample went through an experiment. A test was administered among these students before the start of the study. The researchers then taught the students for 6 weeks. During the training of the students, the researchers used dictionary as a tool of teaching. A training of dictionary use was also given to the same group of student. The results of both the tests were calculated using t-test experimental design. Following are the results of the test:

Table 1: T-test Whole Sample

		Mean	N	St. Deviation	T Value	P Value
Pair	Overall Pre-test	45.02	100	14.94	-32.66	.001
1	Overall Post-test	51.71	100	15.98		

Table 1 shows the results for the whole sample. The comparison of the achievements of the whole group from the pre-test to the post-test reflects a change of the mean score from 45.02 to 51.71. Hence there is a mean difference of 6.69. The t value is quite high at -32.66 which is quite significant at the selected probability level. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference between the achievement of the whole group on the pre-test and the post-test scores.

Table 2: Low Achievers

		Mean	N	St. Deviation	T Value	P Value
Pair	Overall Pre-test	32.04	50	7.35	-19.83	.0001
1	Overall Post-test	39	50	9.20		

The comparison of the achievements of the low achievers from the pre-test to the post-test reflects a change of the mean score from 34.04 to 39. Hence there is a mean difference of 6.96. The t value is quite high at -19.83, which is quite significant at the selected probability level. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference between the achievement of the low achievers on the pre-test and the post-test scores.

Table 3: High Achievers

		Mean	N	St. Deviation	T Value	P Value
Pair	Overall Pre-test	58	50	7.28	-30.48	.0001
1	Overall Post-test	64.4	50	6.76		

The comparison of the achievements of the High Achievers from the pre-test to the post-test reflects a change of the mean score from 58 to 64.4. Hence there is a mean difference of 6.4. The t value is quite high at -30.48 which is quite significant at the selected probability level. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference between the achievement of the High achievers on the pre-test and the post-test scores.

3.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered among 50 language teachers imparting language education at secondary level. The analysis in table 4 is drawn manually based on the responses of the respondents.

Table 4: Analysis of questionnaires

Sr. #	Statement	Always	Nearly Always	Half of the time	Rarely	Never
1	I use a dictionary while language learning.	10* 20%**	05 10%	07 14%	18 36%	10 20%
2	I use a monolingual dictionary.	21 42%	11 22%	10 20%	07 14%	01 02%
3	I use a bilingual dictionary.	10 20%	22 44%	08 40%	03 06%	07 14%
4	I got a training of dictionary use.	00 0%	03 06%	06 12%	07 14%	34 68%
5	My teachers used a dictionary during teaching language in class room.	00 0%	00 0%	01 02%	03 06%	46 92%
6	We were encouraged to use a dictionary while language learning.	00 0%	00 0%	00 0%	06 12%	44 88%
7	Dictionary use enhances language learning.	36 72%	12 24%	02 04%	00 0%	00 0%
8	Dictionary is an enjoyable activity.	10 20%	05 10%	21 42%	04 8%	10 20%
9	I use dictionary as a tool of language teaching to the language learners.	02 4%	05 10%	03 6%	11 22%	29 58%
10	I encourage my students to use a dictionary.	07 14%	09 18%	14 28%	08 16%	12 24%

*The Numbers in the columns show the frequency of the responses.

** The percentages are denoting percentages of this frequency, calculated manually.

The table 4 shows the results of the analysis of the questionnaires administered among the teachers. The results show that the most of the teachers avoid (20%) or try to avoid (36%) dictionary use. The teachers who claim to use a dictionary regularly are only 20% which is a very low ratio. The use of monolingual dictionary is almost equal. The users who always or nearly always use a monolingual or a bilingual dictionary is 32%.

The training of dictionary use in Pakistan is almost nothing. 68% of the teachers never and 14% rarely got a training of dictionary use. They learnt the use of dictionary by hit and trial method. Only 18% of the respondents are those who got the training half of the time or more than it. The teachers claimed that their teachers did not use a dictionary in the class room (92%), and only 6% of the respondents said that their teachers rarely used a dictionary in the class room for teaching. Same is the case with question of encouraging the learners towards getting help from a dictionary to enhance the learning. The respondents told that in 88% cases, they were never encouraged to use a dictionary. Only 12% were such teachers who said that they were rarely encouraged for this activity.

Though the respondents gave a mixed response regarding the activity of dictionary use; 30% declared it always or nearly always enjoyable and 42% admitted that it is enjoyable half of the time, there was a clear cut opinion of the teachers that the dictionary use enhances the learning of language (72+24%=96%).

The teachers, despite the fact that they affirmed that the dictionary use can improve language learning, told that they mostly (58%) do not use a dictionary as a tool of teaching or they rarely (22%) use it. That is the perhaps reason that they do not encourage (24%), rarely encourage (14%) or half of the time (28%) encourage their students to use a dictionary.

The results show a very hopeless situation of dictionary use in Pakistan. Though the teachers know that the use of a dictionary is very helpful in language learning, it increases the language abilities and basic knowledge of a learner about the language, they do not attempt to inculcate the activity in teaching practices. The teachers were not trained to use a dictionary and now they are trying to keep that custom alive.

4. Conclusion

The above discussion elucidates that the use of dictionary in the class room as a tool of language learning and training the students about the appropriate use of the dictionary effects the learning positively. It serves a lot in improving language skills. The students showed great interest in using dictionary for knowing language during the treatment. The students themselves explored

about the language and it was a fascinating experience for them. They were not used to it. The language was being taught through the instructions of the teacher or by consulting help books. Hadebe (2004) has recommended that the teachers should be taught using dictionary which is only possible through the training of teachers.

The teachers established the view that the dictionary use can be of great help in learning a language. However, they admit that they do not ask the students to use a dictionary. They started using a dictionary by chance and they are expecting the same from their students. They admit that the dictionary can be an enormous source of learning language and it can accelerate the process of learning, they do not encourage their students to pick up a dictionary to consult it.

The study suggests that there is a terrible need of introducing dictionary use in the language class room. It can be done by incorporating dictionary use in curriculum with which we will be getting maximum and rapid results from language teaching.

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Acoustic Correlates of Stress in Mizo, a Tonal Language

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Abstract

As, tone languages use pitch and stress to signal a difference in meaning between words (A very 1977), , the acoustic factors which contribute to this stress patterns in tone languages may differ from the stress patterns in non tone language. Hence the present study aimed at identifying the acoustic correlates of stress in the Mizo language.

A total of 22 native Mizo speakers participated in the study. Ten Mizo phrases were selected. All the speakers were asked to say those phrases in stressed and unstressed conditions. Recorded phrases were subjected to acoustical analysis and Tone Duration, Tone Height and Peak Amplitude was measured and S-ratios for the same parameters were calculated.

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The results indicated that tone speakers give stress by increasing the duration of the word or the syllable and also, they perceive stress with increased duration of the word or the syllable. Tone duration was the major cue for stress in Mizo language which is in consonance with other studies in tone languages. The obtained data will foster our understanding of the behavior of stress in tone languages. It will provide a thrust to the long felt need for research in the field of prosody in tonal languages of India.

Introduction

A tonal language is one having a lexically significant, contrastive but relative pitch on each syllable (Beach, 1924). Tone language has four basic characteristics:

- i. Lexically significant pitch (pitch distinguishes the meanings of words).
- ii. Contrastive pitch (pitch that can be differing within a functional system).
- iii. Relative pitch (relative height of the toneme)
- iv. Significant pitch unit.

Most frequently there is one to one correlation between the number of syllables and the number of tonemes in any specific word. However, a syllable may have more than one toneme, or a combination of tonemes.

Tone in Linguistic Descriptions

Tone was not part of the European philological tradition which provided the frame work for the description of languages before the 20th century. While concepts such as quality, accent, were familiar to classical scholars before the rise of linguistics in the modern sense, this is not true of tone. The reasons for this are clear as none of the major European languages are tone languages in the full sense, and acquaintance with non-European languages was quite limited before the modern era.

Similar is the situation within Indian linguistic traditions as well. A lot of effort has gone into the description of sentence intonations, both in the Sanskrit and non-Sanskrit (Tamil) traditional grammars. Meaning differences caused by intonations in sentence level have been described elaborately, taking into consideration both (linguistic) structural and social implications. But, as tone was not very significant in most of the Indian languages, and as Punjabi was yet to be

described in great detail within Indian traditions, tone did not receive much attention, although there are some references to the role of tone in these grammatical traditions.

The role of tone in some of the world's languages had nevertheless begun to be appreciated in the course of the nineteenth century, primarily as a result of the linguistic activities of European missionaries in Africa and Asia.

Tonal Languages in the World

The languages of South Eastern Asia, (China, and Indo-China) and West and South Africa (Sudanic, Bantu, Bushman and the Hottentot group) are largely tonal (Tucker, 1940). In North America, various tone languages are found in South Western (Mexico, Mazateco, Otomi, Tlapaneco, Trique and Zapoteco) regions. There are very few studies on tone languages spoken in North- Eastern part of India (Manipuri, Mizo and Naga languages), which belong to Kuki-chin group of the Tibeto Chinese subfamily.

Efforts have been made to investigate the production and perception of tone in past. Researchers have tried to investigate the type of tones, its perception and cues used by the native and non native speakers for the perception, identification and discrimination of tones. Most of these studies are on Cantonese, Thai and Mandarin-Chinese languages.

Study of Tonal Languages of India

Early studies of Indian languages spoken in the Himalayan region and in the North-Eastern region of India (Assam, Nagaland, Manipur, Arunachal, etc.) have attempted to detail aspects of tones in the Tibeto-Burman family of languages. *Linguistic Survey of India* volumes edited by G.A. Grierson consistently make it a point to describe the tones used in these languages and used a variety of tones even to sub-classify these languages under various groups, apart from using a number of morphological, syntactic and semantic features for the purpose.

There are a good number of studies on the tone languages of India in recent decades. Central Institute of Indian Languages in Mysore, Karnataka, have come up with various phonetic readers of several Tibeto-Burman languages, such Manipuri, Thadou, Ao Naga, Angami Naga, etc., including several languages spoken in the Ladakh region as well as other Himalayan regions. Researchers at the Department of Linguistics, University of Delhi have also focused on the study

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of the languages of the North-Eastern India, which has many tonal languages. A few researchers (Radhakrishnan, 2005; Rohini, 2007) have studied the types of tone in Mizo and Manipuri language and the perception of these tones by native and non-native speakers.

Suprasegmental

The term “suprasegmental” refers to those properties of an utterance which do not belong to any single segment. The supra segmental properties are stress, tone, intonation, length and organization of segments into syllables. Sweet (1878) was the first one to talk about stress. He said that stress is a comparative force and called it as extra physical effort.

Bolinger (1958) and Jassem & Gibbon (1980) regard stress as an abstract category, as potential accent, and ‘accent’ as its observable manifestation. Abercrombie (1976) and Laver (1994) regarded accent as potential for stress and stress as the actual physical occurrence of it. Bolinger (1958) implies the possibility of more and less prominent pitch accent by referring to stress as ‘the most prominent one in the utterances’. The acoustic correlate of stress varies depending on the language under the study.

Stress is cued by acoustic parameters such as increased F₀, increased A₀, prolonged duration or change in the vowel quality. The importance of these parameters indicating stress is language dependant. Stress is the relative force with which a given sound, syllable or word is pronounced. Stress is assigned to that syllable of a word which stands out more conspicuously. It is conveyed by variation of frequency, intonation, duration and pause (Hargrove and McGarr, 1994). While in languages such as English (Bolinger, 1958; Morton & Jassem, 1965), Polish (Jassem, Morten & Steffen-Botog, 1968) and French (Rigault, 1962), F₀ is the primary acoustic correlate of stress whereas duration is found to be major correlate in Swedish (Westin, Buddenhagen & Obrecht, 1966), Estonian (Lehiste, 1968a), Italian (Bertinetto, 1980), Tamil (Balasubramanyam, 1981), and Kannada (Savithri, 1987; Raju Pratap, 1991; Savithri 1999).

Very few studies on stress have been done in Indian languages. Some of the works done in Indian languages are summarized in the table 1.

Language	Author	Year	Cue for stress
Kannada	Rathna et al,	1981	Do, Ao
Kannada	Savithri	1987	Do
Kannada	Raju Prathap	1991	Do
Kannada	Savithri	1999	Do
Hindi	Ruchi et. al.	2007	Do, Fo

Table 1: Cues for stress in different languages (Indian studies)

Pitch and Stress

Tone languages use pitch and stress to signal a difference in meaning between words (Avery 1977), these pitch variations are an important part of the language. In these languages, word meanings or grammatical categories such as tense are dependent on stress. Stress is assigned to that syllable of a word which stands out more conspicuously. There may be various acoustic factors which contribute to this stress patterns in tonal languages. Duration was the major cue for stress in Serbo-Croatian which is a tone language. So, the present study will help in understanding factors related to the stress patterns in the tonal language.

Need for the study

India is a country with a variety of languages, Dravidian, Indo-Aryan, Austric and Tibeto-Burman. In the past, several studies on perceptual and acoustic correlates of stress have been carried out in Indian languages, especially in Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages. There are no studies analyzing stress in tone languages of India. Hence, the present study was planned.

Aim of the study

To identify the acoustic correlates of stress in the Mizo language.

Methodology

Subjects – A total 22 native Mizo speakers (11 males and 11 females) in the age range of 20-23 years served as the subjects for the study. All subjects were native Mizo speakers pursuing their graduation in LL.B at Mysore University. They were screened for any speech, language, hearing, cognitive and neurological deficits.

Material – Ten Mizo phrases (noun + adjective) served as the stimuli. Geminate clusters and aspirated syllables were avoided during the selection of stimuli and a constant syllable length was maintained in the phrases. Table 2 shows the stimuli used for the study.

Sl/No.	Phrases
1.	in lian
2.	dhokan sein
3.	sakour dum
4.	kor moi
5.	in moi
6.	lirthei thar
7.	kezungpui the
8.	kong zau
9.	mi the
10.	puan var

Table 2: phrases used for the study

Procedure – The subjects were asked to say each phrase in two conditions; first, with no stress i.e., speaking as naturally as possible and secondly, stressing the second word i.e., the adjective.

The stimuli were recorded using sandisk m200 digital recorder. It was digitized at a sampling frequency of 16 KHz using a 12 bit A/D converter and during the recording, speakers were seated comfortably in noise-free environment and the microphone was placed at a distance of 8-10 cm from the mouth.

Two Mizo native speakers listened to the recorded samples of the subjects and were asked whether the two conditions (stressed and unstressed) were produced correctly or not. Out of 22 subjects, 2 speakers' data was eliminated from the study as the stress pattern produced by them was judged inappropriate by the Mizo listeners. All the phrases (400 phrases) were subjected to acoustic analyses using PRAAT software (version 4.5.06; Paul and David 2006; University of Amsterdam) and the following parameters were extracted:

- a) Tone Height (TH) will be measured as the difference between the starting (A) and ending point (B) of Fo contour. $TH = A - B$ (in Hz).
- b) Tone duration (TD) will be measured as the time difference between the starting and ending point of the Fo contour (in msc).
- c) Peak Intensity/ Amplitude (PA) will be measured as the maximum intensity in the utterance (in dB).

S-Ratio i.e., difference between stressed and unstressed words for males and females were found and tabulated.

Statistical analysis – Paired sample t-Test at 0.01 level of significance was done to compare the acoustical correlates of stress (Tone Height, Tone Duration and Peak Amplitude) across two conditions (stressed and unstressed). SPSS software (10th version) was used for analysis.

Results & discussion

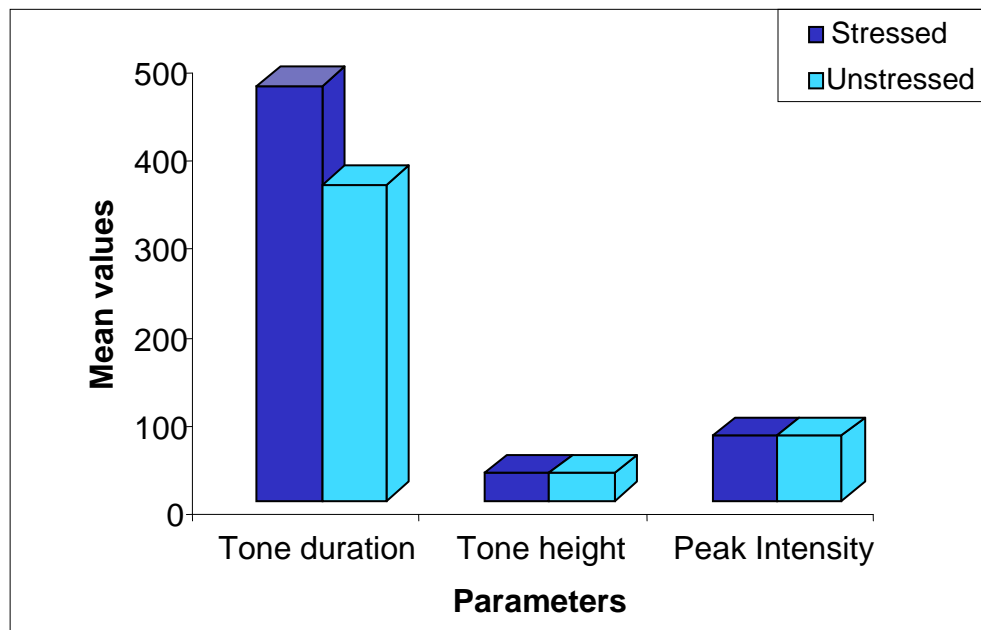
The present study aimed at analyzing the acoustic correlates of stress patterns in the Mizo language. Paired sample t-Test was done to compare the three acoustical correlates of stress (Tone Height, Tone Duration and Peak Amplitude) for two conditions (stressed and unstressed). Mean and standard deviation of TH, TD, and PA for stressed and unstressed condition are depicted in table 3.

Correlates	Condition	Mean	SD
TD	Stressed	470.18	95.15
	Unstressed	358.65	78.35
TH	Stressed	31.37	21.37
	Unstressed	30.42	18.12

PA	Stressed	74.06	9.52
	Unstressed	73.59	9.65

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation of TD, TH and PA for Stressed and Unstressed words.

There was a statistically significant difference found between stressed and unstressed conditions ($t = 111.52, p < 0.01$) for TD. But there was no significant difference found for TH ($t = 0.953, p > 0.01$) and PA ($t = 0.465, p > 0.01$) for stressed and unstressed conditions. Graph 1 depicts mean values for TD, TH and PA for Stressed and Unstressed conditions which clearly indicates that the TD was significantly different for both the conditions than TH and PA.



Graph 1: Mean values for TD, TH and PA for Stressed and Unstressed conditions.

The results of acoustic analysis indicated that tone duration (TD) was the major cue for stress in Mizo language. This is further supported by a very high S-ratio obtained for TD (Table 4).

Acoustic cues	S –ratio
Tone Duration (msec)	120.46
Tone Height (Hz)	2.31
Peak Intensity/ Amplitude (dB)	4.17

Table 4: S-ratio for tone duration tone height, and peak intensity/ amplitude for stressed and unstressed conditions.

Results indicated that tone speakers give stress by increasing the duration of the word or the syllable and they also perceive the stress with increased duration of the word or the syllable. The results are in consonance with the studies done on Estonian (Lehiste,1968) and Serbo-Croatian (Rehder,1968).

Thus, this data supports the notion that acoustic cues of stress differs across languages. The relative pitch (i.e.TH) is lexically significant in a tone language, i.e., change in TH changes the meaning of the word. Intensity cannot be a major cue for stress due to various factors such as intrinsic properties of the speech sounds, interaction between Fo & formant data, transition factor, and recording variables. Thus TD can cue stress in tone languages as seen in this study.

Conclusion

In this study we analyzed the acoustic correlates of stress in Mizo language and it was found that the tone duration was the major cue for stress in Mizo language which is in consonance with other studies in tone languages. The obtained data will foster our understanding of the behavior of stress. It will provide a thrust to the long felt need for research in the field of prosody in tonal languages of India. Further, stress analysis should be done on speech and language disorders (like Hearing impairment & dysprosody) in tone language to better understand prosodic deficits in them. It will also be a useful input in text to speech synthesis and can also be used in forensic sciences in the speech identification.

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Racism and the American Dream in John Steinbeck's
Of Mice and Men

R. Anitha, M.A., M.Phil.

Life in Great Depression

John Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men* was first published in 1937. At the time, America was still suffering the grim aftermath of the Depression. The itinerant workers who form the basis of the novel were very much within the consciousness of a nation separated by wealth, yet driven by the idea of "the American Dream". Like many other novelists of this period Steinbeck also explores what was happening in the country during the Great depression.

Focus on Poor Farmers

The novel focuses mainly on the poor farmers of rural America. Because of the drought and the Great depression the bank owners foreclosed the farms in the Mid West. The farmers were driven from their home by drought, economic hardships and changes in the agriculture and industry.

The Structure

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Racism and the American Dream in Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men*

Steinbeck conceived *Of Mice and Men* as a potential play. Each chapter is arranged as a scene, and each scene is confined to a single space: a secluded grove, a bunkhouse, and a barn. The setting is south of San Francisco in the Salina's valley of California.

The novella recounts the tragic story of George Milton and Lennie Small, two lonely itinerant farm workers who belong to nowhere and to no one but themselves. George has accepted the burden of protecting the mentally incompetent physically strong Lennie from the tricks of the ranch bosses and workers. On the other hand by doing so George has reduced the possibilities of his own attainment of independence and peace. George and Lennie beyond having found companionship, they have a dream of finding a fixed place they could call home and a farm of their own. This dream of course does not come to fruition.

“His voice rose nearly to a shout. "You crazy son-of-a-bitch. You keep me in hot water all of the time." He took on the elaborate manner of little girls when they are mimicking one another. "Jus" wanted to feel that girl's dress—jus' wanted to pet it like it was a mouse—Well, how the hell did she know you jus' wanted to feel her dress? She jerks back and you hold on like it was a mouse. She yells and we got to hide in an irrigation ditch all day with guys lookin' for us, and we got to sneak out in the dark and get outta the county”.

These lines show George's feeling towards Lennie.

Unfit to Live?

It was the period when people who were unable to work were seen by themselves and others as unfit to live. Both young and old generations of this period agreed that working was akin to living. With unemployment being an unfavorable option, many people's sense of helplessness lead them to kill a debilitated person. In this book Candy's dog and Lennie fall victim to mercy killing on the 1930's California ranch. Societal viewpoints, pity and unemployment were the cause of such tragedies, which Steinbeck employs to satirize the crooked ideals of 1930's America.

“Slim's words,” I wish't somebody'd shoot me if I got old an'a cripple” (41) reveals the general ideology of the time.

Introducing the Characters

Upon arrival at the ranch, Steinbeck takes the opportunity to introduce the reader, through the newcomers, the other characters. The author uses each of these characters in a different way to show loneliness and isolation experienced by each of them. In scenes such as this one, Steinbeck records a profound human truth: oppression does not come only from the hands of the strong or the powerful.

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Racism and the American Dream in Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men*

The Dreams

Throughout the novella Steinbeck retells the dream of the characters living on the ranch. Itinerant workers only fulfill one step in their work on a farm. They seed the earth, or they haul in the crop. George and Lennie's words of "a few acres" speak of their dream of planting and gardening. It speaks on their longing to join the natural cycles of the world. Their talk of raising cows and drinking their milk, tending a vegetable garden contrasts their daily diet – a can beans.

Social Treatment of the Differently Challenged People

Another concept dealt by Steinbeck here is his characters are either fit or unfit for their social roles according to their physical and mental abilities. For example Candy and Crooks who are aged and crooked backed respectively are given menial tasks on the ranch. These people are treated disrespectfully. Lennie who is intellectually weak also faces the same fate. He lacks a basic sense of right and wrong, he is unable to look after himself. Though he is likeable when George is around, he is uncontrollable. He attracts scorn rather than sympathy for his impairments. Another notable example is Candy's dog. This dog that is judged offensive is shot dead. He is the symbol of cruel fate that awaits the feeble.

Human Suffering

Steinbeck set out to expose and chronicle the circumstances that cause human suffering. Here, George relates that loneliness is responsible for much of that suffering, a theory supported by many of the secondary characters. Throughout the story Candy, Crooks, and Curley's wife all give moving speeches about their loneliness and disappointments in life. Steinbeck stress that human beings are at their best when they have someone else with them for guidance and protection. George and Lennie are extremely lucky to have each other since most men do not enjoy this comfort especially people who exist on the margins of society.

The Place of Racism

Racism is undeniable and explicit in the text. This is a powerful force which ignites the tragedy of the storyline. It is one of the ideologies of America that had a devastating effect on the society. Ill-treatment of the blacks by the whites revealed through the unnatural position of the blacks in the ranch.

In *Of Mice and Men*, the Black, crippled and isolated Crooks is abused by the Whites. Crook's room is the part where we learn the inner lives of Crooks, Lennie, Curly's wife Candy. The setting of his room sheds light on the life of Crook's; it shows that he is a

man of learning yet very lonely. Because he is black, the other men shun him; he spends his time alone and better. Crook's is called the "stable nigger" throughout the novel.

The Forces of Evil

Steinbeck's use of symbolism like "A water snake glided smoothly up the pool, twisting its periscope head from side to side; and it swam the length of the pool and came to the legs of a motionless heron that stood in the shallows. A silent head and beak lanced down and plucked it out by the head, and the beak swallowed the little snake while its tail waved frantically". show how the forces of evil appear and cause the fall of humanity .He skillfully employs the snake to emphasize the predatory nature of the world and to foreshadow Lennie's imminent death. .

Itinerant Workers in India

In conclusion, it must be said that Steinbeck is able to highlight the loneliness of the itinerant workers, which is an outcome of the ideologies that prevent the kind of independence these characters long for. Steinbeck has made a nationwide problem human.

Steinbeck has been appreciated by many Indian writers for his devoted description of the poor and needy. However, our presentation of Indian itinerant workers is still rather scanty in literatures in Indian languages.

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**Stimulating Language Strategies through Thinking -
Help for Slow Learners**

M. Barathiraja & G. Baskaran, Ph.D.

Importance of Communicative Skills and Learning Strategies

Learning a language involves communicating with other people. Therefore it needs not only suitable cognitive skills but also some social and communicative skills. An attempt has been taken in this paper to characterize good and poor language learners and accordingly create space for them inside the classroom structure to improve the good and set right the bad. Identifying such students itself is a serious task in Indian situation. A number of studies indicate that the developing learners actually undergo the same strategies as those used by the successful learners. Further research is equally going on in institutions dealing with language learning.

An important question to ask at this juncture is why we should be highly interested in learning strategies. Why are some people learning better than others?

Help for Slow Learners

We can make the slow/inattentive learners into enabled by following these practices.

1. By raising questions again and again
2. Repeating words over again and again

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Stimulating Language Strategies through Thinking – Help for Slow Learners

3. Trying to work out the rules of the language by forming hypotheses
4. Guessing the meanings of unknown words
5. Ask the learner to frame a new sentence by using the knowledge of language rules.

Current Trend: Emphasis on Learners

There has been a prominent shift within the field of language learning and teaching over the last twenty years with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. And the books are increasingly learner-centered. A large numbers of grammar and study exercises are drafted using this format to make the students learn themselves.

Research Orientation

As parallel to this shift in interest, we seek to learn how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand. Learn or remember the information has been the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of foreign language learning. Questionnaires are prepared with the intention of enabling the students to answer the questions raised. For example, if the learner is reading a question like this, “Is this the college where you are learning the art of speaking?,” he or she can easily frame the answer and say, “Yes, this is the college where I am learning the art of speaking”.

Usefulness of Learning Strategies – Valuable Clues

Since the amount of information to be processed by language learners is high in language classroom, learners use different language learning strategies in performing the tasks and processing the new input they receive. The learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning.

In other words, language learning strategies, while non-observable in some sense, or unconsciously used in some cases, give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom. With a short span of time and space, students need to fulfill the learning task.

Every strategy is a raw strategy in some sense, and the learner views or interprets the strategy genuinely in a mystic way. Sometimes the learner may go to the extreme point of leaving the task for some other. At times, the motivating teacher has to come forward to rescue the learner from the pitfall and make him/her learn using the context provided to them.

Various Types of Strategies

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According to Fedderholdt (1997:1) the language learner capable of using a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately can improve his language skills in a better way.

i. Metacognitive strategies improve organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation.

ii. Cognitive strategies include using previous knowledge to help solve new problems.

iii. Socioaffective strategies include asking native speakers to correct their pronunciation, or asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem.

Developing skills in three areas, such as metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective can help the language learner build up learner independence and autonomy whereby he can take control of his own learning.

Building Self Confidence and Competence – Teachers to Become Familiar with Learning Strategies

Lessard-Clouston (1997:3) states that language learning strategies contribute to the development of the communicative competence of the students irrespective of their age and gender. Being a broad concept, language learning strategies are used to refer to all strategies foreign language learners use in learning the target language and communication strategies are one type of language learning strategies. It follows from this that the language teachers aiming at developing the communicative competence of the students and language learning should be familiar with language learning strategies.

As Oxford (1990:1) states, language learning strategies "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence."

Besides developing the communicative competence of the students, teachers who train students to use language learning strategies can help them become better language learners. Helping students understand good language learning strategies and training them to develop and use such strategies can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston 1997:3).

If the strategies are not taught to the learners, they may misunderstand and may not be able to apply the same in the learning process. The success rate of the strategy application method involves in many layers as guidance becomes appropriate and meaningful to learning.

Why Some Students Do Not Succeed, Even When They Use Good Strategies?

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Research into the good language learning strategies revealed a number of positive strategies so that such strategies could also be used by bad language learners trying to become more successful in language learning. However, there is always the possibility that bad language learners can also use the same good language learning strategies while becoming unsuccessful owing to some other reasons. At this point, it should be strongly stressed that using the same good language learning strategies does not guarantee that bad learners will also become successful in language learning since other factors may also play role in success.

What Should Teachers Do?

The language teacher aiming at training his students in using language learning strategies should learn about the students, their interests, motivations, and learning styles. The teacher can learn what language learning strategies students already appear to be using, observing their behavior in class.

Do they ask for clarification, verification or correction? Do they cooperate with their peers or seem to have much contact outside of class with proficient foreign language users?

Besides observing their students' behavior in class, the teacher can prepare a short questionnaire so that students can fill in at the beginning of a course to describe themselves and their language learning. Thus, the teacher can learn the purpose of their learning a language, their favorite/least favorite kinds of class activities, and the reason why they learn a language. The teacher should have both the knowledge of the learner and the strategy. What quantum of learning that the learner needs accordingly the teacher devices the method and dose to him.

Let Teachers Master These Essentials

The teacher can have adequate knowledge about the students, their goals, motivations, language learning strategies, and their understanding of the course to be taught (Lessard-Clouston 1997:5).

It is a fact that each learner within the same classroom may have different learning styles and varied awareness of the use of strategies.

The teacher cannot attribute importance to only one group and support the analytical approach or only give input by using the auditory mode. The language teacher should, therefore, provide a wide range of learning strategies in order to meet the needs and expectations of his students possessing different learning styles, motivations, strategy preferences, etc. Therefore, it can be stated that the most important teacher role in foreign

language teaching is the provision of a range of tasks to match varied learning styles (Hall 1997:4).

The Role of Textbooks in Mastering Strategies and Implementing Them

In addition to the students, the language teacher should also analyze his textbook to see whether the textbook already includes language learning strategies or language learning strategies training. The language teacher should look for new texts or other teaching materials if language learning strategies are not already included within his materials. The text should always suit to the need of the situation and the content should somehow be prepared with local colouring – known messages make the learner familiar with the subject which makes the learner concentrate more on the skills.

Updating One's Own Method

The language teacher should also study his own teaching method and overall classroom style. Analyzing his lesson plans, the language teacher can determine whether his lesson plans give learners chance to use a variety of learning styles and strategies or not. The teacher can see whether his teaching allows learners to approach the task at hand in different ways or not.

The language teacher can also be aware of whether his strategy training is implicit, explicit, or both. It should be emphasized that questioning himself about what he plans to do before each lesson and evaluating his lesson plan after the lesson in terms of strategy training, the teacher can become better prepared to focus on language learning strategies and strategy training during the process of his teaching (Lessard-Clouston 1997:5).

Task-Based Language Learning Techniques

Learning a new language can be done by many ways. One can learn by imitation, observation, and by rehearsing the language. If a child learns the art through the parents, the learning process is easy because of the human touch and tolerance. And in the case of the grown up children or students of any discipline, it is not easy because the learners do not show any interest or involvement. Then it was thought of an alternate way which is nothing but Task Based Learning Techniques [TBLT].

The "Task-Based Learning Strategies" focus on how students can use their own resources to learn most effectively. There are 16 task-based strategies in the list. We have divided them into four categories that are grouped by the kinds of resources students already have, or can get, to help them complete specific tasks. By focusing students' attention on their resources, we emphasize their ability to take responsibility for their own learning.

The four categories are:

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- Use What You Know
- Use Your Imagination
- Use Your Organizational Skills
- Use a Variety of Resources

Within each of these four groups, you will find specific strategies that are examples of what the students can do with these resources to help them learn. Some innovative but simple thinking to handle the language learners would be of very much essential at the present juncture because the student community, irrespective of their disciplines, needs a fresh outlook which may not be already in existence.

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**Masses as the True Makers of History -
Analysis of the Play *The Trial of Dedan Mimathi***

N. Bhuvana, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

Colonial Rule and Modern African Literature

Modern African Literature developed out of the experiences under colonial rule. A closer examination of some of the writers like Ngugi wa Thiong'o reveals the above truth. His plays particularly show a political commitment that grew out of a historical experience as the basis for the creation of a work of art.

Focus of the Struggle for Freedom

Ngugi is concerned with "the struggle for freedom" in his writings. This struggle is at times against the colonial power or at times against bureaucracy in general. Getting freedom from alien rule was, however, not an easy task for the people of Africa. Thousands of people sacrificed their lives for the sake of their country.

Use of Violence to Gain Freedom

The Kenyan freedom struggle was different from that of the other countries that were under colonial rule. The Kenyans had to use violence to oust the British from their land. After the Second World War that Mau Mau Movement led by Dedan Kimathi and others unleashed a reign

of terror on the British and employed guerilla tactics to counter the alien power and liberate the land. The main objective of Mau Mau was to drive out the Europeans and give back the peasants of their country their stolen land and property.

Ngugi was a staunch advocate of Mau Mau and kept the movement alive in his works. Ngugi however believes that as writers, as historians, as Kenyan intellectuals they must be able to tell stories or histories_ history of heroic resistance to foreign domination by the Kenyan people. Kenyan Literature until then had hardly depicted the people who changed their history.

Literature and Class Power Structures –Recording History for Future Generations

According to Ngugi, ‘literature cannot escape from the class power structures that shape our everyday life. Here a writer has no choice. Whether or not he is aware of it, his works reflect one or more aspects of the intense economic, political, cultural and ideological struggles in a society...Every writer is a writer in politics’ (Preface, *Writers in Politics* ii).

It was felt that the deeds and history of those heroes who fought against the exploitation and domination of foreign forces should be recorded for children of future generations to read.

The Story of Dedan Kimathi

Thus, both Ngugi and Micere Githae Mugo built a powerful and challenging play out of the trial of one of the most celebrated leaders of the Mau Mau revolution Dedan Kimathi. He was an important member of Kenya’s militant nationalist group, the Mau Mau. In 1950 he subscribed to the oath of the Mau Mau, the group demanding freedom and the return of Kenyan land from the British. In 1956, Kimathi was captured and was sentenced to death. He was hanged on February 18th 1957 at Nairobi Prison and was buried in a mass grave. Kimathi became a folk hero among the people of Kenya. Kamathi’s life inspired several literary and historical works.

The Process of Writing a Play

Ngugi and Micere Githae Mugo decided to co-author this play and they visited the birth place of Kimathi with the aim of eliciting firsthand assessment of this leader. They discovered that he was still a hero of the Kenyan masses. The people there were proud of him and spoke a lot about him as a dedicated teacher, a committed organizer of a theatre group and above all as a man with a good sense of humour.

According to them, ‘Kimathi will never die, But, of course, if you people have killed him, go and show us his grave!’. These were the words of a woman who had once been the pupil of Kimathi. These words echoed when Ngugi and Micere Githae Mugo returned and they decided to recreate this character ‘the same great man of courage in the spirit of the woman who told them that he would never die’.

Kimathi in the play symbolizes the masses in the historical perspective as the true makers of history.

The Play

The play opens in the courtroom with a white judge presiding. Africans are seen seated in rough benches, squeezed and the whites are seen occupying more comfortable seats. Dedan Kimathi is brought in charged for being found with a revolver without license on the night of October 21st 1956. Kimathi remains silent. The trial is shown in four parts.

While the Colonialists try to persuade Kimathi to surrender, on the other side a woman, on her part, tries to help Kimathi by supplying a gun in a loaf of bread that would be sent into the prison through a warder. She executes her plan carefully with the help of a boy and a girl whom she meets.

Unaware of the fact that the loaf of bread contains a gun, the two reach the court and as instructed by the woman look out for the fruit seller who is none other than the woman herself in disguise. When they come to know of the truth that the loaf of bread contains a gun, they decide to help Kimathi escape and are prepared to hand it over safely to the woman. At the court Kimathi is asked to plead for forgiveness by the white judge and he strongly refuses by saying:

By what right dare you, a colonial judge, sit in judgment over me?... a criminal judge, in a criminal court, set up by criminal law: the law of oppression. I have no words.

Four Trials

The courage and determination to resist is well-brought out. All the four trials, where Kimathi is tested and tempted, takes place in cell. During the first trial, Henderson, the judge, asks Kimathi to plead guilty and he would be spared his life, to which Kimathi replies:

Life. My Life. Give up my life for your life. Who are you, imperialist cannibal, to guarantee my life? My life is our People.

In the second trial, a banker and an Indian arrive to ask Kimathi to confess, repent and plead guilty for which the banker would finance for Big Hotels, seaside resorts, night clubs, etc. But for the people, they would continue remaining servants to their masters. Kimathi dismisses them with utter contempt and calls them *Judas*.

In the third trial, Kimathi is visited by an African Business Executive, a politician and a priest. The three try to persuade Kimathi to surrender. They are happy about the two announcements

made by the oppressors—No more racialism. No more colour bar. Excited with these two announcements, they proclaim that they have won the war. To them Independence is not their immediate expectation. It can be got province by province, they say. Kimathi is annoyed and tells them, “Kenya is one indivisible whole. The causes we fight for is larger than provinces; it shatters ethnic barriers. It is a whole people’s cause”. Kimathi chases them out saying that he will answer the next day in court and then they can hear what he has to say.

The fourth trial shows Kimathi seated in a corner of his cell and Henderson entering the cell arrogantly. After another heated argument between the two, they force Kimathi to surrender and tell them about the others hidden in the forest. They then ask him to sign a paper which he refuses. Kimathi is taken to the torture chamber and whipped. Only the groaning can be heard from the audience, and after sometime Kimathi emerges from the chamber blood-stained, shirt torn and falling on his hands and feet, even then he resists and refuses to sign the paper saying:

For four hundred years the oppressor has exploited
And tortured our people.
For four hundred years we have risen
And fought against oppression, against
Humiliation, enslavement of body, mind and soul
[tearing the piece of paper]:
Our people will never surrender!

Last Day in the Court

At the court the next day, Kimathi is reminded of his offence and is asked to plead guilty. But he calls them all ‘**Judases and Tailors**’. (*Tailor as thief* is a cultural expression in English in the past, similar to *poRkollan* reference in the celebrated Tamil epic *Cilappatikaaram* and such accusations against trades is, unfortunately, in common parlance in Tamil and other Indian languages. Such biased expressions are, fortunately, being avoided in modern times. Note that Colonial English in countries all over the world, including India, abounds in such expressions even today.) The woman then enters with the boy and the girl.

Kimathi looks at the woman and the suspicious police take the woman out, who leaves the courtroom singing the freedom song triumphantly. The Judge once again reminds Kimathi of his guilt to which he replies that

... our people will never surrender
Internal and external foes
will be demolished
And Kenya shall be free.

Final Address

Such was his faith and hope on his people. His final address to the people was to organize and fight to weaken the ones who create ethnic divisions. The Judge then sentences against him to be hanged until death. At that moment the girl breaks the bread and holds the gun at the guards saying 'Not dead!' With a loud shot, the crowd of workers and peasants are seen singing a thunderous freedom song.

Playwrights' Goal

The audience is invited to identify with the blameless protagonist victim of an imperialism which he struggles to counteract. He refuses to be influenced by the attempts to seduce him. Kimathi incarnates the struggle for national liberation and the political values associated with it. Kimathi's torture by the white colonialists and their allies stirs the audience but the betrayal of his own men arouses the strongest emotions of the audience.

The play, however, incarnates the struggle for national liberation and political values associated with it. Kimathi, thus, is a powerful character, whose qualities stand for right in opposition to the antagonists who embody wrong. The play clearly brings out the vision of Ngugi and Mugo as both are concerned with the indigenous social order and the brutal alien forces of colonialism. It is a call to renew the struggle for a genuine national liberation. The purpose of writing such a play is far from being just an ideological consolation. It is, in fact, the dream of the writers who envisioned a free Kenya and recognize the workers and peasants as true patriots.

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**Personal and Labour Market Environment Factors in English for
Employability: A Case Study of KSA**

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Abstract

The magic impetus behind the employment scenario today is the word of spell -“Employability”. The concept of employability has been in the literature for many years. Current interest has been driven by the changing nature of public employment policy, with increasing emphasis being given to skills-based solutions to economic competition and work-based solutions to social deprivation.

The term “employability” refers to a person’s capability of gaining initial employment, maintaining employment and obtaining new employment if required. The employability of an individual depends on the KSA – Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes that one possesses; the way in which these three assets are used and presented to the employers; crucially, the context (for instance-personal circumstances and labour market environment) within which one seeks work.

The changing nature of the work environment, the emergence of technology-driven processes and the diversified needs are the challenges to the ability of College and University students to meet the demand for employable higher order learners. In the current global job market, employability skills bag the first place. These skills can be termed as ‘Soft Skills’ which are given utmost importance in

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KSA

campus proceedings. Many learners need various forms of support to overcome the physical and mental barriers to learn English for personal development. It was one of the pillars of the Employment Strategy until the reformulation in 2000 along with entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities since the skills are the global currency for a globalizing world.

What we need is a “Thought Shift” from employment to employability; from providing fish to teaching how to fish. Our progress will not be worth of the trip if we do not give a majority of our students the strength and self-esteem that comes with a job. The journey has just begun with regard to the challenge of linking Education to Employability in the global knowledge economy. As per the recent researchers view, language teaching and learning is more effective if the curriculum is styled to suit the learner needs and if the learners are given greater responsibility for their learning process.

1. Introduction

The magic impetus behind the employment scenario today is the word of spell “Employability”. The concept of employability has been in the literature for many years. Current interest has been driven by the changing nature of public employment policy, with increasing emphasis being given to skill – based solutions to economic competition and work based solutions to social deprivation. In Professor Amartya Sen’s words, Indian economy has to be people–oriented as against the multinational economy which is commodity–based. (Dhanavel. P, “Globalization, English Teaching and Information Technology”, p.30).

2. What is Employability?

The term, “Employability” refers to a person’s capability of gaining initial employment, maintaining employment and obtaining new employment, if required. The employability of an individual depends on **KSA – Knowledge, Skills, Attitude** that one possesses; the way in which these three assets are used and presented to the employers. It also includes personal circumstances and labour market environment within which one seeks work.

3. Ksa – Assets

The learner’s ‘employability assets’ comprise their Knowledge (i.e. what they know); Skills (what they do with what they know) and Attitude (how they do it).

4. In the Context of Personal Circumstances and the Labour Market

The ability to realize employability assets depends on the individual’s personal and external circumstances and the interrelationship between the two. This includes:

- a) Personal circumstances (i.e. caring responsibilities, disabilities and household status that affect one’s ability to seek different opportunities) will vary during an individual’s life cycle.

b) External factors such as macro – economic demand labour market; be it local or national; labour market regulation, benefit rules, employer recruitment and selection behaviour will also vary (en.wikipedia.org).

5. Personal Factors in English for Employability

The individual's capacity to speak fluently and effectively is the vital factor for employability. This is “an obstacle in the pathway of the weak; at the same time, a stepping stone in the pathway of the strong”. Input rich communicational environments are a prerequisite to language learning and are therefore a passport to social mobility, higher education and better job opportunities. (<http://www.ncert.nic.in>). Encouraging and stressing students' individual capability for managing their own occupational itinerary and developing a viable personal training is necessary for their career plan to develop their plan to develop their occupational life.

6. Labour Market Environment Factor

Labour market depends on exchange of information between employers and job seekers about wage rates, conditions of employment, level of competition and job location. Successful entry into labour market after graduation is a sign of a good co-ordination between educational sector and labour market requirements. Difficulties in finding job soon after graduation can be thought of as a signal of problems in matching labour supply and demand. Unemployment results in human capital depreciation and affects future professional career.

7. KSA

Here, the central focus is made on how personal and labour market environment with regard to KSA, contribute to employability.

7.1. K – KNOWLEDGE

Knowledge plays a determinant role in development. It has become the basis for human work and wields the power to mould a new society. In consequence, education has taken centre stage in cognitive society; and its management and basic values will increasingly constitute a focus of interest and involvement for all social sectors.

The quantity of knowledge is no longer measured in terms of accumulation but through the location and permanent updating of information. Markets require acknowledged competencies (integration, team work, motivation, discipline etc.) and these values are now more positive. A balanced

combination of fundamental know-how of technical knowledge and social aptitude gives students a general education so as to transfer them to a job of their ambition. The life-long education approach is based, in the first place, on the need to maintain competitiveness in a world of speedily changing products and technologies.

7.2. S - Skills – The Basis For Success

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Skills are a global currency for globalizing world countries. Skills capital can innovate; remain competitive and enable sustainable growth. Skills development will create inclusive societies.

S.No	Topic	MCA	MBA	MA (English)
		Right/Wrong	Right/Wrong	Right/Wrong

The overwhelming majority of the workforce, not only in rural areas but also in urban areas, does not possess any identifiable marketable skill. Communication skills and technical skills are considered to be the basic skills for success in employability factors. The ability to verbalize the thoughts, ideas and feelings is termed as communicative skill. The ability to apply technology and effective use of major software and web to accomplish job responsibilities are termed as technical skills.

7.3. A - ATTITUDE:

Jung in Chapter XI of “Psychological Types” defines attitude as “readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way” (Jung, (1921), 1971:par.687). An attitude is a hypothetical construct that represents an individuals’ degree of like or dislike for an item. Attitudes are generally positive or negative views of a person, place, thing or event. They are judgments. They develop on the ABC model (affect, behaviour and cognition). The affective response is an emotional response that expresses an individual’s degree of preference for an entity. The behavioural intention is a verbal indication of typical behavioural tendency of an individual. The cognitive response is a cognitive evaluation of the entity that constitutes an individual’s beliefs about the object. Most attitudes are the result of either direct experience or observational learning from the environment.

8. A Case Study of KSA

A language survey on the characteristics of Knowledge, Skill and Attitude is made through the use of written Questionnaire. A group-administered questionnaire is chosen for this survey because it is relatively efficient than a self-administered questionnaire. The method of Sampling adopted in the present paper is Random Sampling. The samples [M.C.A, M.B.A and M.A., English Final Year students of our College] were asked to identify answers for the questions related to the target skills.

8.1 TABLE-1 – QUESTIONS & ANALYSIS

	PART I: KNOWLEDGE			
1.	Employability means: _____	9/1	6/4	7/3
2.	English fluency an obstacle for employment. yes/no	10/0	9/1	9/1
3.	Employability skills are _____	5/5	8/2	4/6
4.	Knowledge more important than skill.	8/2	6/4	9/1
5.	Latest information in Science & Technology enhances employment opportunities	9/1	9/1	10/0
	PART II:SKILLS			
6.	Skill alone provides employability	8/2	6/4	5/5
7.	Technical skills provide employment	10/0	9/1	10/0
8.	Basic computer skills are _____	8/2	5/5	4/6
9.	Can you design a web page?	10/0	6/4	6/4
10.	Communicative skill – the most prevalent of all employability skills.	10/0	10/0	9/1
	PART III: ATTITUDE			
11	Brochure means	9/1	7/3	10/0
12	Newsletter means	5/5	7/6	2/8
13	Attitude to work is more important.	10/0	10/0	9/1

14	Reason for oscillating from one job to another	SA – 4 OA – 2 DM – 4	SA – 2 OA – 4 DM – 4	SA – 3 OA – 7 DM ----
15	Salary depends on _____	MV – 2 EQ – 2 SAJ – 1 FT/BE – 3	MV --- EQ – 6 SAJ – 1 FT/BE – 3	MV --- EQ – 6 SAJ – 4 FT/BE --

Note Q.14. SA – Self – Awareness;

OA – Opportunity Awareness

DM - Decision Making Skills

Q. 15. MV – Market Value;

EQ – Educational Qualification

SAJ - Skills Awareness related to job

FT/BE – Fluency in Technical or Business English

8.2 Major Findings

8.2.1. Knowledge (K)

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Regarding KNOWLEDGE, the results show that the performance of MCA students is significantly high with 82%. As their dreams centered on software, they know that soft skills bag the first place in the field of employment. A minimum number of students alone have less degree of knowledge with 18%. MBA students lagged behind in their response to KNOWLEDGE with 76%.. Nearly, one-fourth has chosen wrong answers which display their understanding. The performance of MA-English students is somewhat better than MBA students. They gained 78% against 22% of MBA students. Their knowledge regarding Employability skills varies because of their lack of computer literacy. Almost all students agree in their view that English fluency is the most needed one in Employment scenario especially with regard to Personal and Labour Market Environment. They also have the parallel idea that the knowledge of Science and Technology will enhance opportunities of Employment. They are not clear in differentiating knowledge and skill. In general, the overall performance is fair regarding knowledge.

8.2.3. Skills (S)

An analysis of the subject area SKILL shows that: 92% of MCA students have a clear concept regarding SKILLS. They have basic computer skills as well as they know program language such as C++, JAVA, and DOTNET. They are confident in designing a web-page. As they are pursuing a Professional Degree course, they all agree that communicative skill is the most prevalent of all the Employability Skills. There is slight variation in the performance of MBA students. They have to improve their idea regarding Skills and their computer literacy is also not up to the level of MCA students. Almost 28% of MBA students have to develop clear concept about Skills. Arts students oscillate just like MBA students in their choice of answering “Skill alone can provide Employability”. As they don’t have previous knowledge regarding Soft and Hard skills, they hesitate to answer. After repeated analyzing, 68% of MA English students scored well whereas 32% have to improve a lot as far as Skills area is concerned.

8.2.4. Attitude (A)

The Questionnaire on Attitude clarifies that: once again, MCA students bagged the credit with 80% of right options concerning Attitude. 20% of candidates have to develop their awareness regarding Attitude. 70% of MBA students have better idea about Attitude whereas 30% are yet to improve. M.A. English candidates are vying with MBA students in responding the questionnaire on Attitude. As per ‘Using Surveys in Language Programs’ by James Dean Brown, the questions numbered 14 and 15 are ranking questions. For the question number 14 ‘oscillation from one job to another’, 4 MCA students ranked Self Awareness and Decision Making Skills; 4 MBA students selected Opportunity Awareness and Decision Making Skills and 7 MA students shows Opportunity Awareness as their first choice. For the question number 15, “One’s Salary depends on”, the Samples’ ranking order is given below:

Qn.No	Course	MV	EQ	SAJ	FT/BE
15	MCA	2	2	3	3
	MBA	--	6	1	3
	MA (English)	--	6	4	--

MV – Market Value;

EQ – Educational Qualification;

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J. Samuel Kirubahar, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D., B.Ed., V. Jeya Santhi, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed., DCA., and A. Subashini, M.A., M.Phil., B.Ed.

Personal and Labour Market Environment Factors in English for Employability: A Case Study of KSA

SAJ – Skills & Awareness related to job; FT/BE – Fluency in Technical or Business English

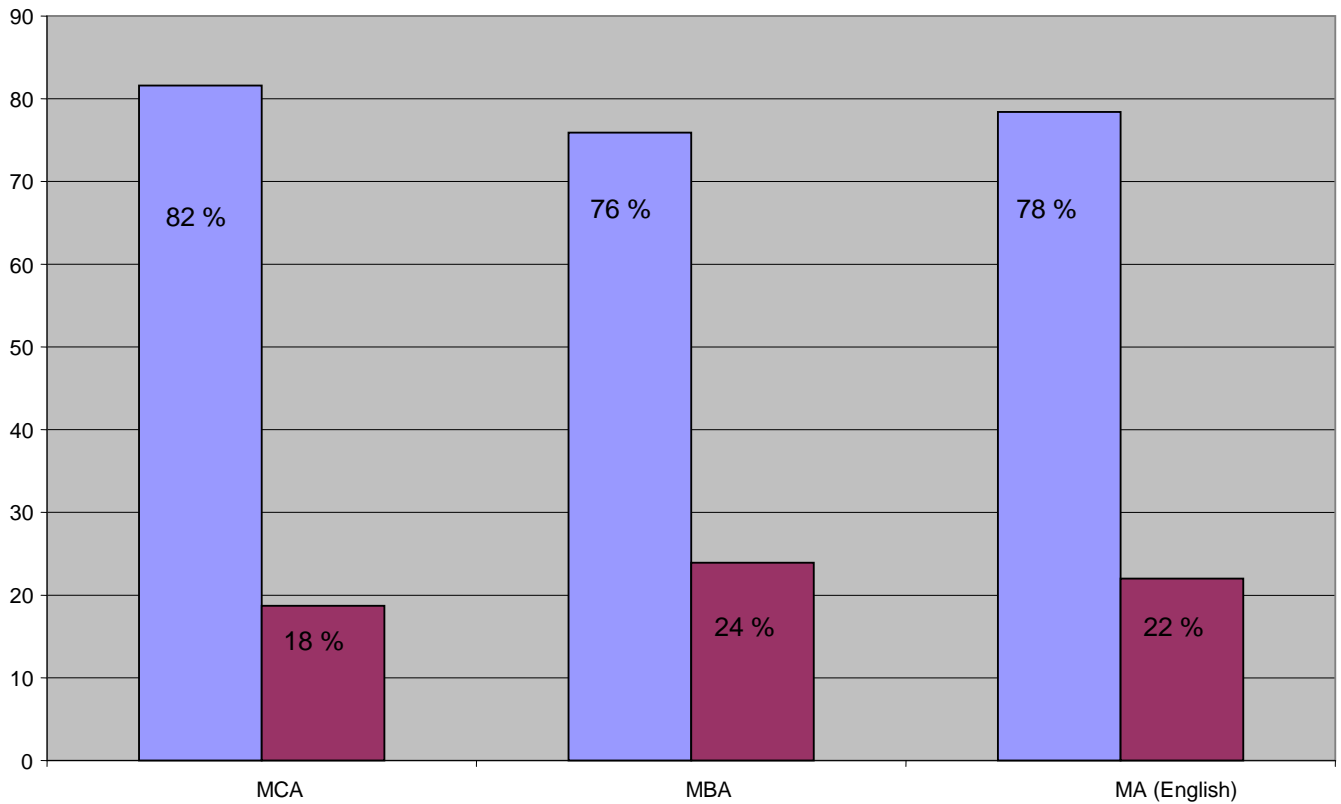
9. Descriptive Statistics for Analyzing Survey Results

The purpose of Descriptive Statistics is typically to describe or characterize the answers of group of respondents to numerically coded questions. Alternatively, it may be shown in graphs or charts.

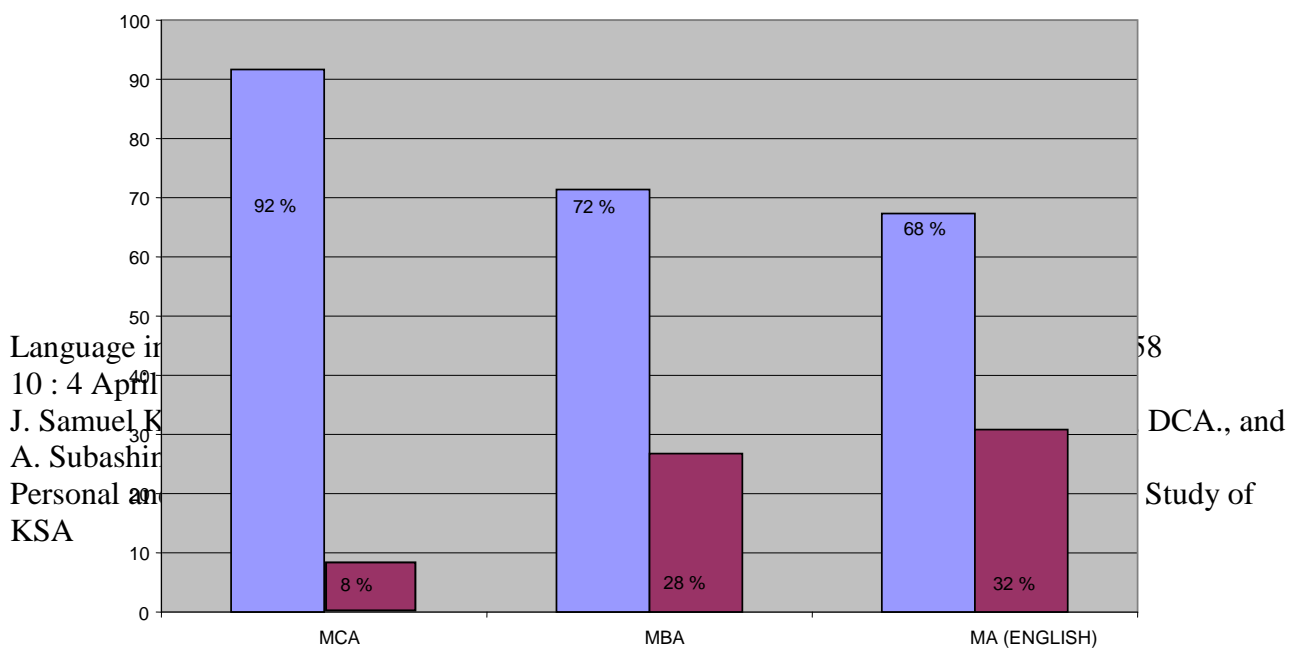
9.1. GRAPHICAL DISPLAY:

3D-BAR GRAPH

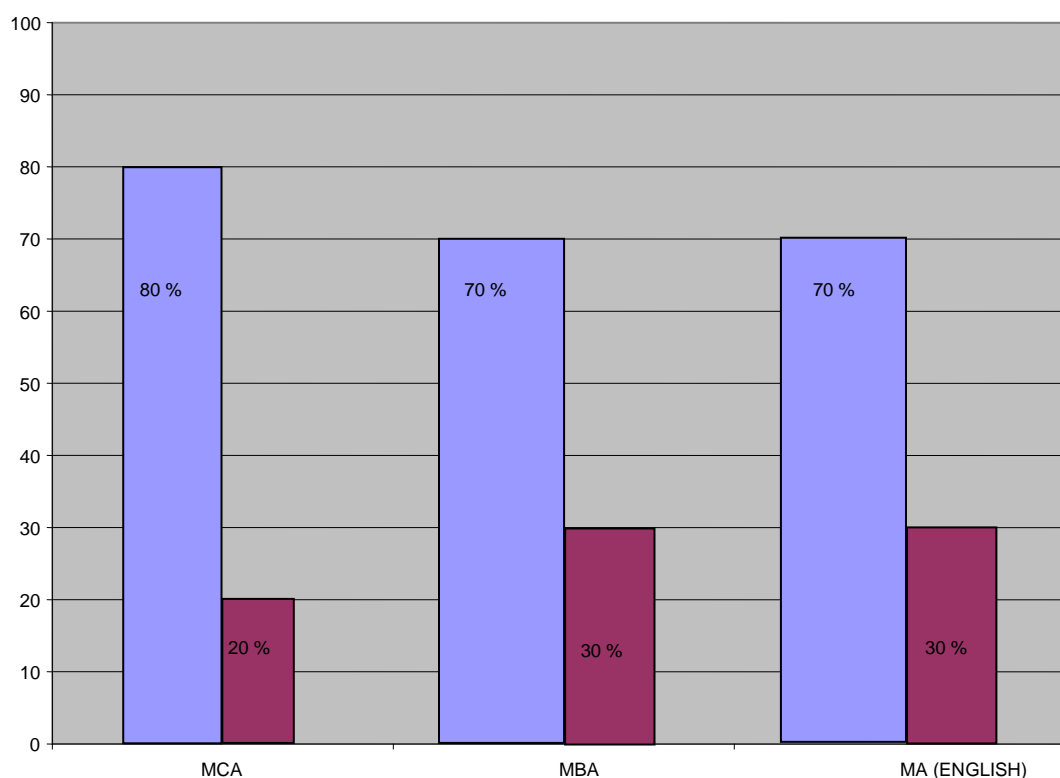
9.1.1 KNOWLEDGE



9.1.2. SKILLS



9.1.3. ATTITUDE



10. Summary

The present study is organized around KSA for higher order learners (MCA, MBA and MA final year students). The performance of MCA students is significantly high and it shows their effective acquisition of Employability Skills. While making estimation on MBA and MA English students' performance, their scores are almost parallel. On the basis of the present study, the following suggestions are recommended to improve the validity of the students.

1. MA English students have to develop awareness on the concept “Skills” to make themselves more employable.
 2. MBA students have to make more efforts to enhance their employability assets when compared to MA English students.
 3. The high scorers, MCA students, can shine more if they take efforts for all-round development.
-
-

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire for KSA

This Questionnaire is circulated among the final year Post-Graduate students of M.C.A., M.B.A. and M.A., English to know the validity of the tool used in preparing a research paper under the caption “Personal & Labour Market Environment in English for Employability: A case study of KSA”.

It is highly confidential and used only for the preparation of a research paper.

Thank you.

Name:
Course:

QUESTIONNAIRE

NOTE: The Samples chosen have to answer or identify the right answer.

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Personal and Labour Market Environment Factors in English for Employability: A Case Study of KSA

QUESTIONS:

PART-I: KNOWLEDGE

1. The word “Employability” means _____
a. the nature of being employed b. the situation in which one can be employed
c. employment
2. Do you think English fluency is an obstacle for getting employment?
Yes / No
3. Employability skills are _____
a. Soft skills
b. Hard skills
c. English fluency
4. Knowledge is more important than skill in Employability.
Agree / Disagree
5. The latest information in the field of Science & Technology will enhance opportunities of Employment.
Yes / No

PART- II: SKILLS

6. Skill alone can provide Employability.
Agree / Disagree
7. Technical skills like computer operations will provide employment.
Yes / No
8. Name some of the basic computer skills.

9. Can you design a web-page?

10. Communicative skill is possibly the most prevalent of all the employability skills.
Agree / Disagree

PART-III: ATTITUDE

11. What is Brochure?
a. Pamphlet b. Abstract c. Menu
12. What is a News-letter?
a. Bulletin b. Memorandum c. Message
13. Attitude to work is more important than skill.
Agree / Disagree
14. Why do people oscillate from one job to another? Reasons given are-
1. Self- awareness 2. Opportunity Awareness 3. Decision Making Skills
(Note: Rank one by one which you think the most important)

15. One's salary depends on the following:
1. Market Value
 2. Educational Qualification
 3. Skills & awareness related to job
 4. Fluent in Technical English or Business English
- (Note: Rank one by one which you think the most important)
-

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**A Study of the Reported Language Skill Development Strategies of
the Student Teachers in Pakistan**

Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate
Bushra Naoreen, Ph.D. Candidate

Abstract

This descriptive study was carried out to study the foreign language skill development of the student teachers of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur (IUB). Two hundred student teachers from IUB were the sample. A forty items questionnaire was administered, the reliability of which was 0.903. No significant difference was found between mean scores gender wise. It was also found that students of B.Ed. class have higher mean score on reading, writing and listening skills but the difference is not significant. Conversely, students of M.Ed. class have higher mean score on speaking skills; however, the difference is not significant.

Key words: Language Learning, Teacher Education, Reading skills, Writing,skills Speaking skills,
Listening skills

Introduction

English is the language of power and prestige in most countries of the world and Pakistan is no exception. Learning English affords unending opportunities not only in the realm of careers but also in society in general. However, the way English is learnt might change with change in locale gender and the purpose for which English is learnt. English is the official language in Pakistan and thus enjoys an unparalleled status among dozens of local languages of the country.

The learners of English, consciously or unconsciously, use different strategies to develop their skills in a particular language. A lot has been said about the nature of these strategies. Different authors have come up with their definitions of LLS (Language Learning Strategies). However, “there is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities” (O’Malley et al, 1985).

For Rubin, strategies are “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (1975:43). In Weinstein and Mayer’s terms, the LLS may be defined as “behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning” which are presumably “intended to influence the learner’s encoding process” (1986:315). Cohen (1998:4) added the important ingredient of choice or consciousness in defining the strategies and thus asserted that “the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from those processes that are not strategic”.

A Definition of Strategy

A comprehensive definition is provided by Oxford (2001:166) who believes that the strategies are in fact

‘...operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information; specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient, and more transferable to new situations’

Many of the researches on LLS suggest that the strategies which the good and successful language learners employ are different from those of the bad learners. In fact the good learners not only employ more strategies but also employ them in a more appropriate manner than the weaker ones (Chamot and Kupper 1989). There has also been a suggestion that there is a positive relationship between Language Learning Strategies and communicative competence (Stern, 1992; Lessard-Clouston, 1997 and Oxford, 1990).

Types of LLS

There has also been an extensive discussion on the types of LLS that the learners employ for successful learning. O Malley et al, Wenden and Rubin, Stern and Oxford have classified LLS in many categories. However, most of these classifications have striking similarities. Some have categorized them into Learning, communication and Social strategies, others into the cognitive and Meta cognitive and socio affective strategies (O’Malley, et al, 1985) and a few others have added the element of management, planning and interpersonal elements to the discussion (Stern, 1992).

Griffith (2004) categorized language skill development strategies in terms of the four traditional language skills i.e. Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. Griffith found that the use of dictionary was the most common reported strategy used for learning English. He found that dictionary use was employed by students of both the high proficiency and the low proficiency. As against it, writing a diary was the least commonly used strategy reported by the learners. Griffith also found that the speaking and listening strategies did not have a significant correlation with the end term achievements of the students. That is why Griffith concludes that the importance of the interactive strategies is not that established a phenomenon among the language learners as far as their performance in English as second or foreign language is concerned.

Inadequate Discussions on Language Skill Development Strategies

Though there has been a plethora of research on language learning strategies and language skill development strategies of English language learning, very little, if any, attention has been paid to the language skills development strategies of the student teachers. As the prospective teachers, the trainee teachers have to learn English not only to have a grasp on the pedagogy but also for communication purposes in general. They have to develop all the four language skills to optimize their performance in the classroom and also for their own career development. The student teachers at the certificate and graduation level have to learn English both as a compulsory and an elective subject.

However, no significant study has, as yet, been undertaken to estimate the language skills development strategies of the student teachers. The present study aims to fill that gap.

Objectives of the Study

This study was based on the following objectives:

1. To find out the language skill development strategies of the student teachers.
2. To compare the language skill development strategies of the student teachers gender wise and class wise.
3. To recommend suggestions to overcome weaknesses.

Research Methodology

The research method adopted in this research is descriptive in nature.

Population and Sampling

The population of the study consisted of all the students of B.Ed and M.Ed level of the Islamia University of Bahawalpur. Two hundred students from department of educational training of the university were considered as sample for the study.

Research Tool Development and Data Collection

Since the study was descriptive in nature, survey approach was considered appropriate to collect the data. For the purpose, questionnaire on five-point (Likert) scale was developed. The questionnaire was validated through pilot testing on 50 students and reliability of the questionnaire was 0.903.

Administration of Research Tool

The finalized questionnaire was administered to the students personally as well as by mail. All the students responded.

Data Analysis

The data collected through questionnaire was coded and analyzed through SPSS XII, mean scores and independent sample t- test were run.

Findings

Data collected through the questionnaire was analyzed in terms of percentage and mean score. The findings drawn out from the data analysis are given below.

Table 1: Showing the mean score on all the four skills of English language

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Std Deviation</i>
Speaking	200	30.7700	.398790	5.63969
Reading	200	30.1150	.416990	5.89709
Listening	200	29.8650	.438230	6.19748
Writing	200	29.6100	.422470	5.97464

Above table reveals mean scores on four dimensions of language skills development strategies in descending order highest mean score is in favour of speaking skill, then on reading skill, then on listening skills and on writing skills there is lowest mean score. It further shows that student teachers emphasize more on speaking and reading skills and less on listening and writing skills.

Table 2: Showing the mean difference on all the four skills of English language between male and female student teachers

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Gender of Students</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Reading	Male	100	30.7400	5.41159	.54116	198	1.504	0.134
	Female	100	29.4900	6.31096	.63110			
Writing	Male	100	29.6600	5.74583	.57458	198	0.118	0.906
	Female	100	29.5600	6.22364	.62236			
Listening	Male	100	29.7200	5.84320	.58432	198	0.330	0.742
	Female	100	30.0100	6.55897	.65590			
Speaking	Male	100	30.9400	5.45101	.54510	198	0.425	0.671
	Female	100	30.6000	5.84479	.58448			
Over All	Male	100	121.0600	19.69608	1.96961	198	0.462	0.644
	Female	100	119.6600	23.00163	2.30016			

It is evident from table: 2 that male student teachers have higher mean score on reading skills, writing skills, speaking skills and over all skills but that difference is not statistically significant. On the other hand, female student teachers have higher mean score on listening skills but that difference is also not statistically significant. It is quite clear from the table that male student teachers have higher mean score on all the dimensions except on listening skills but the difference in mean scores is not significant, so it can be concluded from the above table that male and female student teachers have adopted the same language skill development strategies.

Table 3: Showing the mean difference on all the four skills of English language between male and female student teachers qualification wise

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Class of Students</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Reading	B.Ed	160	30.2375	5.71271	.45163	198	0.587	0.558
	M.Ed	40	29.6250	6.63977	1.04984			
writing	B.Ed	160	29.8375	6.04271	.47772	198	1.077	0.283
	M.Ed	40	28.7000	5.67586	.89743			
Listening	B.Ed	160	29.9813	6.00469	.47471	198	0.530	0.597
	M.Ed	40	29.4000	6.97909	1.10349			
Speaking	B.Ed	160	30.7000	5.56471	.43993	198	0.350	0.726
	M.Ed	40	31.0500	5.99551	.94797			
Over All	B.Ed	160	120.7563	21.05093	1.66422	198	0.523	0.601
	M.Ed	40	118.7750	22.81305	3.60706			

Table: 3 reveals that student teachers of B.Ed class have higher mean score on reading skills, writing skills, listening skills and over all skills but that difference is not significant on the other hand student teachers of M.Ed class have higher mean score on speaking skills but again that difference is not significant. It is quite clear from the table that student teachers of B.Ed have higher mean score on all the dimensions except on speaking skills but the difference in mean scores is not significant, so it can be concluded from the above table that student teachers from B.Ed. and M.Ed. classes have adopted the same language skill development strategies.

Discussion

Every language comprises four basic principles in the world. Type of language does not matter at all, where it comes from and how it was structured – they are all made up of four skills, reading, writing, speaking and listening. These four skills are very different and interrelated also. Student teacher must also be master in language skills. Every individual can use good language skill development strategies but all have different traits. Some student teachers can be good in one or two or the others may be better in developing other skills and using better strategies to learn them.

Mean scores on four dimensions of language skills development strategies in descending order, highest mean score is in favor of speaking skill, then reading skill, then listening skills and on writing skills there is

lowest mean score. It further shows that student teachers emphasize more on speaking and reading skills and less on listening and writing skills.

In other words it can be said that they use better strategies to improve their speaking or reading skills as compared to listening and writing. It also depends on the interest and attitude of the individual towards learning a language and motivation of students towards learning language and quality of instruction as well. Table: 1 indicates that students are more interested in learning speaking and reading skills and use different strategies to enhance these skills contrary to others.

A person can be proficient in language if focuses on all skills not only one or two because all skills are source of aid for one another. All the individuals are different in learning different types of skills in different ways and it depends on their concentration towards them. Table.2 indicates that male student teachers have higher mean score on all the dimensions except on listening skills but the difference in mean scores is not significant, female student teachers have higher mean score on listening skills but that difference is also not statistically significant. So it can be concluded from the table that male and female student teachers have adopted almost same language skill development strategies.

All these four skills need practice and suitable strategies to learn. The more important is, how do they organize practicing these skills and teachers are also motivating factors to them guiding better strategies to be adopted for skills development of any language. This analysis reveals that male and female both types of students consider all the skills almost equally important but females are more interested increasing their listening skills and use better strategies to enhance their listening skills.

If some one is willing to learn another language, in most cases, it is an indication that a person has the great desire to learn about another region/ country and its culture that is the primary prerequisite for success in everyday life. Presently it is the need of the global world that a person must be able to speak, read, write and listen thoughts and texts of other cultures. Student teachers especially need to know all these things as they are going to prepare future generation for facing modern world, how others are different in their speaking, reading and other skills and how they use these skills in varying circumstances. In that case each individual or student can be different to use different strategies to learn language skills. Their degree of qualification, their competency and capability in other activities is also indicator of learning skills.

Table: 3 indicates that student teachers of B.Ed. have higher mean score on all the dimensions except on speaking skills but the difference in mean scores is not significant, on the other hand student teachers of M.Ed class have higher mean score on speaking skills but again that difference is not significant. It can be said that B.Ed student teachers are using good learning strategies of all skill except speaking and student teachers of M.Ed are opposite to them. It seems that there is not any middle ground with languages. All the skills go side by side. Student teachers must focus their attention towards not only a single skill but it is necessary in this global that if a person is efficient in one skill he/ she must be able to learn others as well. And use proper learning strategies to enhance them.

Conclusion

- Student teachers emphasize more on speaking and reading skills and less on listening and writing skills.

- Student teachers use proper strategies to improve their speaking and reading skills as compared to other skills.
- Male student teachers are better using proper language learning strategies to improve language skills but they are not good in listening skills. On the other hand analysis also indicates that female student teachers are better in listening skills. It can be said that female student teachers are focusing more on listening strategies.
- B.Ed. student teachers are using good learning strategies of all skill except speaking. On the other hand M.Ed. student teachers are better using proper learning strategies of speaking skills.
- Overall mean score of male and female student teachers is not significantly different on language skill development strategies.
- There is no significant difference between the overall mean score of male and female student teachers of B.Ed. and M.Ed. class on language skill development strategies.

Suggestions

- Student teachers should be involved in listening practices (audio cassettes/ dialogues/ talks of experts/poems/ song and conversations etc) and writing exercises (essay/ story/ any text writing activity) during their class or there should be a specific session for them.
- Especially male student teachers should be involved in listening activities as the results show that mean score of male students is lower than female student teachers.
- Special speaking class or speaking practice in classroom is the need of the B.Ed students. They must also follow the strategies adopted by the M.Ed student teachers as analysis indicates that they are better in speaking skills.
- Teachers should also be competent enough to improve student teachers' language learning skills. They should properly guide them what to do and how to do to tackle with language.

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Strategies for Communication Skills Development

S. Gunasekaran, Ph.D.

Problems that Stand in the Way of Developing Communication Skills

English language, the language of the most powerful and progressive countries of the world, is a universal avenue for political, historical and scientific thoughts. It is used to comply with the demands of trade and travel. This language has made progress in every field of human activity and it spells opportunities in plenty, both national and international.

To be able to speak fluently in English is lionized and one can't deny the fact that English speaking people have an ascendancy over others. They ride the crest with confidence around the world. In such a scenario, to prepare the student community to speak effectively in English is a time consuming and challenging task confronting language teachers.

The present article is to explore the problems standing in the way of language pedagogy in developing communication skills of the students. It examines the possible tools by which the communicative competence of the students can be improved.

1. Student Motivation

Getting students to speak in the target language is very much dependent on their awareness of the importance of the language being learnt. Explaining to the students the significance of the language is a paramount mission since it facilitates instigating the curiosity of the students.

In this era of globalization, people migrate from one country to another seeking better education and employment opportunities. The triumph of higher education and procurement of global placement are shown by one's ability to comprehend and reciprocate in English language effectively. The secret behind entering into lucrative careers is also counted on one's dexterity to communicate in English fluently. Hence to measure up to the global competition and to move around the world with confidence, it is indispensable to have mastery over the English language.

When the pedagogue is able to inspire the students, making them aware of the opportunities promised by the language, can actuate the students to try to speak in the language, it will also impel the students to put forth extra effort to achieve the goal, that is, to acquire communicate competence in the target language. Thus the success of the language teachers is measured in terms of their motivating the students. Should the students don't confer real fascination in learning the language; the efforts taken by the teacher will not yield the desired result.

2. Tailoring Classroom Teaching that Fosters Speaking

The language pedagogue should ensure that the classes are tailored in such a way that promotes speaking skills of the students. For instance, students may be asked to review the lesson taken in the class. Drama, novel and poetry dealt in the class may be used as one of the sources to encourage the students to talk and it can also be used for role play.

Sometimes students may be encouraged to illustrate their experiences similar to the one explained in the class. The merger of classroom activities with the student's own experiences would prove to be prudent mixture as it would stimulate the interest of the students, and it would lay foundation for unlocking the potential of the students. Thus tailoring classroom activities with the experience of the students will be of immense use of generate new information from them and to involve them in speaking.

3. Shift from 'Signification' to 'Value' in Teaching'

In order to able to speak the language, it is mandatory on the part of the learner, to stock a certain amount of grammar and vocabulary. So, learners must be animated to internalize structures of the language. But merely teaching the grammatical rules and regulations is

not sufficient in this regard. Rather it is the duty of the teacher to enable the students to apply the rules learnt in the class with real life situations.

This view can be further elaborated with H.G.Widdowson's view of 'signification' and 'value'.

We don't communicate by composing sentences, but by using sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to record, to classify and so on or to ask questions, make requests, give orders. Knowing what is involved in putting sentences together correctly is only one way of what we mean by knowing a language, and it has very little value on its own; it has to be supplemented by a knowledge of what sentences count as a means of communicating. So knowing a language involves not only the knowledge of the formal properties of the language system but also the knowledge of how this system is put to use in the performing of social actions of different kinds. In other words, knowledge of a language is not only a matter of grammatical competence but also of communicative competence.

Widdowson terms the former as significance and the latter as value. While it is true that the knowledge of signification is essential, it is also true that the knowledge of value is still more essential to speak. The teaching of value that is, what sentences count in their normal use as a means of communication is essential than teaching of signification.

According to H.G.Widdowson, the difference between the teaching of value and the teaching of signification is made apparent when there is a comparison between the syllogism and action chain sequences. Because the use of syllogism helps the learner to understand how the language is being used in different contexts and there by the value of the sentence is very well learnt by the learner. Thus, it is paramount importance to teach not only in terms of linguistic structures but also in terms of communicative acts.

4. Emphasis on Need Based Teaching

The role of the language teacher, one who teaches communication skills should centre on catering to the needs of the target group. It is believed that the language learnt is best retained in memory when it is related to the needs of the learners. In order to equip the students to speak in the language, some language activities the learner likely to engage in future, may be taught in the class. One cannot deny the fact that speaking situations are highly personal and unique. But it is also true that some situations may be taught and practiced in the class.

J.A. Van Ek suggests four components of situations which provide sufficient basis for comprehensive language acts. The essential roles for which the students must be ready are:

1. The social roles the learners likely to play in his language act.
2. The psychological roles the learner will be able to play.
3. The settings in which the learners will be able to use the foreign language.
4. The topic which the learners will be able to deal with in the foreign language.

i. The social roles the learners likely to play in his language act.

For instance:

Stranger/stranger

Friend/friend

The prescribed roles have a bearing to the individual circumstances if slightly modified, and this will prepare the learners to establish and maintain social relationship with foreign language speaker.

ii. The psychological roles the learner will be able to play.

Neutrality, Equality, Sympathy, Antipathy

He suggests that students may be taught and geared up to play the aforesaid roles which are more conventional and typical and they are pertinent in various types of linguistic interaction.

iii. The Settings in which the Learners will be able to Use the Foreign Language

a) Geographical location

The learner may be groomed or trained to use the foreign language where the foreign language is native language. He may also be drilled to use the language where the foreign language is not a native language and he may be primed to use the language in his own country.

b) Surroundings

1. Family
2. Friends
3. Acquaintances
4. Strangers

Training the students to speak the language in the above surroundings would help the learner to move around the society with confidence.

c) Place

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Strategies for Communication Skills Development

The efficiency of the learners in using the foreign language in private life and public life, and places such as shop, hotel, theatre, banks, office, school, during interviews etc will fetch him respect and compliments.

4. The Topic which the Learners will be able to Deal with in the Foreign Language

The teaching and training of the following list of topics will enable the learner to face the situations of any type irrespective of his preparation.

1. Personal identification
2. Trade, profession, occupation
3. Free time, entertainment
4. Travel
5. Relation with other people
6. Health and welfare
7. Education
8. Shopping
9. Food and drink
10. Services

The above list of setting and topics are suggested by Richterich.

Language learning objectives are expounded in terms of behaviour. Hence the purpose of learning must be correlated with one's ability to execute an activity which he is not able to carry out earlier.

Determining such general language activities would help the students to fulfill his language needs and one cannot deny the value of contextual language teaching for the development of communicative competence. When teaching is geared towards learners needs and content matter is more meaningful for students, the language is best learnt as it involves both the comprehension and the production of language and it also promotes language development. Thus the teacher should give emphasis to need based language teaching.

5. Resorting to Paradigm of Error Correction

Students are likely to commit errors in the process of language production. So, less importance must be attached to error correction, while the focus is on communicating and discussing ideas, because important error correction will discourage English language learners from using the language in communication. The language pedagogue is expected

to be extremely supportive and he should permit the learners to work at their own pace to encourage language speaking. Giving positive feedback facilitates to ignite students to enunciate more. He can supply relevant words or phrases should be resorted to. Thus as far as error correction is concerned oblique paradigm is preferable to candid paradigm.

6. Risk-taking in Language Learning

In learning a foreign language, students must be encouraged to take the risk of speaking instead of remaining passive. Students should have a feel that learning the language is distinct from using it for communication. Here, we need to note that even the native speakers of English take years to master their language. If this is being the phenomenon, it is no wonder that the second language learner are likely to commit errors in the process of learning. They should be invigorated to speak even though they are caught by the fear of using wrong words or expressions. Inculcation of self-confidence will go a long way in this regard since negative attitudes and beliefs would reduce confidence and harm language learning where as positive attitudes and beliefs can do the reverse.

7. Speaking - not only Classroom-oriented; but also Experience-oriented

The language teacher should make it obvious that mastery over the language cannot be simply achieved overnight and in the short span of time. Rather it enjoins sustained effort and good amount of experience on the part of the learner.

To enable the students to get experience, the language pedagogue should provide the students the chance to speak in the class. Students may be divided into groups and motivated to get involved in sustained meaningful discussions in the classroom and thereby the language pedagogue can enhance and maximize their language use.

Apart from classroom experience, the learned should make it sure that his language use, is getting supplemented outside of the classroom too. Since classroom experience alone does not seem to guarantee fluency, students must be of self started and be on the lookout of the circumstances by which they can propagate their speaking skills. Moreover language speaking involves number of muscles, so the more we exercise it, the easier it is to use. The greater his experience the greater will be his ability to speak. Such a kind of awareness must be inculcated in the minds of the students.

8. Enhancing the Comprehensive, the Analytic and the Cognitive Skills

Students need to comprehend the language spoken and analyze how language operates in communication. From our own experience, we find students who have received many years of formal English teaching, remain deficient in their capacity to use the language and to comprehend its use in normal communication. In order to overcome such problems

the language teacher should attempt to enhance the comprehensive and analytic skills of the students. To explore these skills they may be given an opportunity to defining the goals of instruction and to contribute for innovative teaching. To improve the cognitive skills of the students, initially teaching simple topics, then gradually moving towards complex ones will be of great help and it ensures language development as well.

9. Necessitate Need for Communication

In language acquisition language learning and language use are not distinct activities; rather they are one and the same. But this rule does not apply to second language learning as language learning and language use are unassociated and disparate. Unless the language teacher makes it obligatory to speak in English in the class, the students will not come forward to enunciate. Therefore, the students must be made aware of its need in communication. Besides, he himself should handle classes in English in order to accredit the students to tread on his heels and to create favourable ambience in order to ignite the students to speak.

Conclusion

Teaching communication skills requires analytic skill to learn from experience on the part of the teacher. Besides developing communication skills of the students is a practical activity rather than a theoretical activity. So the language teacher should be aware of the practical relevance of his teaching as a means of communication. Since teaching 'signification' alone doesn't guarantee to develop speaking skills of the students, the language teacher should ensure that value teaching takes place off and on. Thus the best way of teaching is to associate it to applications.

To conclude I say that the role of language teachers is active rather than passive. Hence, they should explore the possibilities of a communicative approach themselves. To put it in a nutshell in developing communicative skill of the students, the language teachers should adjust their approach to the requirements of students and exigencies of the teaching situation.

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Schema in Learning

G. Manjulatha Devi, Ph.D. Candidate

Reminiscences

An individual is a bundle of experiences and each experience is a consequence of his meticulous observation and careful imitation of surroundings. His past experiences, which are stored in his memory, which are also known as his knowledge, are useful to him to respond appropriately to a situation. There is no tomorrow without today. The logic is that future collects and preserves what present leaves. Every new experience manifests some resemblance with the old. So the amount of knowledge that an individual has stored is measured against the quality of his experiences considering which his abilities or readiness to learn new things are estimated.

On describing Schema

Human beings are able to comprehend and predict the situations of the world because the acquisition of the knowledge, gained out of past experiences, activates their brain to respond and surmise appropriately to subsequent occasions. This storage is known as schema. According to Rumerlhurt schema is:

A schema is a data structure for representing the generic concepts stored in memory. There are schemata representing our knowledge about all concepts; those underlying objects, situations, events, actions, schema contains, as part of its specifications. (Rumerlhart and Brandford,1980:80)

Varying Nature of the Schemata

The nature of these schemata is different from individual to individual and situation to situation. According to Cook (1997:86) the concept of schema is “ a mental representation of a typical instance which helps people to make sense of the world more quickly because people assimilate new experiences by activating relevant schema in their mind.” The world offers an individual multitude of experiences of assorted varieties, which he carefully organizes categorically in his mind map, and consequently, his mental picture contains sceneries of varied importance and beauty.

Information Processing

New information is processed when it is similar with already existing information stored in individual’s memory. So, obviously there is relation between incoming information and previously known information. For example an individual has the knowledge that s/he has to buy a ticket at the counter to enter the hall, after that search for the seat to sit on. This is because the individual has the experience of buying a ticket earlier. S/he knows that there are separate counters for ladies and gents.

In a particular theatre, if both are standing in the same queue, s/he feels confused. So an entry of any new information that is different from the existing schema into the brain of an individual results in chaos and evidently he begins to manifest in his behavior eligibility to be subscribed as blame-worthy. This is the reason why readers have difficult time comprehending the text they are not familiar with, despite comprehending the individual words in it.

Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of available minimal cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader’s expectation. As this partial information is processed, tentative decisions are made to be confirmed, rejected or refined as reading progresses.
(Goodman, 1970, p.260)

Communication of Information

Communication of information from one to another is an endless process and the messages modify themselves in their form and content while being communicated. It is for the reason that individuals naturally use their comprehension to process a message to avoid the laborious task of ‘Information Retention.’ This interaction is not necessarily between person and person, it may be between text and reader. The teacher often encounters a marked difference in conveyance of knowledge by the learner, because students never utter the verbatim of the teacher or the text. They have remembered what they have read by actively constructing a meaningful representation of it in their memory.

Not only by students but by every other individual also such an activity of understanding a concept is revealed in self-constructed sentence structures. We find people conveying what we

have told them in their self-made sentences but not repeating ours. So schemata are important not just in interpreting but also in decoding how the information is presented.

The theory is a revelation of the fact that the process of reading is an interaction between the reader and the text. The impact that schema theory has on language teaching is real. Since the late 1960, as stated by Khemlani and Lynne (2000) a number of theorists have developed many interactive theories of reading which attribute a significant role to a reader and the knowledge they utilize to bear with the text in reading process. These interactive theories strongly influence teaching practice in which schema theory is highlighted.

Schema Theory of Learning

Learning is gaining information. The amount of learning is estimated by the amount of input of information .It is not, therefore, restricted to any specific type, but encompasses all types, both behaviours and attitudes. So, schema theory, contrary to other learning theories of behaviourism or cognitive dissonance, elucidates the acquisition of any type of knowledge and the instructional strategies based on it can be applied to any learning situation. The effectiveness of the theory in learning is overt as it explains how different types of knowledge is learned and suggests open instructional strategies to the educators to apply for the acquisition of new knowledge.

New Learning generates from old learning. For example, the teacher who aims at teaching a new item does something as pre-activity and this is how s/he helps students to recall their past learning. Learners apply their prior knowledge to predict the present situation. When the teacher gives sentence in which the word ‘apprehension’ is used as ‘the apprehension of corrupt officer was made by the police yesterday.’ The students peep into their memory and with the help of schema stored in it, they identify the link between police and corrupt officer and primarily recollect the word ‘arrest’ and later confirm the meaning of apprehension as arrest.

Individuals undergo numerous experiences. Students make use of the multiple schema-building experiences that would help them develop fresh problem-solving schemas and those schemas help them solve unfamiliar problems successfully. Therefore “instructors and instructional designers should assume that problem-solving ability is culminative not only overtime but over numerous experiences.”(Price and Driscoll, 1997)

The research of Price and Driscoll (1997) as the study of student problem-solving in familiar and unfamiliar context suggests that schema theory is a valid metaphor for explaining student’s knowledge structures and ability to recall information. While reading students recall their background knowledge and making use of it they understand the present text. Their background knowledge of vocabulary and syntax or any other experience start working actively and would help them predict the solutions for problems they finds in the text in the present situation. So to activate their past knowledge, it is any time better for the teacher to keep them engaged in reading. Their frequent meetings with the same word that can bear different synonyms and the way grammar is used by the writer in the text will print the knowledge of words and also the rules of grammar to construct proper sentences on the minds of students and they never feel frightened of communicating in a second language. Armbruster (1996, as quoted by Driscoll)

states that it is a wise strategy for teachers to adopt certain techniques to motivate students to contemplate existing schema and to help them make connections between existing schema and new information.

Three Modes of Learning

According to schema theorists there are three modes of learning:

Accretion: It is an addition of new input to already existing schema. The existing schema is unaltered. The learners, for example, while learning about new item that verbs with third person singular (he,she,it) take extra letters s,es,ies (Ex: drinks,goes,flies.) in simple present tense just add this new learning to their existing schemata of present tense. They already know that in present tense verb is in first form and it indicates incomplete actions. This new knowledge of adding suffixes to verb is simply added to what they already know.

Tuning: It is necessary alteration in the existing schema. This generally happens when the learners find themselves insufficient in possessing schema for the new knowledge and, therefore, modify existing schema. For example learners have the knowledge that simple present tense is used to state actions of permanence, repeated or habitual actions. When they are taught that it also used to state future actions, they modify their existing knowledge that there are no special verbs used to state future actions, and present tense is used to describe future actions and, therefore, in present and future tense verb is in first form only.

Restructuring: It is creating new schema by modeling. New schema created by modeling can be described as learning by analogy. For example, Students without having an existing schema for the concept of transformation of sentences from simple to complex and compound may learn about the concept of it by modeling new schema. They first form two sentences in present tense. They make use of their prior knowledge and form correct sentences. They feel immense strain to join these sentences with link words which is very unfamiliar to them.

Instructional Strategies According to Schema Theory

Schema theory suggests that the most important instructional strategy is activating the prior knowledge. The teacher has to go by several effective methods, implement useful techniques, and most importantly, plan appropriately before communicating new knowledge to students to stimulate their existing knowledge. This strategy, as prior to actual process of sending new information, is found tremendously working in teaching. Motivation for this reason is the first step in teaching and it facilitates the difficulties in learning, if done effectively.

The schema theory acknowledges the role of cognition in learning process and also states that the capacity of retention and recollection of the information are the deciding factors to confirm whether or not new information can be processed. Therefore many teachers advocate metacognitive strategies to teach learners.

For example, the teacher taught auxiliary verbs in the last class. The next day the teacher asks some questions on what was taught and learnt yesterday. This is to know how much the students are able to retain in their brains to learn a new item.

The responses of students reveal their retention ability and based on it the teacher either repeats the explanation by following an alternative method or discusses a new topic. Students may be given homework so that they read again what they have learnt in school or college that day. The text provides guidance for readers to construct meaning from their previously acquired knowledge. How the readers recognize information and how they store it are influenced by schemata.

Developing Independent Readers

Carrel (1983:569) claims that “one of the objectives of teachers is to develop independent readers outside the EFL/ESL classroom, readers whose purpose in learning to read in English as a foreign or second language is to learn from the text they read.”

A reader is not the one who is forced to read but the one who has innate interest to read. The text is just an external factor that can tantalize the learners to read when it is designed pampering the tastes, compulsions, emotions and demands of the learners. It draws the attention of the learners with qualities like

- The size
- The amount of interest it can create in readers
- The complexity
- The kind of information it contains
- The credulity
- The coherence
- The presentation

In a word, the nature of the text will influence the reader’s response to it. There is a belief that has existed for some time is that students who cannot read well in their first language will exhibit the same inability to read in a second or foreign language. From this belief emerged a serious pedagogical approach in teaching students reading strategies in their first as well as second language at the expense of the imparting of the second language linguistic knowledge as exemplified in Celani et al (1988) about Brazilian ESP project.

Achieving Comprehension

To achieve comprehension, readers select the most appropriate schemata for making sense of the incoming information. The reason why many learners show off-hand attitude to reading is, it is a tough battle where learners feel beset by numerous enemies like linguistic knowledge, vocabulary, grammar, message, ambiguity etc which spoil their understanding. Their determined effort with these challenges will finally lead to their comprehension of the

text. It is never easy but a consistent practice and training will allocate ability to learners to obviate the reading obstacles.

Rumerlhart and Brandford (1980:1985) studies of content schemata show that readers need knowledge about content of the context to be able to understand it. Such knowledge need not be available; it needs to be activated by the text or by the reader, if it is used to facilitate understanding.

For example students do not have the knowledge that ‘not either’ mean ‘also not’ When they read sentences like:

- Avyaya does not like mangoes. Madhurima does not like mangoes either.
- What! You do not go for a morning walk.I do not go either.
- Your brother cannot speak French. My sister cannot speak either.
- I am not rich. My friend is not either.

Their knowledge is activated and that will facilitate their understanding. They learn how to use ‘either’ to mean ‘also not.’ They also realize that the prior statement is a negative sentence and so ‘not either’ is used only with negative sentences.

The studies show that their reading performance can improve as a result of training. Hence the teachers have to provide such texts for reading as are helpful to improve the reading skill of lear

Schema Theory Based Pre-reading Tasks

According to Chastain (1988) the purpose of pre-reading activities is to motivate the students to want to read the assignment and to prepare them to be able to read it. Generally teachers are found giving the assignment to students because they assume that the students are already familiar with the vocabulary and grammar in the text and, therefore, ably perform the task. The teachers cannot take for granted that the students have the ability to encounter the complexities of the text. In such an approach to reading pre-reading activities which include word definition, and explaining syntax help the students to understand the complex structures of the text.

According to Ringler and Weber (1984) pre-reading activities are the enabling activities, because they provide the reader with necessary background to comprehend the material. Reading is an active process. It involves interaction between reader and writer mediated through the text. So reading on the other hand means discoursing with the writer. The text provides information, ideas and beliefs which need not be necessarily approved or appreciated by the readers. When they find their opinions contradictory to what they read in the text, they cannot easily accept this alienation.

Pre-viewing Strategies

Anerbach and Paxton (1997:259) suggest the following pre-viewing strategies.

- Accessing the prior knowledge
- Writing about your experience related to the topic
- Asking questions based on the title
- Semantic mapping
- Making predictions based on previewing
- Identifying the text structure
- Skimming for general ideas
- Reading the introduction and conclusion
- Writing a summary of the article

According to Chia (2001) the aim of previewing is to help readers make some educated guess about what is in the text and thus activate processing for reading comprehension.

Guidance

To make more specific predictions, students obviously need more guidance. The teacher should offer following guidelines.

- Ask the students to read the title of the text, whether they know anything about the subject.
- Ask them to read the first sentence of each paragraph. This is to know whether they can predict what the remaining part of the text will contain.
- Ask the students to read the last paragraph which often reveals the conclusion of the author, have the students discuss how the author organizes the information to present his point of view

Questioning

Students can learn more effectively when they generate their own questions, summarize and exert choice in the lesson than when they do not. Students should be told to summarize or paraphrase after each paragraph or important section. This will help them recollect the main ideas, arrange them in order and enter them in their long-term memory. The feedback given by the teacher will help them look out for errors in their comprehension next time.

Three-phase approach (pre-reading, while reading and post-reading) gives an interesting approach to reading. The approach begins by introducing the topic to students. Once the topic is presented the students are asked to work in groups and write a list of two columns, column of familiar things and column of unfamiliar things. They can discuss with other groups to know the familiarity or unfamiliarity of the text they are going to read. Most of their doubts can be

clarified by interactions. More over they feel comfortable to discuss openly with their friends which they cannot with their teachers.

Using Diagrams

Diagrams are supporting teaching aids which give a concrete shape to abstract ideas. Students are beguiled to muse at the figures and begin to think of the obscure as the visual diagrams bring the thought in form before their eyes which they feel happy to realize. Diagrams are crucial for organization of ideas and supporting information prior to writing essays. Graphic organizers may provide structure for taking notes from text books. In addition, they allow scaffolding for visual learners, second language learners and students with language proficiency deficits, so they can better integrate vocabulary into background language. (Armbruster and Anderson 1984, 1991; Cook, 1997; Pruisner,1995)

Figures, charts, graphs and diagrams will create thinking ability in students. This will also alleviate the burden of the teacher. Students when look at the pictures will develop ideas which give them insight into the matter. Teacher's explanation of a thing will be one-sided. When students are given lee-way to think in their own way they have admirable chances to exchange their ideas. This will make them have an access to others mind where they study what others are thinking about a particular thing. The teacher will also understand the thinking level of the students to think introspectively to implement further strategies and methods for betterment.

Semantic Mapping

One popular kind of pre-reading task is 'Brain storming' according to Wallace (1992) The teacher gives a key word or key concept. The students are then invited to call out words or concepts they personally associate with. This strategy as a pre-reading activity is more advantageous because it will reduce the burden of the teacher of giving illustration to everything in the text. Instead of from the teacher the students learn from each other. This acquisition of learning is more delightful for them.

For example the teacher gives the keyword phonetics which has association with "pronunciation," "stress," "intonation," "syllabic division." However the initial random pronunciation can be clarified and sub-categorized either with the teacher or by the students and additional confirmation from the teacher will stretch the existing concepts. This kind of activity resembles what has been called Semantic Mapping.

Schema Theory in Intensive Reading

Intensive reading is generally at a lower speed and the reader who desires to follow this strategy, requires to have a higher degree of understanding to develop and refine word a study skills, enlarge passive vocabulary reinforced skills related to sentence structure, increase active vocabulary, distinguish among supportive and non-supportive details and provide socio-cultural insights. In intensive reading, the reader is an active participant, making predictions processing information. Intensive readers thus recognize not only what the text says but also how the text

portrays that subject matter, and this is how it helps them validate the theory that each text is a unique creation of a unique author. Insurmountable barriers like concentration, memory and language processing beset the readers in intensive reading process where the readers' prior knowledge and purpose of reading and language proficiency carry him through the task.

In traditional English teaching, the students were taught the meanings of words, phrases, idioms and sentences, most frequently in the L₁ of students. In reading, students were supposed to understand the meanings of language constituents in lieu of overall meaning of a text. In modern English teaching and learning programme, the general understanding of the text is becoming more important.

According to Goodman (1971), reading is a "psychological guessing game." He further states that in the reading programme, the reader reconstructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display. Schema theory explains that a text only provides directions for listeners and readers as how they should retrieve or construct meaning of their own and this is their acquired knowledge. This previously acquired knowledge is called the readers' background knowledge.

Comprehension of the text requires the readers' ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge. "Every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world." (Anderson et al 1977) The individuals through perceptions and understanding of the world form a theory in the light of which they interpret their interactions with the world, hence, obviously the more knowledge of the world the readers have, the better comprehension they get about the text.

During the reading process the readers bring information, knowledge, experience, emotions and culture to the printed word and make decisions about something. To help the students understand the global meaning of the text, the teacher should teach the students to link their prior knowledge with the text.

Conclusion

It is important for the teacher to activate the prior knowledge of students by conducting pre-reading activities. They will help them recollect their past knowledge which would be useful in comprehending the present text thoroughly.

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**Achieving Professional Goals: Use of a Mixed Discourse
in Interviews**

Maya Khemlani David, Ph.D.
Usha Ong, M.A.

Abstract

In multilingual Malaysia, using two or more languages in one's discourse has become a norm, be it in formal (see David, 2003 on code switching in Malaysian courts) and informal settings (see David, 2007 on code switching among Malay, Chinese and Indian Malaysian youth).

While purists, including political figures in the country, disparage the use of a mixed discourse especially when it entails the mix of Malay, the national language, with the other languages used in the country, this paper argues that the use of a mixed code, especially between the national language, Malay and the international language, English has become the sine qua non of language choice and is a strategy used to achieve certain professional objectives in business talk and professional interactions among the many ethnic groups in the country.

This paper focuses on interviews by journalists of local English dailies and examines the existence and frequency of use of a mixed code and the reasons for the mixed discourse between interviewers and interviewees. Code switching should no longer be viewed negatively as a strategy to overcome differences in levels of proficiency of the interlocutors involved. The

analysis clearly shows that code switching is intentionally used to achieve professional objectives.

Keywords: code switching, mixed discourse, Malaysia, journalists

Introduction

Code-switches in the Professional Domain: Previous Research in Malaysia

David (1999) explains that the use of two or more codes or languages in an utterance has become a feature in the Malaysian repertoire of languages, because of its associations with status, ingroup solidarity and differing linguistic skills. In the legal setting, David (2003) showed that code-switches are used by lawyers to achieve a certain effect for instance to reprimand and in this way to display power (usually by judges to lawyers and/or by lawyers to witnesses).

Code-switches are also used extensively in the corporate entity, as professionals have to accommodate their clients' needs. Although Nambiar (1999) did not study code-switches per se in her study of the strategies of negotiations between bankers and loan applicants in Malaysia, her data revealed that the choices of codes used by both parties reflected accommodation. The selection of a code that is likely to be perceived as distancing could be detrimental to a bank's corporate targets.

In the civil service Jariah Mohd Jan (2003) who focuses on gender discourse, showed that interlocutors code-switch between English and Malay in formal governmental meetings in Kuala Lumpur. Malay was used by a Malay high ranking civil servant to display power over non-Malay subordinates.

In the Malaysian corporate domain, Morais (1990) claims that code-switching is found at every level of the hierarchy, although it is more pronounced in the middle (executive and supervisory) and lower (workers) levels. She reports that members of all local ethnic groups alternate between Malay and English in heterogeneous group interactions. However, Chinese and Indians switch to their native languages when interacting with members of their own ethnic groups (p. 4). Interestingly, Swedish managers in the car company surveyed alternate between English and Swedish even in the presence of local Malaysian managers. This may indicate that the Swedish managers sometimes wish to keep private certain issues.

In addition to providing care for their patients, medical doctors (MD) have to be linguistically accommodative to their patients. Chu (2005) showed that MDs at a private clinic for children use code-switches to build rapport and kinship with their patients and to create solidarity. MDs also accommodate to their child patients by using motherese to elicit positive behaviour and cooperation from children.

According to Federicks (1997) MDs who do not accommodate their patients' language/s may cause distortion, condensation and omission to the original message. MDs not only code-switch from a high variety code (e.g. medical discourse) to a jargon-free L-variety code (e.g. discourse of the lay man) but in multilingual Malaysia also from language to language/dialect depending on the language preferred/understood by their patients.

These studies reveal that Malaysian professionals code-switch in order to converge or diverge their discourse from that of their interlocutors with the objective of creating rapport or at times to signify power.

Research Questions

This research seeks answers to the following questions:

- (1) What is the frequency of code switching by Malaysian journalists interviewing bilingual speakers?
- (2) What is the frequency of code switching of bilingual speakers interviewed by Malaysian journalists?
- (3) What functions are fulfilled when code switching occurs in formal interviews?

It is important to understand why code switching occurs during interviews as such knowledge could lead to more productive interviews. Productive interviews in this context mean an interview that produces complete answers to satisfy the needs of the reporter or journalist and helps to write a story which provides all the necessary details.

Methodology

Data was obtained through audio-recorded interviews of the conversations between journalists and interviewees in order to determine the occurrence of code switching. The audio recordings involved a total of three journalists, one male and two females from a daily English newspaper, in three separate interviews, each with different subjects, totaling nine interviews. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes, which adds up to an average of four and the half hours of audio recordings.

The interviewees whose verbal interactions were tape-recorded were Malays and represented different socio-economic and educational backgrounds. Six of them were entertainers, two were business people and one was a government official. Initials were used to protect the identity of the subjects.

There were preconditions on the selection of the subjects for the study. They were: 1) the interviewees had to be bilingual in English and Malay, 2) all the journalists were born and educated in Malaysia, 3) interviews had to run for at least 30 minutes, and 4) the interviewees

had to be native speakers of Malay. These conditions were set to control the variables in the study.

In addition to the audio recordings of the interviews conducted, the journalists and interviewees were questioned in an informal manner to identify their reasons for the use of a mixed language in their interviews. Journalists (journalists U, I and K) and interviewees (interviewees S,D,N,M,F,J,DK, H and G) were asked why they used an alternative language during their interviews. This is one of the strengths of this research whereby the analysis includes not only the viewpoint of the researchers but this is also validated through interviews with the various subjects in this study.

This study is based on the fact that code switching is not a strategy to overcome a respondent's lack of proficiency (be it in Malay or English). Therefore a benchmark for classifying all 12 respondents' level of proficiency was necessary. Their level of education was selected as a benchmark for this. Tertiary education in the English medium shows the highest proficiency. The relationship between the education level is conversely related to the proficiency. In other words, the higher the education level, the higher the proficiency.

Theory

Speech Accommodation Theory (Giles and Smith, 1979) contends that speakers switch to the language of their listeners if they want to get close to them (this is called convergence). In the Malaysian setting, code switching to accommodate had been noted by David (1999) in her study of buyers and sellers in service encounters in Malaysia. David identified the convergence of both parties using the Speech Accommodation Theory as a basis for analysis in her study. She showed that regardless of language proficiency, both the buyers and sellers tried to accommodate through code switches and this resulted in the birth of a new language variety which was the code mixed discourse (David, 1999).

Analysis

During the course of the interviews, the journalists who were working for an English language daily used English to project an image of professionalism regardless of the presence of non-native English speakers. Using English confers a degree of professionalism because the journalists represent an English medium newspaper. In this circumstance, it would seem unprofessional to use any other language than English. But at times, to achieve a particular function, the journalists code switched during the interview, proving that mixed languages are used in formal functions too.

In the analysis of most of the interviews in this study, code switching was usually initiated by the journalists and not the interviewees. The interviewees usually started to mix codes only after observing the journalists doing so. Before that, they spoke in one language but when the journalists mixed codes in their interviews, the interviewees took it as sign that they could code

switch too. This fact was revealed by the interviewees during the post-interview discussion with them. The language of the journalists' discourse more often than not was the stimulus for code switching by the interviewees.

A total number of 306 switches were recorded from all nine transcripts in this study. Out of this total, all three journalists collectively performed a total of 42 switches. The interviewees were found to have 265 switches (see Table 1). This is because they had longer speaking turns and this is natural when being asked questions.

Table 1: Functions of code switching

Functions	S	D	N	M	F	J	DK	H	G	Total
Conjoin	21	15	19	13	5			9		82
Ease of Expression	4	10	20	9		1				44
Accommodation	20	17	4					1		42
Untranslatability	1	16	5	1			1			24
Emphasise	5	1	8	2	3			1		20
Quote		7	2	2	2	1				14
Clarify	3		3	3	3			2	1	15
Show Contrast	4			4					1	9
Crutch	3	1	3		1					8
Communicate Emotions			3	2						5
Disclose Personal Facts	1		1							2
TOTAL	62	67	68	36	14	2	1	13	2	265

A total of 5 functions were found in the discourse of journalists marking their reasons for code switching. These are accommodation, clarification, crutching, conjoining and untranslatability. Accommodation appeared to be the favourite code switching function. The reasons for code switching were verified in discussions with the journalists.

A total of 11 functions were identified in the interviewees discourse. These are conjoining, ease of expression, accommodation, untranslatability, emphasizing, quotation, clarification, showing contrasts, crutching, communicate emotions and disclose personal facts. The reasons for code switching were verified as a result of discussions with the interviewees.

Strategy to Extract Answers

Journalist U informed that when she realised her questions in “stand alone” English did not result in lengthy and complete answers from the interviewee, she started to use more Malay words in her utterances as a communicative strategy and to encourage the speaker to provide comprehensive answers. As U accommodated to the speech of D, D too also accommodated and started to mix codes. The result was interviewee D was more willing to provide detailed answers to the journalist during the interview.

In an interview, an interviewer's task is to ask questions to obtain information from the interviewee hence, it is extremely crucial for the interviewer to make sure the questions they ask are worded in a clear manner so that the listener understands the intention of the questions.

That said it was equally important for the interviewee to provide clear answers to the questions asked. One way, according to some of the interviewees, was through the language alternation strategy. This strategy helped them to elaborate when responding to the reporters’ questions.

Code Switch to Conjoin

The need to combine sentences together can cause a speaker to code switch as the data in this study shows. The journalists did not seem to be aware that the conjunctions they used were in another language. Only one journalist performed a switch to conjoin (4 times) but the interviewees seemed to favour using conjunctions from another language in their speech. 6 interviewees recorded a total of 82 switches to conjoin (31%), making it the most frequently cited reason for code switching by the interviewees.

To Co-join

Table 1 shows the 11 functions and frequency of code switching in the discourse of interviewees during a formal interview. A total of 265 switches were recorded from the transcripts of the interviews. The findings in the study indicate that six interviewees performed a total of 31% switches to conjoin, making it the highest recorded function for code switching. Three of the interviewees (M, F, and H) used English words to conjoin their sentences with words such as “so,” “and” “then” and “because.” The other three (S, D, and N) used Malay words to conjoin their predominantly English sentences. These words include *lepas itu* (after that), *jadi* (so), *untuk* (for), *kalau* (if), *sebab* (because), and *tapi* (but).

To Accommodate

Code switching for accommodation was the most frequently used function in the discourse of the discourse but it is the number three spot in the frequency chart for the interviewees. The interviewees said that the alternation to another language was done to get their points across – be it in English or Malay.

In all cases, the interviewees due to their longer turns accommodated more than the journalists. They as mentioned earlier took their cue to switch once the journalists had done so. By doing this, they believed they had created a friendly and co-operative atmosphere. The journalists also were of the view that by switching codes they showed camaraderie and made the interviewee feel at ease.

For Emphasis

When one wants to get a point across, an alternation between two languages may result. D does this when she switches from Malay at one juncture in her sentence to English to emphasise a point and then continues in Malay and when she wishes to express her second point in the next sentence, once again a switch from Malay to English is noted. Using another code was quite plainly D's strategy to get her point across to the journalist.

To Quote

It was noticed that the use of different languages to quote a speech of another was quite rampant among the different sets of interviewees.

Code Switch to Crutch

In a formal interview setting, it is common to see many questions constantly being asked, one after the other. In their attempt to answer the continuous barrage of questions as fast as they could, the interviewees sometimes felt pressured and this caused them to forget certain words. When faced with this situation, the interviewees in this study switched languages to fill in the gaps in their answers. This function of code switching is called crutching which Zentella (1997) claims is used to conceal linguistic gaps when a speaker is at a loss for words.

Private information

This shows that both interlocutors in this interview use a different language choice other than their habitual language to reveal private information. S explains her poor album sales using English to reveal a fact that she finds embarrassing. This fact may have been hard for her to admit so she uses another language, not her habitual one. After her switch interviewee S reverts to her habitual Malay.

Conclusion

The conversations between journalists and interviewees are analysed to determine the frequency of code switches by each individual. In addition, the function of each code switch is analysed. The 11 functions found in this study are accommodation, crutching, conjoining, clarifying, untranslatability, ease of expression, emphasizing, disclosing personal facts, showing contrast, quoting, and communicating emotions.

As the data in this study shows, code switching is present not only in informal settings but formal ones such as in an interview.

The journalists did not code switch as much as interviewees because as reporters for an English based newspaper, they tend to use English and were prolific in English notwithstanding their ethnicity. The Malay interviewees on the other hand, tend to code switch much more due to a number of reasons such as to conjoin, for ease of expression, accommodate, emphasise, untranslatability, quote, clarify, show contrast, crutch, communicate emotions, and disclose personal facts. All the interviewees with one exception code switched more than the journalists.

Although for the journalists switching is not as rampant and frequent as the interviewees, this does not mean that they did not code switch at all. They did code switch and sometimes the reasons were the same as the interviewees especially when they code switched to accommodate, crutch, conjoin and clarify.

Some of these code switching functions were performed by both journalists as well as the interviewees, proving that code switching accomplishes a wide range of functions to satisfy and achieve professional ends.

Accommodation forms the highest and most substantial function as performed by the journalists, whereas for the interviewees, code switching to conjoin performed the highest function. Journalists accommodated by using Malay because as reporters they wanted to get a favourable reply from their Malay interviewees and they used this strategy to do so.

It is clear that both the journalists and the interviewees had their reasons for code switching but the ultimate goal was to effectively communicate their message. This study clearly illustrate that bilingual speakers of different backgrounds (age, education level, years of work experience) use code switching as a framework to enhance communication in the formal interview setting in multilingual Malaysia.

Code switching functions as a strategy that is utilised by both the journalists and interviewees – more so by the latter to negotiate meaning with each other. Their manipulation of both the English and Malay language serve the speakers well to achieve their communicative objectives through strategies that allows them to accommodate, crutch, conjoin words, emphasise, clarify, communicate emotions, disclose personal information, and show contrast. Code switching can be said to be used as a linguistic tool by Malaysian bilinguals, both in the informal or formal setting (formal setting includes the interview setting), enabling them to fulfill the communicative functions mentioned.

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The Reality in Langston Hughes' Poems

Nila Ekanath, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper discusses the real depiction of society in the Harlem poems of Langston Hughes. The introduction deals with the origin of slavery and the beginning of Harlem Renaissance. The African Americans begin to understand their significance in America. The Black writers of the twentieth century started to express this newborn feeling of having significance in society, the need for social equivalence, protesting against injustice, wanting to go in search of African roots and the feeling of belongingness in America. Langston Hughes especially, among many other writers took to freezing history in the lines of his poems. The most remarkable pieces of work are the poems that deal with the happenings in Harlem.

Right at the beginning of his literary career Hughes was determined to weave his literary works purely from human experience as he saw it and what he perceived in real life. The element of History resounds so strongly in the poems that deal with Harlem. Harlem is the international Black capital. Hughes observed the surging folk life in the haunts of the habitues of Beale Street or at the common places on Rampart Street, and the active and

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the creative imagination of Hughes was busy with highlights of the Great Migration to Harlem.

Hughes formed his subject matter based on the misfortunes of lovers, personal sorrow involving death, poverty, loneliness, oppression, alienation and other grief. The poems sound the sorrow of the Black folk. Sometimes a simple crucial experience comes to life through a dramatic picture appealing to imagination. The paper discusses this sociological approach and Langston Hughes's ability to picture life in Harlem in the realm of his poems.

Literary Works Based Only on Human Experience

Right at the beginning of his literary career Hughes was determined to weave his literary works purely from human experience as he saw it and what he perceived in real life. Realism in literature is an "attempt to describe human behaviour and surroundings or to represent figures and objects exactly as they act or appear in life". Hughes has an avowed concern for human conditions, and especially the African American condition. He drew liberally from the rich heritage of the Black people and dwelt on the African-American culture, aesthetics, feelings, emotions, attitudes and their folk life. Confronting the real condition of the African Americans has a cathartic or a therapeutic effect on the poet.

The History of the Blacks in America

The History of the Blacks in America started in the sixteenth century when a Dutch ship brought the first set of slaves to the shores of America from Africa. This reminds the words of Wilberforce who wrote "There is something shocking in the idea of our unfortunate fellow creatures in captivity and exile, exposed to public view and sold like a herd of cattle" (quoted in Nelson 8).

After years of slavery, struggle and misery, the African Americans started to get an awakening and cry out for emancipation. Pieces of writings started to appear and most often the subjects dealt with were the suffering of the Blacks under slavery. The themes prevailed on the social and cultural conditions of the marginalised group and the African-American Diaspora.

The struggle of the African-Americans for emancipation finally concluded in the proclamation of Emancipation in 1863. The thirteenth amendment to the American constitution appeared in 1865 which confirmed the abolition of slavery. The fourteenth amendment was brought in 1868 and this granted citizenship to the free slave and the fifteenth which came in 1870 gave them their right to vote and defended them against

restrictive legislation. But many devices adopted to unofficially curb the African-Americans from rising up to take their rights or reach high posts and the activities of the Ku Klux Klan which worked against the Blacks pushed the marginalised community to a condition where it silently suffered racial segregation.

African-American Literature

African-American literature included all the troubles faced by the race and also its innate beauty and aesthetics. Amidst the juxtaposition of diverse aesthetic sensibilities, African-American literature was able to popularise as well as enforce the reality of its cultural and traditional aesthetics and also impress the stamp of individual beauty and value. The real importance of the race came out in the wash only after the Harlem Renaissance which was also known as the New Negro movement. It was during the 1920s and there was a composite of different types of persons. The history of Black America and its cultural forms has been a history of survival and the poetry of the African Americans reflects this

The Literary Reach of Langston Hughes

Hughes never believes in only portraying the better side of life and his theory of art was to portray the ugliness as readily as the beauty of African-American life, the unsavoury and the admirable. He portrays their life as he saw it and his people were porters, elevator boys, shoe shine boys, cooks, waiters, nurses, maids, gamblers, drunks, piano players, cabaret singers, chorus gents, and ordinary decent, hard-working men and women. They are the ones who crowd the street corners, bars, beauty shops and barber shops and churches, hot rented rooms and stuffy apartments and even the Black sections of cities. They are the dwellers on Beale Street, State Street, and Seventh Avenue, Central Avenue and Lenox Avenue. They are the ones who made Chicago's South side and New York's Harlem both famous and infamous.

Poems of Hughes

In poems like "Mother to Son" and "The Negro Mother," Hughes proves himself to be a dramatic social poet. He speaks in a multiplicity of voices, through a multitude of personas, each purveying authentic Black attitudes, views and lifestyles that are as heterogeneous as the African-American population. He wanted to drive the message home that Harlem is neither a gay nor a healthy city and that it was basically a tragic and frustrated city. It is a full and many sided community and there is the pathos of night funerals of Black celebrities, their vice squad detectives, bitter anti-Semitism, churches and street corner orators. It is a Harlem of a community of objectives and melodies. He

pictures a Harlem of some gaiety and of much sardonic laughter; among all else it is Harlem of a dream long deferred.

Portrayal of Black Suffering

The beatings, lynchings and daily humiliation of segregation which African Americans suffered in the South and elsewhere outraged Hughes. As a member of the Harlem society and the African-American community, he accepted the responsibility to speak out against these injustices in his writing and the volumes of poetry that poured out of his pen contained the most ironic and powerful lines that he ever wrote. In accordance with this view, Christopher opines in “Rage, Repudiation and Endurance: Langston Hughes’s Radical writings” as follows:

The Scottsboro incident of 1931 set the tone for much of Hughes’s radical poetry and prose...The incident involved nine African American teenagers who were jailed in Scottsboro, Alabama, for allegedly raping two white prostitutes in an open rail road freight car. After a trial in Scottsboro, eight of the youths were sentenced to the electric chair and the ninth to life imprisonment. In ‘I Wonder as I Wander’ Hughes reveals that Ruby Bates, one of the white women involved in the incident, later recanted her rape testimony and admitted that she fabricated the entire story. (De Santis 31)

Taking this incident very much to heart, Hughes took a firm stand in expressing his feelings for the African Americans. The theme of African-American rising up against the oppression of Whites was the prevalent theme in most of his post-Scottsboro writing. There is a juxtaposition of humanity and nature. As shown in the poem “Warning.”

Negroes,
Sweet and docile,
Meek, humble, and kind:
Beware the day
They change their mind! [...] (1-5) (CP 365)

Hughes relates to the dispossessed slaves in the Southern fields and to the plantation overseas. It is a revelation that fury will not sprout from the meek and humble, but rather from the oppressed, the brutalised and the displaced.

The Blacks During Depression

It was a time of depression and along with depression came hunger, oppression and racial violence and Hughes entertained revolutionary feelings and thoughts as he reacted to this upheaval. He believed that the significant role of poetry was depicting the life of the people. He felt it should deal with the circumstances and the conventions of experience, like manure giving birth to some beautiful growth.

Harlem became the principal referent and metaphor for the world that he wanted to interpret and he was proud of being an African American. He talks of his people in “My people.”

The night is beautiful,
So the faces of my people.

The stars are beautiful,
So the eyes of my people [...]. (1-4) (CP 36)

Portraying the Beauty and Strength of the Blacks

Hughes was committed to see the strength and beauty of the African Americans and he celebrated African-American beauty. One of the predominating themes of Hughes is the world of Harlem. His poetry constantly expressed the wonderful Black Metropolis and its colourful inhabitants. The capricious moods of the African-American ghetto, the variety in its people and their changing thoughts and actions are touched upon. The problems of the Harlemites, their experiences, their life style and their language interested him. There is a display of the drama of African-American history in his verses. He also hopes for brighter days in Harlem as shown in “Hope for Harlem:”

Now there's a new skyline in Harlem.
It's rising tall and free-
And if it keeps on rising
There'll be a brand new me [...]. (13-16) (CP 436)

There is a common feeling that the African-Americans are reaching the heights. “‘Ebony’ and ‘Jet’ magazines are an ongoing certification that black success does not require rebellion and resentment; and because of that, they will live on in Black America as “oldies but goodies” (McWhorter 9). There are poems on simple tones, which seem to comment on something light and common, but they come not without a slight punch undermining which brings the reality of Harlem life. Such as in “Comment on Curb.”

You talk like
They don't kick
Dreams around
Downtown [...]. (1-4) (CP 428)

The scenes portray the happenings in the New York Black ghetto involving manifold feelings and emotions. The African-American life style and their bohemian ways is expressed in the poem. There are also social variations in status amidst African Americans that are evident in the Black ghetto which is pictured in 'Low to High!':

How can you forget me?
But you do!
You said you was gonna take me
Up with you- [...] (1-4) (CP 411)

Life in Harlem

Harlem, despite the fact that it witnessed lot of misery that befell its inhabitants due to racial segregation had its gay and happy side too. It had its songs, dances, and parties. The "Parade" talks of "Seven ladies and seventeen gentlemen" who plan a typical Harlem parade:

Seven ladies
and seventeen gentlemen
at the Elks Club Lounge
planning planning a parade:

Grand Marshal in his White suit
Will lead it [...]. (1-6) (CP 388)

There are many more such vivid pictures of Harlem life, the African-American folk life, which have been spread out in many poems. When things grow worse the poems become interrogations in verse. There is doubt and anxiety in tone, there is the feeling of being lonely and lost, expressions of disappointment and sometimes impatience too. A poem like "Harlem [2]" proves this point.

What happens to a dream deferred?

Does it dry up

like a raisin in the sun?
Or fester like a sore –
And then run? [...]. (1-5) (CP 426)

The interrogative mood shoots from the expectations that are failed. When things do not work, the way they should be doing, emotions come out with great heat. Though there are no expectations for answers, the questions come with earnest yearning to tear free from the shackles of injustice, disappointment and frustration at failed hopes. The throbbing life and happenings in Harlem provided inspiration for most of his poems.

The Pride in Black Identity

Poems like “Negro,” “My people,” “The South,” and “Mother to Son” reveal the pride he had for being Black and being a poet of the Harlemites. In “Negro” he soars high in celebrating the beauty of Blacks and the height of their achievements. He also touches upon the injustice afflicted on them.

I am a Negro:
Black as the night is black,
Black like the depth of my Africa.
I’ve been a slave: [...]. (1-4) (CP 24)

Every line in this poem echoes with racial pride. There is praise of African- American life style. There is pride that it still survived with strength in the face of odds. The hard luck days Blacks face when they are hired and fired also highlight the unpleasant side of Harlem. “Park Benching” is one of such a kind.

There are no jobs.
There is no work.
So I’ve sat on the park benches
Hungry [...]. (9-12) (CP 49)

The poem echoes the misery of poverty and unemployment in Harlem. The scenario of Harlem life depicted the particular lives of its inhabitants. The Black ghetto becomes a platform of the individual achievements of African-American heroes.

The African-American urban life was tragicomic and was a mixture of tendencies. There were hopes, triumphs, new beginnings, optimism, confidence and mental strength on one hand and on the other betrayals, anger, frustration, misery, craziness, oppression and loneliness in the urban African-American life. Hughes saw the Black ghetto as a

symbolic place that was a personification of African-American life. He laughs with, cries with, and speaks for the African Americans more understandingly than any other writer for which he rightly came to be known as the poet-laureate of Harlem.

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Techniques to Teach Vocabulary to Regional Medium Students

J. R. Nirmala, Ph.D.

Abstract

The aim of the present study is to study the impact of vocabulary teaching techniques on vocabulary learning by Regional Medium Students of Tamilnadu. For this study, nearly 60 students from professional colleges, particularly I year B.E./B.Tech. students, were identified based on their medium of instruction at the school level. This strength was divided into two different groups, namely,

1. Student studied in Tamil medium from Urban Background – Tamil Medium & Urban Background, TM & UB.
2. Student studied in Tamil medium from Rural Background. – Tamil Medium & Rural Background, TM & RB.

The First Group TM & UB, consists of 28 students, both boys & girls. Of this strength 12 are girls and 16 are boys. These students were taught to learn new English words by producing either spoken or written sentences using them (a contextualizing technique).

The Second group TM & RB had 32 students. Of this, 10 were girls, and the remaining 22 were boys. These students were taught to learn new English words by memorizing word lists

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associated with their Technical Subjects (a de-contextualizing technique) and allowing them to practice.

The data were collected using two types of tests: a memorization test and a sentence-making test, which were administered to both groups.

The results of the study revealed that the students in the TM & RB outperformed those in the TM & UB quite significantly on a vocabulary memorization test. The TM & UB had better performance on a sentence-making test than the TM & RB, though the difference was not statistically significant.

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that memorization of word-lists can work better than sentence-making practice, especially for Tamil Medium Students of Rural Background at low levels of proficiency.

Introduction

Vocabulary learning, by far, plays a very crucial role in learning another language. Seal, (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 269) states that “To the non-language specialist, the common sense view of how languages are learned is that always we substitute the words in our first language for the corresponding words in the second language. Words are perceived as the building blocks upon which knowledge of the second language can be built.”

The vocabulary of any language is huge and its acquisition takes time, even for a native speaker. Research has concentrated more on how words are learnt than on what should be taught, though everyone agrees that a threshold of around 2000-3000 words is a requirement for further progress. Extensive reading leads to good vocabulary gains. Also teachers can help the learners to become autonomous by teaching useful strategies and ensuring the availability of appropriate, motivating materials.

Importance of Vocabulary Teaching/Learning

Considering the crucial role attributed to vocabulary learning in second or foreign language learning, one can appreciate the importance of vocabulary teaching as well. A number of research studies have dealt with lexical problems, namely, problems which language learners face in vocabulary learning. The research findings have revealed that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication. As a matter of fact, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Allen, 1983).

Three Approaches to Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

If we consider vocabulary teaching and learning, there are three approaches to vocabulary teaching/learning:

- learning vocabulary as a by-product of doing other things such as reading or listening),
- explicit or direct instruction (i.e., diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting such words to the learners and elaborating on their word knowledge) and
- independent strategy development (i.e., practicing guessing the meaning of the words from context and training learners to use dictionaries) (Hunt & Beglar 2000, cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002).

In connection with the first two approaches to vocabulary teaching/learning, a number of methods can be employed. One can make use of de-contextualizing techniques such as memorizing the word lists or using flashcards. And while adopting the indirect approach, one can utilize contextualizing techniques such as reading and listening practice and speaking and writing practice (Oxford & Crookall, 1990).

In regard to the first two approaches to vocabulary teaching/learning, there is a problem to select the best approach or to identify the authentic approach to augment the vocabulary teaching and learning process.

Argument in Favour of Systematic Teaching

There are a number of studies which have addressed the issue, but most of such studies have come up with mixed results. As a matter of fact, there is no general or common opinion on the superiority of one approach over the other. Nation (1994) argues for a systematic rather than an incidental approach to the teaching of vocabulary and argues that such a factor is an essential part of a language course. He points out the limitations of incidental learning and the fact that second language learners are often unable to benefit from incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading because of limitations in their vocabulary knowledge. Read (2004) also encounter that although learners certainly acquire word knowledge incidentally while engaged in various language learning activities, more direct and systematic study of vocabulary is required.

Statement of the Problem

The present study intended to touch upon a relevant aspect of the two major approaches of vocabulary learning/teaching. It investigated the effect(s) of two vocabulary teaching/learning techniques, that is,

- memorization of word lists (a de-contextualizing technique) and
- Sentence-making practice (a contextualizing technique) on learning English vocabulary as a foreign language.

Based on the points mentioned in the above paragraph, one can state the following research question: Is sentence-making practice (as a contextualizing technique) superior to memorization of word lists (as a de-contextualizing technique)?

The vocabulary acquisition is in desperate need of investigation in both second and foreign language learning situations.

Deciding on the Relative Usefulness/Efficacy of Different Practices

The main purpose of this study is to examine the superiority of sentence-making practice. Also using a type of speaking and writing practice on vocabulary items (a contextualizing technique) over rote memorization of word lists (a de-contextualizing technique) or vice versa and their effect(s) on learning English vocabulary as a foreign language in a Professional education curriculum.

Methodology

60 students from the same professional college, particularly the students who are all doing I year B.E./B.Tech Programs participated in this study. Students were randomly chosen from different branches of engineering and technology sections. These students came from various districts of Tamilnadu. The classes met for two hours a day, two days a week. The reason for the selection of these students for this study was that they were considered as slow learners. Vocabulary items as paired associates from their textbooks were presented to them. These included word lists in English also from their Engineering subjects.

Materials

In order to conduct this study a vocabulary test was constructed based on the vocabulary items presented to students in their book.

Example – Word Level

1. Technical vocabulary
2. Affixing
3. Word formation
4. Synonyms & Antonyms

Sentence Writing

1. Definition – Defining the words (Example: A robot, A Computer etc.,)
2. Description – Describing any physical object.

3. Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions and suitable tense forms, adjectives & Adverbs.
4. Cause and Effect
5. Purpose and Means

The test was administered to the participants both as a pretest, to see if they were homogeneous enough to start the study, and as a post test, to measure the difference between the achievements of the two groups with respect to the type of vocabulary teaching/learning technique employed in each group.

Data collection and analysis

In order to begin the study and to make sure that the two groups were comparable enough to start the study, this research work was administered the pre-test to both TM & UB and TM & RB groups.

As it was explained in the procedures, as far as the memorization test was concerned, the subjects were expected to produce, in writing, the meaning of the words which they had memorized. The words appeared in a list and the subjects were asked to provide their memorized meanings. The questionnaire was in the form of Match the following, Fill in the blanks, Cloze Test format, etc.

Example 1

"Meaning of accumulation" or " Meaning of Contamination
 Accumulation – forming together, combining, gathering or amassing
 Contamination - toxic waste, pollution etc.

Example 2 – Match the following

S.No	Column – A	Column – B
1.	Cramped	Not moving
2.	Stagnant	Polluted
3.	Robot	Confined
4.	Contaminated	Of people
5.	Folk	Mechanical man

Example 3 Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions

The story ----- the English language is typically one -----the massive stealing ----other languages. That is why English today has an estimated vocabulary -----over one million words.

Example 4 -Fill in the blanks with suitable articles

1. I love ----- flowers in your garden.
2. I always listen to ----- radio in the morning.
3. Listen! Dennis is playing -----trumpet.
4. She has never been to ----- alps before.

Example 5 – Define the following

1. A Calculator
2. A Flow Chart

Example 6 : Write the description on

1. Refrigerator
2. Washing Machine

Example 7 combine the following using suitable cause and effect Expressions

1. Holiday declared for schools and colleges – heavy rain
2. Deforestation – ozone layer depletion

Example 8 Combine the following hits using suitable purpose and means Expression

1. An aerial – receive the broad cast signals
2. A Carbon paper – make more number of copies

Confirming whether the two groups performed statistically different on the two tests, the raw scores obtained from the administration of the test were subjected to two separate independent t-tests at minimum level of significance.

Results and Discussion

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J. R. Nirmala, Ph.D.

Techniques to Teach Vocabulary to Regional Medium Students

With respect to the results obtained from the analysis of data pertaining to the pre- and post-test, one can conclude that although the difference between the means of the TM & UB group and the TM & RB group was not statistically significant, the treatment given to the TM & RB group had affected this group to some extent.

The interesting findings of this study can mainly be attributed to the results of the administration of the second test which was composed of two tests: memorization test and sentence-making test. As stated above, the TM & UB had outperformed the control group quite significantly on the memorization test. There is, in fact, a mean difference of eight points between the means of the two groups. It reveals that the treatment given had affected the TM & UB group so that the participants in this group could easily recall the meanings of the words.

The results obtained from the administration of the sentence-making test are also quite noticeable. The TM & UB group had a better performance on this test as compared to the TM & RB group, though the difference was marginal. The significance of this finding doubles when one pays attention to the fact that the students in the TM & RB group had a lot of sentence-making practice both in written and spoken form in class while the students in the TM & UB group did not have any such practice. This finding might imply that good recall of the meaning of vocabulary items might have helped students in the TM & UB group to make appropriate sentences and that the students in the TM & RB group did not perform as well as they were expected to on this test simply because they could not recall the meanings of the words which is a basic requirement for making sentences using such words.

Another reason which can be claimed regarding the low performance of subjects in the TM & RB group, and which is, in fact, the more probable reason is that these students usually copy sentences from dictionaries when they are assigned to make sentences based on vocabulary items. Such being the case, they do not actually make sentences to have real practice in sentence-making. In cases when they make sentences of their own in the spoken form, due to the overcrowdedness of the second language classes and the shortage of time, the teachers cannot attend to every student individually and the mistakes made by students usually go unnoticed. Even when the students receive feedback from the teachers and their mistakes are corrected, they do not pay enough attention to the correct form of sentences.

Conclusion

Since a good knowledge of vocabulary has a great effect on the learners' improvement effective communication, especially at beginning levels, due attention should be paid to choosing and implementing appropriate vocabulary teaching/learning techniques in language classes. Based on the results obtained from this study, we can conclude that memorization of word lists as a de-contextualizing or direct technique of vocabulary teaching/learning is better than sentence-

making practice as a contextualizing or indirect technique, particularly for the slow learners at the B.E. / B.Tech. level.

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Life History of Buddha as Reflected in Hermann Hesse's *Siddhartha*

J . Santhosh Priyaa

A Historical Novel

The novel *Siddhartha* written by Hermann Hesse, a German writer and Nobel Prize winner, mirrors the life of Buddha. Hesse opines that the core of man's existence is to unfold himself and to be himself, through the protagonist Siddhartha. According to M.H. Abrahms, "The historical novel not only takes its setting and some character and events from history, but makes the historical events and issue crucial for the central character"(194).

The Focus

In the novel, *Siddhartha*, a Brahmin's son, who wants to be enlightened meets Buddha and His preaching helps him to take a right path to achieve his goal. A parallel is drawn between the Buddha's disciple and Siddhartha's friend Govinda.

The Plot

The plot of *Siddhartha* was sketched from the incidents in Buddha's life. Hesse has added the pads of creativity to mould the character Siddhartha. Before renunciation, Buddha's name was "Siddhartha". When the etymology indicates that in Sanskrit, 'Siddha' means 'attained'; 'artha' means 'wealth' or 'meaning'. It refers to the "one who had attained his goal" (Misra 116).

As the success of a man lies in his achievement and as the central figure desires to attain Nirvana like Buddha did at a young age, Hesse named his hero as Siddhartha. Though Siddhartha had a healthy and happy childhood, "... restless thoughts came flowing to him from the river" (*Siddhartha* 5).

Slowly it is revealed to the reader that the quest for the self is intrinsic in Siddhartha. So he opted to live a detached life in the forest with the ascetics called Samanas. He mastered the art of ejaculating the Self. As he was unable to find something worthy, he quit the life of a Samana too. After conversing with Buddha at Jetavana grove, he decided not to follow any doctrine so as to achieve Self-Realization and to seek salvation in his own way like the Buddha. He plunged into the ecstasy of Samsara for a period of twenty years. Later he gave up pleasures and returned to Vasudeva, a ferryman and spent his time for the next twenty years by the river. Finally he got illuminated and then began illuminate his friend Govinda.

The historical Buddha was a prince and his childhood was happy. As soon as he realized the impermanency of life through disease and death, he renounced his parents, wife and son and went in search of the Ultimate Truth. He found out that ultimate nirvana was to be obtained through his own efforts, not through the practice of any ritual or learning under the tutelage of ascetics. He attained Nirvana under the "Bothi" tree. He preached the Four Noble Truth and Eight Fold Path.

Our protagonist Siddhartha's father compares Siddhartha as "the prince among Brahmins" (*Siddhartha* 4), who had a happy childhood. He rebelled against the ritualistic Brahminical approach. Siddhartha forsook Kamala when she was pregnant. He realized his folly of indulging in Samsara under the mango tree. He realized Truth from the river.

The Structure of the Novel

The novel is divided into two parts. The first part consists of four chapters. The second part consists of eight chapters. This structure represents the Four Noble Truth as the first part and the Eight Fold Path as the second part.

Encounter with the Historical Buddha

Hesse has contributed a chapter, on “Gotama” in which a slice of Buddha’s life is glimpsed. Siddhartha and his childhood friend Govinda renounced Samanism and went to meet Buddha, the Illustrious One, who was in Jetavana grove. They witnessed all the monks and disciples including the Buddha begging for alms once in a day. The food which the Buddha ate would not have satisfied even a bird. Siddhartha quickly identified Gotama in yellow robe. “His peaceful countenance was neither happy nor sad. He seemed to be smiling gently inwardly, with a secret smile, not unlike that of a healthy child; he walked along, peacefully, quickly” (*Siddhartha* 27). The very appearance of Buddha revealed that He was an enlightened Soul. Gotama preached the Four Noble Truth and the Eight Fold Path, to help man to attain Nirvana.

A Flaw? Difference of Opinion

Siddhartha conversed with Buddha and found a flaw in his teaching. He argued that after all the Buddha attained Nirvana without following any doctrine. Moreover, one could not express everything in words to describe his hour of salvation. So, our protagonist Siddhartha decided to achieve his goal in his own way, without seeking or following any doctrine. He had a plunge in Samsara and finally quit Samsara to lead a life of a ferryman. He learned from the river and attained salvation through Vasudeva.

Sign of Self-Realization?

When Siddhartha attained Self-Realization, Vasudeva threw a radiant smile, which was similar to that of Buddha’s beatific smile. This smile was reflected in Siddhartha’s and Govinda’s after their realization. The beatific smile is a symbol of Absolute satisfaction. As the radiant smile of Vasudeva, Siddhartha and Govinda was apparent with Buddha’s, it signifies that the legacy of Buddha’s smile has been passed on to the Self- Realized people.

Ananda and Govinda

Buddha had a disciple named Ananda, who was also His care-taker for twenty years. In the novel Govinda, the friend, servant and lance – bearer of Siddhartha, could be compared to Buddha’s disciple Ananda. Buddha’s childhood was witnessed by Ananda like Govinda, who witnessed Siddhartha’s childhood. Ananda was a cousin to Buddha where as Govinda was a Brahmin’s son and good friend of Siddhartha. As soon as Buddha attained Nirvana, Ananda became His disciple. Govinda joined a firm-hand with Siddhartha at a young age and they adopted the same decision to quit their parents and to live a detached life in the forest with Samanas. They assiduously learned to lead a life of a Samana. When Buddha was in death-bed, he said that Ananda had been prepared to attain Realization and he would attain it. Buddha’s words as expressed in Buddha Dharma Meditation Association Incorporated says,

Ananda, for a long time you have been in my presence, showing loving- kindness with body, speech and mind, helpfully, blessedly, whole-heartedly, and untiringly. You have made much merit Ananda. Make an effort and very soon you will be free from defilements (58).

After the Death of the Buddha

After Buddha's death, 500 enlightened monks convened a Council to collect Buddha's teachings and they wanted Ananda to be present because he knew very well about Buddha. Unfortunately Ananda did not attain Nirvana until the previous day of the Council despite his continual efforts to meditate. That evening Ananda was determined to attain nirvana, so he meditated sincerely till night. As he did not taste the fruit of it, he decided to sleep and when his head touched the pillow, he attained enlightenment. Ananda attained enlightenment after Buddha's death, whereas Govinda was illuminated by Siddhartha. Govinda had compassion towards humanity like Ananda. Both Ananda and Govinda lived for many years.

Siddhartha, like Buddha shows an untrammelled individuality. They gave up their princely stature and realized the Ultimate Truth. Through the glasses of Buddha's life, Hesse has visualized Siddhartha. Thus the life history of Buddha is reflected in Hermann Hesse's *Siddhartha*.

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Life History of Buddha as Reflected in Hermann Hesse's *Siddhartha*

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**Technique as Voyage of Discovery:
A Study of the Techniques in
Dante's *Paradiso***

Raji Narasimhan

Contents

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- Chapter 2** **Technique as Discovery**
- Chapter 3** **Synthesis**

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The difficulty of literature is not to write, but to write what you mean; not to affect your reader, but to affect him precisely as you wish . . . The business of life is mainly carried on by means of this difficult art of literature, and according to a man's proficiency in that art shall be the freedom and the fulness of his intercourse with other men (Stevenson).

Life is communicated through literature and the means by which this communication is reached is through the use of techniques. The "proficiency" that Stevenson speaks of is the deft use of technique. Mark Schorer advocates for the importance of techniques in literature:

When we speak of technique, then we speak of nearly everything. For technique is the means by which the writer's experience which is his subject matter, compels him to attend to it; technique is the only means he has of discovering, exploring, developing his subject, of conveying its meaning, and, finally of evaluating it. (249-250)

Technique is not just an "embellishment" in art, or a device of secondary importance. It is only with the help of techniques that the subject matter taken from life can be presented in the form of art; without techniques the author will certainly not be able to bring out the effect that he wishes to deliver. Technique is:

. . . the uses to which language, as language is put to express the qualities of experience in question; and the uses of point of view not only as a mode of dramatic delimitation, but more particularly, of thematic definition. Technique is really what T.S.Eliot means by 'convention': any selection, structure, or distortion, any form or rhythm imposed upon the

world of action; by means of which it should be added, our apprehension of the world of action is enriched or renewed. (Schorer 252)

Art that lacks adequate techniques may take amoeboid forms of interpretation, far from what the author meant it to be. Schorer points out various novels where the use and neglect of techniques has made or marred the effect of the work respectively. This makes the subject of art depend closely on the manipulation of techniques for the success of the work of art. Schorer points out that:

. . . everything is technique which is not the lump of experience itself and one cannot properly say that a writer has no technique, or that he eschews technique, for, being a writer, he cannot do so. We can speak of good and bad technique, of adequate and inadequate, of technique that serves the novel's purpose or disserves. (251)

Some authors have frowned upon the importance of using techniques to tell a tale, while others have embraced the method. H. G. Wells's attitude toward using techniques was that "Literature is not jewellery" and perfection is not its aim but to present the subject of the work. He believes that by indulging in techniques, an author is "lead away from every natural interest towards a preposterous emptiness of technical effort, a monstrous egotism of artistry".

To Wells, by leaning towards techniques, the writer loses track of the subject matter and "nothing remains but the way it has been manipulated" (Schorer 254). Schorer argues that without the use of techniques, there remains no art but "only social history" (254). Technique, as Schorer claims, "objectifies the materials of art; hence technique evaluates those materials". It is with the use of techniques that many abstract thoughts have been communicated to readers in a tangible form art. It is through techniques that the readers discover art and the "amplification of meaning of which the subject matter is capable".

Dante's *Divine Comedy* is one such work where the ideas of the artist are brought out as the readers discover his conception, through the techniques he has used. If the work of the fourteenth century is still seen to have meaning and inspiration for a milieu far from its origin, the reason for its success lies in the manipulation of techniques by the author. It is through techniques that Dante brings out the "environment" of his time, which comprises the history, or the subject matter, as well as the "bewilderment" of the subjectivity of the author thereby increasing the "effect of each and reveals each in its full significance" as is expected of the true artist (Schorer 265).

Durante degli Alighieri (1265-1321) popularly known as Dante Alighieri was an Italian poet of the Middle ages. Dante, Boccaccio and Petrarch were known as "the three fountains", or "the three crowns". Dante was also called "the Supreme Poet" and the "Father of the Italian Language" Dante was among the first writers to write in the vernacular, Tuscan dialect rather than the predominantly used Latin.

Dante's chief work of immense popularity is *The Divine Comedy* (1472). The others include the *Convivio* (1490) "The Banquet", a collection of his longest poems with an (unfinished) allegorical commentary, *Monarchia* (1522) which was condemned and burned after Dante's death by the Papal Diplomat and Cardinal Bertrando del Poggetto and which serves as a monumental political philosophy treatise describing a monarchical global political organization and its relationship to the Roman Catholic Church; *De vulgari eloquentia* (1529) "On the Eloquence of Vernacular", on vernacular literature and, *La Vita Nuova* (1757) "The New Life", the story of his love for Beatrice Portinari, who also served as the ultimate symbol of salvation in the Comedy. *The Vita Nuova* contains many of Dante's love poems in Tuscan. The vernacular had been regularly used for lyric works before and during the thirteenth century. However, Dante's commentary on his own work is also in the vernacular - both in *The Vita Nuova* and in the *Convivio* - instead of the Latin that was almost universally used.

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Technique as Voyage of Discovery: A Study of the Techniques in Dante's *Paradiso*

Dante was involved in the Guelph and Ghibelline conflict of Florence, and fought in the battle of Campaldino, and was involved in the politics of Florence. Shortly after the victory of the Guelphs, they divided into the White Guelphs and the Black Guelphs. Dante was a part of the White Guelphs who did not favour the Papal role in Florence and wanted freedom from Rome, while the Black Guelphs led by Corso Donati supported the Pope. Pope Boniface VIII sent a peacemaker, Charles De Valois, to Florence who was treated badly by the White Guelphs. Therefore the Pope ordered a Military occupation of Florence. A delegation was sent to Rome from Florence to ascertain the intentions of the Pope.

Dante was among the delegates. While he was in Rome, Charles De Valois along with the Black Guelphs destroyed the White Guelphs and their properties. Dante was condemned to exile for two years and levied a heavy fine, which he failed to pay due to the loss of his property. He was threatened to be burned at the stake if he returned without paying his fine. Thus he could not return to his hometown and the anguish it caused him, laid the foundation for his Divine Comedy. The sentence on Dante was not lifted until June 2008.

Dante's love interest, Beatrice Portinari, invoked in him the poetry at an early age of nine when he first met her. Although he exchanged greetings with her, he hardly knew the person he had fallen so strongly in love with. When Dante was twelve, he was promised in marriage to Gemma di Manetto Donati and the agreement was signed before a notary. This was a common practice of arranged marriage of his time and Dante did not get the opportunity of spending his life with his beloved Beatrice. Dante's works involve a number of sonnets to Beatrice but none to his wife. Dante's works reveal his interest in Franciscan and Dominican orders, theories of saint Thomas Aquinas, Boethius's *The Consolation of Philosophy* and Cicero's *De amicitia*. His works show his knowledge of the Euclid's geometrics and Ptolemy's Astronomy.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri was written between 1308 and 1321. It is considered the foundation of Italian literature which follows the journey of Dante the protagonist through three kingdoms; *Inferno*, *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso*, which signifies hell, purgatory and paradise respectively. Although the poem is not a comedy of any sort, it was named so since all works that ended on a happy note were considered comedies. The theme of the poem is in accordance with the catholic faith. *Paradiso* is the third part of Divine Comedy. It is divided into thirty three cantos, with the first being an invocation to Apollo. Beatrice, the love interest of Dante, guides the protagonist through the spheres of *Paradiso*.

Paradiso is a well-structured world, with nine spheres leading to the ultimate abode of God, 'The Empyrean' through which Dante travels with his guide. The first sphere is the sphere of the moon where Dante meets the spirits who have broken vows in their lifetime. Their vice is "Faithfulness marred by inconsistency". Dante meets Piccarda Donati and Empress Constance. The second sphere is the sphere of Mercury where Dante meets Justian. Spirits, whose ambition caused them to fall behind in service; "service marred by ambition", inhabits the second sphere.

The third heaven is the sphere of Venus, which consists of spirits who were lovers on earth and theirs was a "love marred by wantonness". Here Dante meets Cunizza, Folco and Charles Martel who was once the king of France. The fourth sphere is the sphere of the Sun, which is a symbol of wisdom and houses theologians. Dante meets Thomas of Aquinas and they discuss about the Franciscan orders. St. Bonaventure speaks to Dante about the Dominican order. They also meet Dionysius and King Solomon.

The fifth sphere is the sphere of Mars, which houses spirits who have fought for God's cause. They are courageous men and warriors. Here Dante meets his ancestor Cacciaguida who reveals a hard future for Dante so he can prepare himself for it. The next sphere is the sphere of Jupiter

where the 'Just' souls exist. The seventh sphere is the sphere of Saturn. Dante meets St. Peter Damian and St. Benedict who speak about the corruption of the church by the Popes and the greed of the clerics.

They rise to the Eighth heaven on the golden ladder, which is known as the sphere of the fixed stars. Here Dante has the rare opportunity of meeting Christ and Mary in their entire splendor. He then meets St. Peter, St. James and St. John who quiz Dante on Faith, Hope and Love respectively. Dante meets Adam and asks him four questions to which Adam gives the answers. The Ninth heaven or the Primum mobile is described as the fastest of all spheres and as the place where time began. The tenth sphere of Heaven is the Empyrean. Here Dante speaks of the Celestial Rose that he sees. St. Bernard replaces his guide as Beatrice returns to the Rose. Dante describes the brilliance around Mary in the Celestial Rose, calling it the oriflamme. The final canto reveals the sight of God to the readers as three circles of light, Dante's memory flickers against the brilliance of the mere memory and burns out, leaving the readers with suspense without the privilege of the final understanding of God. The work transcends language barriers. The elevated thought and poetry that originated in the author shines through even in its translation.

On reading the *Paradiso*, one cannot but marvel at the heights of the author's imagination and the profound effect it has on the readers' mind. Thus if the readers can 'willingly suspend disbelief' and follow Dante in his adventure into the cosmos and remain with him for thirty three cantos of labyrinth fabrication, with nothing less than total rapture; then it is due to the ingenious manipulation of technique that brings about a tangible idea of the author's thoughts.

The following chapter entitled "Technique as Discovery" analyses the techniques used by Dante in *Paradiso* such as allegory, narrative view point, allusions, dialogues, question and answers, figurative language, flashbacks, imagery, use of light and music, use of science, use of telepathy,

songs and symbols with examples from the poem, to establish how these techniques serve to blur the line between where the abstract ends and the tangible begins, for the readers, in their discovery of *Paradiso*.

CHAPTER II

TECHNIQUE AS DISCOVERY

The Divine Comedy has been a piece of immortal literature from which scholars continue to take inspiration. The monumental success of the work lies not only in the imaginative genius of the author but also in the various techniques that he employs to assist in his story telling. Each of these techniques acts in different ways towards the same purpose of discovering an effective story as the reader travels through the poem.

Dante describes a sublime world, giving his brainchild specific rules with the guidance of theology and science, which its inhabitants adhere to. To describe the illusion such as this, Dante uses various techniques, acquiring the aid of mythological historical and biblical allusions, which are familiar to the readers. The techniques employed in *Paradiso* include allegory, figurative language, songs, use of light and music, use of telepathy, dialogues, narrative types, flashback, conversations, question and answers, monologues, use of science and symbols.

Allegory is a prominent technique in *Paradiso* through which Dante presents his dogmatic ideas. Although Dante traverses the heavens with Beatrice as his guide, *Paradiso* is more than a documentation of cosmic travelers. It is an allegory depicting the lives of men as they progress from ignorance to knowledge - a story of human redemption. Sinclair sees the motive behind the work as “a part of the medieval attempt to comprehend in one view the divine purpose in creation and in the actual course of world-events.” (Sinclair 115). The poem is more than a tale following the phantasmagorical journey of a man; it endeavors to capsule the incessant search for the meaning and the objective of life. Beatrice is the metaphorical representation of the conscience that guides man, in his journey of life. She is, according to Dante, the personification of love. The author chooses Beatrice as the protagonist’s guide in *Paradiso*, rather than Virgil who has lead him in the previous worlds of *Inferno* and *Purgatorio*. Love is given great emphasis in *Paradiso*. As an allegory *Paradiso* shows the journey of man into a higher plateau of thought with the guidance of love. Sinclair sees the repeated reference to the increasing beauty of Beatrice as an allegorical device. This beauty of Beatrice is a representation of the ‘poets version of justification by faith’ (Sinclair 128).

Dialogues are frequently used throughout the poem. *Paradiso* may be considered a verbal drama. The events of the journey unfold as Beatrice and Dante converse with each other or with the residents of each of the sphere that they cross. The dialogues in the poem hints at the personality of each of the characters they meet. Most aspects of *Paradiso* are rationed out through dialogues rather than revealed all at once with a narrative. This gives the reader a sense of mystery and anticipation of what to expect at the end of *Paradiso*.

As Dante is new to the celestial kingdom, he is unable to wrap his brain around the magnitude of the mission. He still looks with the eyes of the mortal, unable to comprehend the ways of the divine. Beatrice Urges Dante to learn about paradise from the souls of each sphere. In Canto

III Beatrice tells Dante in a dialogue, to learn about the inhabitants in the sphere of the moon, from Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Raji Narasimhan

Technique as Voyage of Discovery: A Study of the Techniques in Dante’s *Paradiso*

Piccarda: "Therefore speak with them, listen and believe; / For the true light, which giveth peace to them, / Permits them not to turn from it their feet." (HWL Canto III 31-33).

In Canto VIII Dante has a conversation with the Inhabitants of Venus: Cunnizza, Folco and Rahab. They speak of the greed of the Popes and the corruption of the church. It also reveals the opinions of the author who wishes to pour out the burden of his heart to the readers in his allegory. Dante meets Thomas of Aquinas in the sphere of the sun in canto XI where a lengthy dialogue begins. Aquinas, who is a Dominican himself, praises the Franciscan order saying that in praising one he praises them both. He refers to St. Dominic and St. Francis as the princes of the church who are chosen to help God.

Beatrice speaks to the spirits in the sphere of the Sun requesting them to reveal to Dante about the nature of light and the attire of light that is worn as clothing. In any instance where Dante fails to think of things that he may have doubts about later, Beatrice steps in to voice her request so that Dante may gather all the information he needs for his poem.

Cacciaguida, Dante's ancestor approaches him in the sphere of Mars, Although he can read Dante's thoughts, he wishes to hear him speak and Beatrice grants permission. Dante asks the spirit who he is and Cacciaguida reveals to Dante the prosperity of Florence a long time ago when it rivaled that of Rome. Cacciaguida gives his opinion on inter-racial mixing, extended boundaries of Florence, the corruption of the clergymen and so on. Dante's love for Florence is seen in the words of his characters. A whole canto is dedicated to the words of Cacciaguida. The author uses his creation to give vent to his feelings. This is clearly denoted when Cacciaguida is questioned about the protagonist's destiny and the exile of Dante and the loneliness he will face is revealed.

In canto XXVII St. Peter speaks to Dante and reveals his feelings about the corruption of Popes. St. Peter changes colour and begins to glow red as he says:

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He who usurps upon the earth my place,

My place, my place, which vacant has become

Before the presence of the Son of God,

Has of my cemetery made a sewer

Of blood and stench, whereby the Perverse One,

Who fell from here, below there is appeased!"

(HWL Canto XXVII 22-27).

St. Peter acknowledges the good work of Popes such as Linus, Cletus, Sixtus, Pius, Urban, and Calixtus. He directs his words towards the corrupt Popes who try to usurp his place saying: "In garb of shepherds the rapacious wolves / Are seen from here above o'er all the pastures! / O wrath of God, why dost thou slumber still?"(HWL Canto XXVII 55-57). Peter goes on to give the responsibility of exposing the corrupt priests to Dante, through his poetry. Pope Boniface is referred to in the following lines uttered by St. Peter: "Our purpose was not, that on the right hand / Of our successors should in part be seated / The Christian folk, in part upon the other;" (HWL Canto XXVII 46-48).

Sinclair explains that "Pope Boniface kept the Guelfs 'on the right hand' and the Ghibellines 'on the left'"(Sinclair 396), thus the author's anguish in the words of St. Peter, is directed against the Popes who have not done justice to their office. E. G. Parodi remarks that in ". . . the unlooked-for vision of the infernal abyss where lie, head downwards and licked by the red flame, Boniface and Clement; but not one word of surviving hope escapes from the lips of the stern and disdainful

Poet” (Sinclair 443). So great is Dante’s contempt for these popes who were his contemporaries.

None of these popes are named in *Paradiso*.

Canto XXIX witnesses the views of Beatrice who until now has urged Dante to learn from the spirits in every sphere and stood silently by, except for the occasional interaction. Beatrice speaks of creation and the order of Angels. She also launches a diatribe against philosophers and preachers, who chase fame rather than knowledge and in doing so, sow great harm:

You below do not follow a single path in your philosophizing, so much does the love of show and the thought of it carry you away, and even this is borne with less anger up here than when the divine Scripture is neglected or perverted. There is no thought among you what blood it costs to sow the world with it or how acceptable he is who approaches it with humbleness. (Sinclair 421)

The canto clearly shows the contrast between the order and purity of Paradise against the hypocrisy and disorder of the protagonist’s world. Dante’s final words to Beatrice are packed with powerful emotions that elucidate the love he bore for her. In Canto XXXI as he gazes at his Beatrice, he says: “O Lady in whom my hope has its strength and who didst bear for my salvation to leave thy footprints in Hell . . . It is thou who hast drawn me from bondage into liberty . . .” (Sinclair 451). Sinclair asserts that Dante has fulfilled his promise to Beatrice: “I hope to say of her that which was never said of any woman” (Sinclair 458).

The narrative technique employed by Dante in the poem includes the first person, second person as well as the third person (Mathiapparanam *et al.*75). The voice of the protagonist is recognized in the first person, subjective narration and the presence of the author is felt in the third person, omniscient narration. The poem also has second person narration when the poet directly

addresses the readers. The protagonist sings of his privilege to tour the heavens, Dante the protagonist says:

O power divine, lend'st thou thyself to me
So that the shadow of the blessed realm
Stamped in my brain I can make manifest,
Thou'lt see me come unto thy darling tree,
And crown myself thereafter with those leaves
Of which the theme and thou shall make me worthy.

(HWL Canto I 22-27)

Dante the author begins by invoking the blessings of Apollo to guide him in his last mission, which is the final book of *The Divine Comedy*. "O good Apollo, for this last emprise / Make of me such a vessel of thy power / As giving the beloved laurel asks!" (HWL Canto I 13-15). The very same lines also serve to act as the prayer of the protagonist who invokes the blessings of Apollo to strengthen his memory, so that he may reproduce as near as possible, the sights that meet him in heaven.

The poem, as the narrative of the protagonist has only a limited view. Rather than discuss only the philosophical aspects of virtue, Dante takes the readers on a journey with events unfolding as he moves from sphere to sphere. The first person narrative adds to the realistic portrayal of the poem. The exposition is through the dialogues and thoughts of the protagonist. The author chooses 'in cluing' rather than 'info dumping' to acquaint his readers with the rules and regulations that exist in Paradise. As the protagonist discovers his surrounding, he reveals them to his readers; this is a constant reminder that it is through the eyes of the narrator that the reader witnesses heaven.

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The second Canto witnesses the second person narrative; the direct address of the poet to the readers:

O Ye, who in some pretty little boat,
Eager to listen, have been following
Behind my ship, that singing sails along,
Turn back to look again upon your shores;
Do not put out to sea, lest peradventure,
In losing me, you might yourselves be lost.
The sea I sail has never yet been passed;
Minerva breathes, and pilots me Apollo,
And Muses nine point out to me the Bears.
Ye other few who have the neck uplifted
Betimes to th' bread of Angels upon which
One liveth here and grows not sated by it,
Well may you launch upon the deep salt-sea
Your vessel, keeping still my wake before you
Upon the water that grows smooth again. (HWL Canto II 1-15).

An interesting feature of the narrative arises as the reader progresses into the poem. The protagonist shares the name of the author, Dante the 'author' blurs the fine line between reality and illusion as he presents the realistic narrative of Dante the 'protagonist', who has traversed the worlds where no man can go in his lifetime and has the rare opportunity of revealing his tale.

The name sharing of both the author and the narrator/protagonist does not allow the readers to clearly distinguish between the voice of the author and that of the protagonist. The similarities between author and Hero do not stop with the name but delve deeper to reveal to the reader that Dante has dared to make himself the protagonist of his phenomenal poem. This serves to bring reality into the realms of illusion. "With the exception of Milton no poet of stature in the history of western letters has had such firm and all but truculent faith in his own vision; and even Milton stopped short of making himself the hero of his epic."(Bergin 706-707).

The poem is predominantly in the form of conversation where history and philosophy are revealed with few instances of action that arise during the course of the narrative. The action is limited to the entrance and exit of characters, or a dance in praise of God. Sinclair maintains that the "Paradiso is largely dogmatic with a constant urge to become visionary and lyrical" But he finds a different approach in the rest of *The Divine Comedy*, noting that "The Inferno is realistic and dramatic and The Purgatorio human and Sacramental"(27). The didactic nature of the poem is realized in the following lines of Canto XI:

O Thou insensate care of mortal men,
How inconclusive are the syllogisms
That make thee beat thy wings in downward flight!
One after laws and one to aphorisms
Was going, and one following the priesthood,
And one to reign by force or sophistry,
And one in theft, and one in state affairs,
One in the pleasures of the flesh involved

Wearied himself, one gave himself to ease;
When I, from all these things emancipate,
With Beatrice above there in the Heavens
With such exceeding glory was received! (HWL Canto XI 1-12)

Sinclair points out the ideology of Dante as the above lines echo his thoughts from the *Convito* "He should not be called a true philosopher who is the friend of wisdom for gain, as are lawyers, physicians and almost all in the religious orders, who do not study for the sake of knowledge but for the gains of money and dignities." (Sinclair 171). This also helps to set the standard in paradise, thereby aiding in the order of hierarchy.

Some dialogues assume the form of a narrative as seen in Canto XI. The whole Canto consists of Thomas Aquinas's speech where he narrates the story of St. Francis of Assisi from birth until his death. Clearly Dante was influenced by Aquinas's teachings as Aquinas is portrayed as an authority on knowledge. Sinclair writes about the extent of Dante's interest in Aquinas: ". . . [Dante] would be eager to gather reminiscences of 'the Ox of Knowledge' who, in his books, was Dante's greatest teacher and had in Dante his greatest pupil." (Sinclair 173). Similarly St. Bonaventure speaks to Dante about the Dominican order. He was of the Franciscan order and speaks the praise of St. Dominic. Canto XVIII witnesses a direct attack on Pope John XXII telling him of his damnation for trying to twist the words of St. Peter and St. Paul.

In Canto XXXI St. Bernard replaces Beatrice and Dante narrates that incident to his readers with the same suspense that caught him. The first person narrative emerges as Dante recounts the incident:

And round I turned me with rekindled wish

My Lady to interrogate of things

Concerning which my mind was in suspense.

One thing I meant, another answered me;

I thought I should see Beatrice, and saw

An Old Man habited like the glorious people.

O'erflowing was he in his eyes and cheeks

With joy benign, in attitude of pity

As to a tender father is becoming.

And "She, where is she?" instantly I said;

Whence he: "To put an end to thy desire,

Beatrice hath sent from mine own place. (HWL Canto XXXI 55-66)

Sinclair calls the technique used by Dante to depict the parting of Beatrice as a "passage of singular imaginative conviction, an outstanding instance of restraint and dramatic intensity of which Dante is the master". (Sinclair 457) The poem ends with the protagonist narrating the final sight to the readers. Having obtained permission from Mary to view the ultimate source of light, Dante witnesses the sight of the "Eternal Light" and "Infinite Goodness". The poet says that all memory deserts him in the presence of the light that surpasses description. Dante confesses that he has no words to communicate the feelings that consumed him. This coming from a supreme poet who knows the power of words, leaves to the imagination of the readers what no imagination can attain.

The poet uses hierarchy as a technique to show the increasing intensity of grace and goodness as the poem progresses. The poem is well classified into spheres into which the travelers ascend. Each sphere is set higher than the other with the higher spheres being closer to God. The hierarchy is seen with the “angels and redeemed souls” being on the higher spheres while the lower spheres house the spirits who are yet to measure up to the expectations of Paradise.

Dante calls it the ‘heavenly rank’ that each of the inhabitants bear, and they bear it gladly. As Dante questions Piccarda Donati in Canto III “But tell me, ye who in this place are happy, / Are you desirous of a higher place, / To see more or to make yourselves more friends?” (HWLCanto III 64-66). Piccarda’s response to Dante reveals the hierarchical structure of Paradiso to the readers:

"Brother, our will is quieted by virtue
Of charity, that makes us wish alone
For what we have, nor gives us thirst for more.
If to be more exalted we aspired,
Discordant would our aspirations be
Unto the will of Him who here secludes us;
Which thou shalt see finds no place in these circles,
If being in charity is needful here,
And if thou lookest well into its nature;
Nay, 'tis essential to this blest existence
To keep itself within the will divine,
Whereby our very wishes are made one;

So that, as we are station above station

Throughout this realm, to all the realm 'tis pleasing,

As to the King, who makes his will our will.

And his will is our peace; this is the sea

To which is moving onward whatsoever

It doth create, and all that nature makes." (HWL Canto III 70-87)

This rank is subject to virtue. The first sphere of the moon houses the spirits who failed in their vows; the inhabitants of the second sphere of Mars overvalued fame and sought too much praise in men; the third sphere, sphere of Venus is inhabited by spirits who indulged in love which was a kind of madness: each sphere is thus defined. This segregation of spirits into sphere allows the poet to address each soul with regard to their righteousness.

Although they appear to be sorted according to the intensity of their virtue, Dante reveals that all these spirits are always present in the sphere closest to God. Dante employs this kind of hierarchy not only to achieve a climbing effect but also to bring to the level of human understanding the divine ways of heaven. It is, according to the author, beyond human capabilities to understand that all spirits reside in the highest heaven even though they vary in their blessedness. Thus in order to explain this divine phenomenon Dante resorts to the use of hierarchy. The poem gradually mounts in intensity and the use of hierarchy gives the reader a sense of high expectation. Dante heightens the curiosity of the reader with every sphere as they follow him with bated breath.

Dante's use of allusions helps to bring a sense of reality to this concoction of genius. The use of these names that bear significance in history, theology, mythology, and science; allows Dante to build upon their position in Heaven and to include their philosophy as an authority to substantiate

his narrative. These characters also serve as mouthpieces to Dante in certain instances to air out his political, religious and ethical ideology. This is seen in his choice of characters, that he chooses to represent his thoughts. Canto XI introduces St. Francis of Assisi and St. Dominic.

Sinclair points out that Dante highlights the saint's decision to embrace poverty; above all of his other virtues like humility, chastity, patience, love and peace (Sinclair 173). Dante singles out and highlights this particular aspect of the saint to bring out the desired message of corruption in the church by contrasting it with St. Francis and St. Dominic's principles:

But for new pasturage his flock has grown
So greedy, that it is impossible
They be not scattered over fields diverse;
And in proportion as his sheep remote
And vagabond go farther off from him,
More void of milk return they to the fold. (HWL Canto XI 124-129)

In Canto VIII, Folco identifies himself as a great lover who presently abides in the sphere of Venus. He claims to have rivalled famous lovers like Dido, Phyllis and Hercules. Another person whom Dante is introduced to is Rahab who has the highest rank in Venus. According to the book of Joshua, Rahab was a prostitute who helped the messengers of Joshua. References to Lucifer are often seen. In Canto VIII Folco speaks of Lucifer as the founder of Florence; and so this has turned the good priests into greedy men. Folco also states that the church no longer follows the word of God but follows its own rules.

In Canto X the author alludes to history and introduces Albert of Cologne, a student of St. Dominic; Gratian, the twelfth century lawyer from Bologna; Peter Lombard, a theologian. He also

introduces King Solomon who is famous for his songs in the Bible. Many other allusions are seen in the tenth Canto, which include Dionysius, Venerable the Bede, Boethius and others.

Beatrice introduces Dante to many other spirits who walk on the bars of the cross so that his poem, *The Divine Comedy*, may be enriched with famous personalities. Joshua, Maccabeus, Charlemagnand some other warriors are revealed to Dante. In the sphere of Jupiter, Dante meets King David, the author of Psalms; Trajan, Hezekiel and Ripheas, a Trojan warrior in the *Aeneid*. Through the people Dante meets in Jupiter he learns that man cannot understand the mysterious ways of god, so he should not waste time trying to do that. On entering the Empyrean, Dante meets all the spirits who appeared to him in the different spheres of heaven. Here Dante sees Mary, Adam and Eve, the angel Gabriel, Beatrice, Sarah, Rachel, Rebecca, Judith and many other personalities of the Bible. St. Bernard replaces Beatrice in the Empyrean. Sinclair documents close to a thousand references in *The Divine Comedy*.

Imagery is another one of Dante's techniques. Sinclair, In the preface to *Paradiso* writes about the imagery of Dante: "all the imagery of the poem has its value, not merely or chiefly in its ingenuity nor even in its incidental beauty but in its consistent and sustained relevancy to the spiritual interest concerned . . . [they] not only illustrate they confirm and clinch his meaning." (7). One of the greatest imagery in literature can be found in Canto XI where Thomas of Aquinas narrates the story of Francis of Assisi. Dante's words describe the incident by raising language to its zenith:

Then day by day more fervently he loved her.

She, reft of her first husband, scorned, obscure,

One thousand and one hundred years and more,

Waited without a suitor till he came.

Naught it availed to hear, that with Amyclas

Found her unmoved at sounding of his voice

He who struck terror into all the world;

Naught it availed being constant and undaunted,

So that, when Mary still remained below,

She mounted up with Christ upon the cross.

But that too darkly I may not proceed,

Francis and Poverty for these two lovers

Take thou henceforward in my speech diffuse. (HWL Canto XI 63-75)

Dante depicts St. Francis's wish to embrace poverty with a metaphor, which personifies poverty, as a widow whom St. Francis married. Dante extends the metaphor saying that the lady St. Francis chose was the wife of Christ. She was so loyal to him that when everyone else stood below, she alone climbed onto the cross to be with her lord. In the sphere of the sun the dance of the Franciscan and Dominican souls are describes as two waltzing circles each echoing the other. It also gives the appearance of two rainbows, which bring to mind the promise of God to Noah, as the ring of angels sing:

And in its gyre had not turned wholly round,

Before another in a ring enclosed it,

And motion joined to motion, song to song;

Song that as greatly doth transcend our Muses,

Our Sirens, in those dulcet clarions,

As primal splendour that which is reflected.

And as are spanned athwart a tender cloud

Two rainbows parallel and like in colour,

(HWL Canto XII 4-11)

When Dante lands on the Red planet, he sees two rays of light that form a cross on which the saints are seen to walk (Canto XVIII). As Dante nears Jupiter, the saints there are all artists and they form letter in the air with their radiant bodies. DILIGITE IUSTITIAM, QUI IUDICATIS TERRAM. This translates as: Love Justice You who judge the earth. Dante prays to remember these words. The saints soon form the shape of an eagle, which is the emblem of Rome and is symbolic of justice. As the ascent to the sphere of Saturn begins, Dante sees the reflection of the sphere in Beatrice's eyes. The picture of a golden ladder whose height Dante cannot see, shines through Beatrice's eyes and the spirits are seen to walk back and forth on the ladder.

As they enter the sphere of the Fixed Stars, Dante describes a burning sun that is Jesus and a meadow that grows in the warmth of this sun. This imagery used is symbolic of the saints who are present in the sphere in the presence of the Son of God. Mary is the Rose that blooms in the garden. She is also described as a living star. According to C. H. Grandgent "The old French *Roman de la Rose*, the great literary success of the 13th century made all western Europe familiar with the rose as a symbol of earthy love; Dante's white flower is the rose of heavenly love" (Sinclair 443). On entering the Empyrean, Dante sees a river of light flowing between two banks. Dante describes the sight to his readers:

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And light I saw in fashion of a river
Fulvid with its effulgence, 'twixt two banks
Depicted with an admirable Spring.
Out of this river issued living sparks,
And on all sides sank down into the flowers,
Like unto rubies that are set in gold;
And then, as if inebriate with the odours,
They plunged again into the wondrous torrent
And as one entered issued forth another. (HWL Canto XXX 61-69).

The imagery continues as Beatrice urges Dante to slake his thirst in the river of light and the river transforms around him and he is in the centre of the heavens. His next observation extends the imagery showing a Dome that reflects the images around him and Dante fixes his gaze at the single source of light. The imagery that captures this moment in literature is awesome and breathtaking as it elevates the imagination of the readers, transporting them to the sublime location:

Thus into greater pomp were changed for me
The flowerets and the sparks, so that I saw
Both of the Courts of Heaven made manifest.
O splendour of God! by means of which I saw
The lofty triumph of the realm veracious,

Give me the power to say how it I saw!

There is a light above, which visible

Makes the Creator unto every creature,

Who only in beholding Him has peace,

And it expands itself in circular form

To such extent, that its circumference

Would be too large a girdle for the sun. (HWL Canto XXX 94-105)

Sinclair makes a note on the imagery technique of Canto XXX saying “Approaching the end of his hard theme and entering the Empyrean, Dante is made conscious of the inevitable gradualness of revelation, and by the successive stages of his imagery he strives to set the ultimate realities of the spirit from all lesser experience.” (441) The rise to the Empyrean is described with the imagery of a sunrise “Surpassing with its light all the rest of the rim” (445). The gradual conquering of the darkness by the sun draws out Dante’s entrance into the highest heaven. The light that shines forth is compared to an oriflamme. The angels are seen to move back and forth without obscuring any light thus casting no shadows. Sinclair claims “Dante suggests by sensible imagery the condition of a super-sensible world” (455).

Light is a recurring device, which substantiates the purity and intense blessedness of the spheres. The emotions of the souls are rendered to Dante by their intensity of Light. Heaven has a single source of light, which is God. This single source of light is reflected in each of the spheres and by each of its inhabitants. When a soul wishes to speak to Dante, it is the intensity of its light that communicates to the protagonist. The light of each planet is described in a different way. Each

sphere reflects the single source of light in a unique manner. As Dante lands on the sphere of the moon, the light that greets him is compared to the reflection of pearl. The misty light that surrounds the moon as we see it from earth is beautifully described. Dante tells Piccarda that he was unable to recognise her owing to her brightness. Light plays an important role all through *Paradiso*, distinguishing one sphere from another or pointing out familiar souls to Dante.

As Dante ascends to Venus in Canto VIII he sees a group of dancing lights. These are the souls dancing in unison. Some of the sparks seem to break away and head towards him. They are souls who wish to speak with him. When Cunizza wishes to speak to Dante, she glows brightly and she speaks of the land referring to it as the place where a firebrand descended. She speaks of the powers that govern Venus as Thrones, which shine down on Venus. The planet, which houses lovers, is governed by light. By the time Dante enters the sphere of the sun, Dante seems to be illuminated by light. In Canto X, Thomas of Aquinas reveals to the readers that Dante shines with the light of God. Later in Canto XIII King Solomon speaks to Dante about how the brilliance of light is measured according to their love for God. For now they wear this robe of light but when they are reunited with their body on Judgment Day then their eyes will be made stronger to behold the brilliance of the light.

Dante as a mortal is able to view the light only because he has been given permission to enter into heaven. Any other mortal will be blinded by the intensity of their brilliance. As the travelers go higher up the spheres the intensity of light increases adding to the beauty of the sphere.

Dante describes Beatrice in every sphere, as her beauty seems to increase as they continue their climb. In Canto XXIII Dante describes the brilliance of his guide as she smiles at him and the difficult task he faces in having to express it to accuracy:

“Though all those tongues which Polyhymnia and her sisters have nourished with their sweetest milk should sound now to aid me, it would not come to a thousandth part of the truth, in singing the holy smile and how it lit up the holy aspect; and so, picturing Paradise, the sacred poem must take a leap like one that finds his path cut off. But he that considers the weighty theme and the mortal shoulders that is burdened with it will not blame it if it tremble beneath the load.” (Sinclair 333).

In Canto XVIII Dante’s destiny of exile is revealed to him, but when he looks at Beatrice the brilliance he sees in her eyes comforts him and he is awestruck at her radiance. Sinclair states the importance of light in *Paradiso* in the following words:

The divine created power operating through the angels and the stars is repeatedly spoken of, here [Canto XIII] and elsewhere as light. ‘Light, according to Dante’s conception, belongs intimately to divine things and is inherent in them; it is, so to speak, the outward nature of divinity itself; God is light. True light belongs to the blessedness of Paradise as the smile to the human happiness;’ (Sinclair 198-199)

In Jupiter Dante describes the eye of the eagle as rubies glowing with red light. The glowing saints form the eagle, which speaks to Dante with one voice. The voice of the eagle falls silent and changes into soft murmuring, which gradually builds into a crescendo and finally spills with a powerful thundering sound. Dante says he will always remember the sound. Jupiter is still brighter. The brightness that cannot be conjured by the human imagination is conveyed through Beatrice’s refusal to smile, since she reasons that Dante will be blinded by the brilliance of it. Dante’s human eyes cannot withstand the brilliance of the light in the sphere of Jupiter. The author works around the problem by having the protagonist look at the sphere through the reflection in Beatrice’s eyes. In the

sphere of the fixed stars, Dante is allowed a look at Christ and his brilliance. It is only after this that Beatrice dares to smile, knowing fully well that the radiance of her smile will not hurt her ward's eyes. Having glimpsed at the intense light of Christ, Dante's eyes have grown stronger and can bear the intensity of Beatrice's smile.

When Dante meets St. John, he strains to see his face through his light and this is when Dante has gone too far. He is not aware of his limitations and he is blinded. Dante narrates the incident to the readers:

Ah, how much in my mind was I disturbed,

When I turned round to look on Beatrice,

That her I could not see, although I was

Close at her side and in the Happy World!

(HWL Canto XXV 136-139)

St. John assures Dante that it is just a temporary state of blindness saying "Sight is in thee bewildered and not dead;"(HWL Canto XXVI 6) and that Beatrice can restore his sight. This instance remains the only dark spot to Dante throughout his journey through brightening light. Dante's blindness is eventually cured as he gives the correct answers to St. John and he can see clearer with his renewed sight. The author gives his readers the experience of increasing light by the reactions of the protagonist to his environment.

Entering the Empyrean, Dante is taken to a new level of light. The experiences that he enjoys cannot be contained in any language and even Dante is unable to wrap his mind around it. Sinclair compares Dante's language in Canto XXX to that of Psalms thirty-six: "Thou shalt make them drink of

the river of thy pleasure. For with thee is the fountain of life: in thy light shall we see light”(441-442), where Dante drinks from the river of Light. In the Empyrean, one of the greatest poets of all time is at a loss for words to describe his vision. In Canto XXXIII Dante confides, “From that moment my vision was greater than our speech, which fails at such a sight, and memory too fails at such excess.”(Sinclair 481). Sinclair praises Dante’s use of light and music as a technique saying “Sound and light have been the main ingredients of his marvelous effects . . . he achieves what no other poet, before or since, has attempted with so much as a shadow of success: the presentation of a world beyond the perceptions of sense” (Sinclair 455).

Music is another technique used by Dante to establish the ambience of the heavens he creates. Music is featured all through Dante’s paradise. Dante mentions the music of the spheres as they begin their ascent. Each sphere has its music. In a dialogue with Dante, Justin confirms this by saying that he is happy to be among the “differing voices” that “render sweet harmony among these spheres”. The music increases in intensity with every sphere just as light. In the sphere of Saturn there is complete silence that provokes Dante to question a spirit about it. The answer he receives is that if Dante was exposed to the intensity of music in that sphere he will go deaf; so great is its strength of music. Dante uses even silence to portray the intensity of sound. When the spirits shout their agreement with Peter Damian in unison it is too much for Dante to take and he faints. Canto XXIV introduces St. Peter who enters singing and dancing and Dante is mesmerized. The singing continues with the entrance of St. James and St. John. The instance of Beatrice’s departure is expressed with silence rather than music, which is the regular cue for any spirit that takes leave of Dante. The author employs silence rather than music to show the surprise and bewilderment of the protagonist at the absence of his guide in Canto XXXI. In the words of Sinclair: “As much is told by silence as by speech” (457).

The technique of questions and answers is repeatedly used to reveal the nature of *Paradiso* and to move the plot of the poem. Dialogues often take place in the form of question and answers. The questions pose as signposts for the reader to take note of the information furnished as answers. The interrogations extend to all spheres except the final. These dialogues are used by Dante to reveal the nature of the new world. Beatrice regards some of Dante's questions as childish ones. "Marvel thou not," she said to me, "because / I smile at this thy puerile conceit, / Since on the truth it trusts not yet its foot"(HWL Canto III 25-27). Although Dante employs this technique, in the sphere of Saturn, a spirit who is eager to speak with Dante advises him to stop asking 'why?' since there are some things that the human mind cannot perceive but has to take on Faith. The metaphysical nature of the poem is revealed through the theological arguments by the poet. In canto IV a series of questions and answers between Dante and Beatrice brings out a captivating argument about the nature of vows. Dante's meeting with Piccarda Donati and her story about her broken vow to the order of St. Clare since she was forcibly taken away from the convent spurs the questions of Dante. Beatrice explains that free will is God's gift to man and when Piccarda entered the Convent she willingly gave up her free will. Thus she was bound by the rules of her convent. In breaking her vow, although she was forced to do it, she has sinned. The only way to correct this mistake is to change the rules by which the new bond has a value exceeding that of the original vow. In this way a soul may gain redemption from its sin of breaking a sacred vow.

When Dante meets Justian in the sphere of Mercury in Canto VI, he asks the soul who he is. The answer is not just the identity of the soul as Justian, but is accompanied with a brief history of Rome beginning from the death of Pallas, through the seven monarchs, Rome as a republic, about Caesar and his murder, right up to the time of the crucifixion of Christ, the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus and the restoration of Christianity in Rome. The readers are given a short lesson on the details concerning the history of Rome to better understand the anguish of Justian as he calls the

Ghibellines hypocrites. Dante, as a white Guelph opposed the rule of the Pope openly. Dante uses the answers of Justian to strengthen his argument against the Ghibellines. Justian throws light on the souls who reside in this sphere: they were motivated by fame. Justian mentions that such motivation is to love wrongly.

The question and answers not only reveal the methodical arrangement of the souls of Heaven, it is also a tool for Dante to express his views through his characters. Some of the greatest philosophy of Dante has been given in the form of questions and answers. In Canto VII Dante questions Beatrice about God's wrath against the Jews for crucifying his son. Dante's doubt lies in the argument that if God ordained it to be that way, why would he be angry with the men who followed his will. The author uses the esteemed voice of Beatrice to reveal his beliefs and ideals: that the nature of Christ as half human and half God, therein pure yet with the human form, which is the embodiment of original sin. Thus she justifies that God was glad that man found a way to redeem himself, yet he was enraged at the joy of the Jews who reveled in the death of Christ. Dante has not exhausted his questions yet. He still wonders why the nature of Man's redemption had to be exactly that way. Beatrice's reply is of the nature of Adam sin - Pride, and the only way to redemption was through the mercy of God through his Son. Beatrice also adds that the human mind does not have the capacity to understand the mysterious ways of God. The questions put forth by Dante are those that baffle the mediocre mind. By this technique the author is able to voice out the doubts of his readers through the human form of the protagonist while the divine form of Beatrice supplies the answers.

Dante questions Charles Martel in Canto VIII about why good fathers bear bad sons. This is a repeatedly raised question in literature. Shakespeare raises the same question in 'The Tempest': "good wombs have borne bad sons"(Shakespeare 1.2.120). Charles says that God acts through

providence and it is providence that keeps the universe from chaos. In Canto XIII Dante's doubts are

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voices by St. Thomas of Aquinas about the matchless wisdom of king Solomon. Thomas of Aquinas answers saying that when God told Solomon in a dream that he would answer any question he asked, Solomon asked for ability to tell right from wrong. This accounts for the matchless wisdom of King Solomon. St. Thomas adds that hasty judgement leads to grave consequences. He cites examples like Parmenides and Melissus, the Greek philosophers.

The technique is best put to use in Canto XXIV where Peter questions Dante on Faith. Dante answers by quoting St. Paul "Faith is the substance of the things we hope for / and is the evidence of things not seen." (64-65). The question is still extended to the meaning of substance and evidence. Canto XXV sees St. James questioning Dante on hope and St. John questioning him on love. The question and answer sessions in this sphere are to test Dante. St. James's question to Dante is about hope: "Say what it is, and how is flowering with it / Thy mind, and say from whence it came to thee." / Thus did the second light again continue" (47-48). To which Dante answers to him: "Hope," said I, "is the certain expectation / Of future glory, which is the effect / Of grace divine and merit precedent." (67-69). St. John's first words to Dante are " "Why dost thou daze thyself / To see a thing which here hath no existence? . . ." (122-123) with regard to Dante's efforts to see through the dazzling light that surrounds the saint. He is advised not to try to understand that which is above human understanding.

Dante has the opportunity to meet Adam in Canto XXVI, described as " the first soul / That ever the first virtue did create." (83-84), and is allowed to question him. Dante wishes to ask four questions which are conceived and revealed by Adam to the readers :

Thou fain wouldst hear how long ago God placed me

Within the lofty garden, where this Lady

Unto so long a stairway thee disposed.

And how long to mine eyes it was a pleasure,

And of the great disdain the proper cause,

And the language that I used and that I made. (HWL Canto XXVI 109-114)

Adam gives the answers without hesitation first giving the cause of his exile from Eden, "Now, son of mine, the tasting of the tree / Not in itself was cause of so great exile, / But solely the o'erstepping of the bounds." Dante's questions about how long Adam stayed in Eden and Adam answers how long ago it had been. J. D. Sinclair documents the chronology according to Dante as :

The creation of Adam - 5198 B.C.

Adam's death and descent into Limbo (*Inferno. Iv*) - 4268 B.C.

Christ's death and descent into Hell and deliverance of the Old Testament
saints - 34A.D.

(Sinclair 380)

Dante is informed about the language spoken at the time of Adam. He also gives the details about his duration of stay in Eden in the following words:

Ere I descended to the infernal anguish,

'El' was on earth the name of the Chief Good,

From whom comes all the joy that wraps me round

'Eli' he then was called, and that is proper,

Because the use of men is like a leaf
On bough, which goeth and another cometh.
Upon the mount that highest o'er the wave
Rises was I, in life or pure or sinful,
From the first hour to that which is the second,
As the sun changes quadrant, to the sixth." (HWL Canto XXVI 133-142)

Sinclair gives the time as "6 a.m. to 1p.m." he adds that "The length of Adam's stay in Eden was variously estimated by medieval theologians." (Sinclair 380). This technique is a very effective tool, as it does not merely furnish information. It first instigates the curiosity of the reader and having acquired his full attention to the doubt, the answer is supplied, this leaves a reader satisfied with the answers.

Songs are another technique that help to bring out the mystical nature of Paradise Most songs in the poem occur when a character or a group of people take leave of Dante. The songs are both in Italian or other heavenly languages, which cannot be recognized by our protagonist. Dante names the familiar songs and describes the sound of the others. The first song in the poem is 'Ave Maria', which is sung by Piccarda Donati and Empress Constance of Sicily. They sing the song as they take leave of Dante and it adds to the magical quality of the setting. The second hymn in Latin appears in Canto VI where Justian takes his leave of Dante. As Dante and Beatrice rise to the third sphere, the sphere of Venus they hear the angelic voices singing the song 'Hosanna'. This signals the arrival of the next sphere:

"Osanna sanctus Deus Sabaath,

Superillustrans claritate tua

Felices ignes horum malahoth!" (HWL Canto VII 1-3)

When Dante reaches the Sphere of the sun in the Canto X, he can hear the angelic voices singing as they dance in praise of God. Their song is compared to the "matins" sent to Christ at dawn. The singing continues when Beatrice requests them to enlighten Dante. They sing about the Trinity:

Then, as a horologe that calleth us

What time the Bride of God is rising up

With matins to her Spouse that he may love her,

Wherein one part the other draws and urges,

Ting! ting! resounding with so sweet a note,

That swells with love the spirit well disposed,

Thus I beheld the glorious wheel move round,

And render voice to voice, in modulation

And sweetness that can not be comprehended,

Excepting there where joy is made eternal. (HWL Canto X 141-148)

Dante mentions the song in the sphere of Mars, which he does not understand. He adds that he may sound too ambitious to try to describe the song, which cannot be understood by the mortals. In the sphere of the fixed stars, the spirits that surround Mary sing "*Regina coeli*" ("Queen of heaven") in

praise of Mary as they leave for the highest heaven. Canto XXIII ends with Dante raising his voice in praise of Peter, the gatekeeper of Heaven. Dante sings a song of praise in Canto XXIV "*Te Deum laudamus*" ("We Praise You, O God"). Peter sings and dances for joy at the end of the canto. In Canto XXVII the three saints Peter, James and John, along with the others break in to a song "*Gloria*" in praise of the Trinity. The song begins as "Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost!"(1-2). Dante explains the feeling evoked by the song as "the sweet song held me rapt; what I saw seemed to me a smile of the universe, so that my rapture entered both my hearing and my sight." (Sinclair 378).

The use of telepathy is a unique technique in *Paradiso*. Every time a question arises in Dante's mind, Beatrice immediately conceives of this. Beatrice herself supplies the logic behind this telepathic vision. She says that all thought is reflected from God, and in heaven this reflection is free to all its residents. Thus there is no need for verbal communication in heaven. But since Dante is a mortal traversing the skies, the phenomenon is not extended to him. Dante cannot read Beatrice's thoughts. It is a one-way process.

As the duo rise into the first sphere of heaven, the music of the spheres baffles Dante. Even as the question arises in his mind, his guide is aware of his doubt and answers him. The pale faces on the moon are mistake to be reflections by Dante, and he turns to look at the source of the reflection. Beatrice immediately responds to Dante's doubt about the nature of the light in the first and lowest sphere. In Mercury, after a conversation with Justian, Dante still has lingering questions after Justian leaves them. Beatrice, conceiving this, first paraphrases this question for the readers and then goes onto answer it. The sphere of the sun has Thomas Aquinas waiting for Dante. Dante's thoughts are read by Aquinas, and he explains his view of the Franciscan order.

In Saturn where Dante meets St. John, he squints to see through the brilliant light surrounding him. John reads the intentions of Dante's mind and knows that he wants to see his face. John explains to Dante about body and spirit and the union of the two on the judgement day. This also reveals to the readers about the spirits in heaven who are clothed in light rather than their bodies. St. John says:

Earth in the earth my body is, and shall be

With all the others there, until our number

With the eternal proposition tallies.

With the two garments in the blessed cloister

Are the two lights alone that have ascended:

And this shalt thou take back into your world."

(HWL Canto XXV 124-129)

The "two lights alone" is a reference to Jesus and Mary who are the only spirits to wear their body and soul in heaven. All other spirits will be united with their body on judgment day. In the last Canto Dante and St. Bernard appeal to Mary to give them consent to look into the highest heaven, at the abode of God. This is done through a prayer. Mary gives her consent not in words or song. It is her eyes that speak for her. She simply looks at them and her gaze turns to the source of light and the poet understands Mary. The use of symbols is seen in *Paradiso*. The eagle in the sphere of Jupiter is a symbol of Rome and of Justice. The white rose in the Canto XXXI is the symbol of heavenly love. Light is a symbol of purity and goodness and music is the symbol of happiness and joy. The celestial star symbolises Mary and so does the "multifoliate" Rose also called the "Oriflamme".

Figurative language is often used and it is a technique that adds beauty and intensity to the effect the poem has on its readers. Dante resorts to this technique to explain the unexplainable. When Dante is unable to find the words in human language to equate the heavenly sights, it is the similes and metaphors that come to his aid in explaining the exotic and foreign experiences. David Gibbons states “[The] principle of rendering non-literal concepts in physical, concrete language is one of the main reasons for the greater density of metaphor in the *Paradiso*, a feature often noted by critics.” (Gibbons 693). Dante uses figurative language as a technique to explain certain divine phenomenon that has no equation in human term. Sometimes he employs the technique to simply elevate the level of his language. For instance in the first Canto he does not merely describe the sun but calls it the “Lamp of the world”, this enhances the flavour of the poem. Dante addresses his readers calling them his followers on “ a little bark ”. Dante asserts that his poem is a recollection from memory of the wondrous sights that met his eyes during his short tour of paradise. The metaphor of ships and boats refers to the physical body on which the spirit rides the seas of heaven, where the ship is Dante (or his poem) and the boats are the readers. This comparison alone magnifies the original effect felt by the poet against that which is felt by the readers: “ O Ye, who in some pretty little boat, / Eager to listen, have been following / Behind my ship, that singing sails along,” (HWL Canto II 1-3). The words of Beatrice show us how metaphors serve to pull up the level of language to meet the standards of such high thought:

Somewhat she smiled; and then, "If the opinion

Of mortals be erroneous," she said,

"Where'er the key of sense doth not unlock,

Certes, the shafts of wonder should not pierce thee

Now, forasmuch as, following the senses,

Thou seest that the reason has short wings.(HWL Canto II 52-57)

Simply saying that reason and sense cannot comprehend divine wonder does not bring out the elevated effect that Beatrice's language does. The use of these poetical devices does not only give added emphasis to the words but also serves to mesmerize the reader as it informs and entertains. Dante describes the beauty of Beatrice with the help of similes and metaphors. The brilliance of Beatrice is compared to the sun, and having her beside him is compared to having two suns at the same time: "And suddenly it seemed that day to day / Was added, as if He who has the power / Had with another sun the heaven adorned." (HWL Canto I 61-63). Beatrice's eagerness to show Dante the foreign realms is described with the comparison to a bird that longs to feed its brood:

Even as a bird, 'mid the beloved leaves,

Quiet upon the nest of her sweet brood

Throughout the night, that hideth all things from us,

Who, that she may behold their longed-for looks

And find the food wherewith to nourish them,

In which, to her, grave labours grateful are,

Anticipates the time on open spray

And with an ardent longing waits the sun,

Gazing intent as soon as breaks the dawn:

Even thus my Lady standing was, erect

And vigilant, turned round towards the zone

Underneath which the sun displays less haste;

(HWL Canto XXIII 1-12)

The entrance and exits of souls in each sphere are described with the help of similes. Dante places great emphasis on the nature of the entrances in each sphere. They are unique and vary in degrees of light, music and speed. The exits of the characters are usually accompanied with glorious music. Their own entrance into the sphere of the moon is described with comparison. The moon is described "like a diamond that is smitten by the sun; the eternal pearl received us into itself, as water receives a light of ray" (Sinclair 35). In the sphere of the moon, Dante describes the entrance of Piccarda:

Such as through polished and transparent glass,

Or waters crystalline and undisturbed,

But not so deep as that their bed be lost,

Come back again the outlines of our faces

So feeble, that a pearl on forehead white

Comes not less speedily unto our eyes; (HWL Canto III 10-15)

Dante mistakes the appearance of the spirits to be reflections and turns to see the true image when he stands corrected by Beatrice:

As soon as I became aware of them,

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Esteeming them as mirrored semblances,

To see of whom they were, mine eyes I turned,

And nothing saw, and once more turned them forward

Direct into the light of my sweet Guide,

Who smiling kindled in her holy eyes. (HWL Canto III 19-24)

In Canto XVIII Dante unleashes another of his breathtaking similes when he compares the corruption in the churches to the smoke that dims the brilliant rays of God :

“O sweet star, how many and how bright were the gems that made it plain to me that our justice is the effect of our heaven thou dost gem! I pray, therefore, the Mind in which thy motion and thy power begin that it look on the place whence comes the smoke that dims thy beam, so that once again it may be wroth at the buying and selling in the temple whose were built with miracles and martyrdom.” (Sinclair 263).

The unimaginable speed is brought to the understanding of the reader through the magic of comparisons: “And as an arrow that upon the mark / Strikes ere the bowstring quiet hath become, / So did we speed into the second realm.” (HWL Canto V 91-93). The speed is not merely compared to a speeding arrow but the essence is amplified by the ability of the arrow to hit the mark even before the bowstring has stopped vibrating. The comparison tests the limits of the imagination of the reader, and elevates the level of language.

Similes and metaphors are found all over the poem. The flight towards Empyrean is compared to reverse snowflakes “As with its frozen vapours downward falls, / In flakes. . . Upward in

such array saw I the ether / Become, and flaked with the triumphant vapours," (HWL Canto XXVII 67-68, 70-71). The greeting between St. Peter and St. James is compared to two doves embracing each other: "In the same way as, when a dove alights / Near his companion, both of them pour forth, / Circling about and murmuring, their affection"(HWL Canto XXV 19-21). Thus the master of metaphors weaves his magic throughout the poem, captivating his readers with the beauty of his comparisons.

In Canto XI Aquinas uses the metaphor of sheep and straying flocks to show the corruption in the Dominican order:

But for new pasturage his flock has grown

So greedy, that it is impossible

They be not scattered over fields diverse;

And in proportion as his sheep remote

And vagabond go farther off from him,

More void of milk return they to the fold. (HWL Canto XI 124-129).

It is with the use of similes and metaphors that Dante brings the emotional colouring to his power packed words. Dante captures his original bliss on witnessing the sights of heaven with similes such as:

Like as a lark that in the air expatiates,

First singing and then silent with content

Of the last sweetness that doth satisfy her,

Such seemed to me the image of the imprint

Of the eternal pleasure, by whose will

Doth everything become the thing it is. (HWL Canto XX 73-78)

The final canto shows a Dante who searches for words to express the immensity of the sights that confront him. He is bereft of speech and memory and translates the aftertaste of the event as: "Like him that sees in a dream and after the dream the passion wrought by it remains and the rest returns not to his mind, such am I; for my vision almost wholly fades, and still there drops within my heart sweetness that was born of it." (Sinclair 481). Beyond this point his words are insufficient for expression and he succumbs to his limitations as a mortal: "Now my speech will come more short even of what I remember than an infant who yet bathes his tongue at the breast." (Sinclair 483). He asserts again "O how scant is speech and how feeble to my conception! And this to what I saw, is such that it is not enough to call it light. O Light Eternal . . ." (Sinclair 485).

Having seen the ultimate sight of God - the three circles which are of the same size and the same colour of the background, fit into each other. This is impossible by the standards of the human conception. As Dante tries to understand it, he describes himself with the simile, " Like the geometer who sets all his mind to the squaring of the circle and for all his thinking does not discover the principle he needs, such was I at the strange sight . . .but my own wings were not sufficient for that" (Sinclair 485). The dream vision of Dante seems to slip and the poet is left trying to recall the final sight: "Here power failed the high phantasy;" (Sinclair 485). Sinclair points out that *Convito* defines phantasy as "the power by which the intellect represents what it sees" (486).

Dante resorts to science to build the structure of *Paradiso*. Although it is a concoction of the poet's imagination, a large part of his creation is shaped by the rules of science. The structure of

Paradiso follows Ptolemy's structure of the geocentric universe with the earth at its centre and the planets, sun and other heavenly bodies revolving around it.

Victor Castellani argues, ". . . although Dante certainly believed in the geocentric physical system of Ptolemy, he embodied in his poem a spiritual sun - centered system of his own."(Castellani) thereby suggesting that Dante's poem hints at a heliocentric universe. If this is considered a characteristic feature of science fiction, then Dante's *Paradiso* could very well be considered to be a forerunner to the genre of science fiction in Literature.

Science is seen to rear its head throughout the poem and acts as a substantiating foundation for Dante's imaginative genius. The increasing speed of every sphere through which the cosmic travellers pass is mentioned time and again. As the pair of characters rise from one sphere to the next, they increase their speed to match that of the destination planet. In Canto II when the travellers proceed towards the sphere of the moon, which is the first sphere, Dante describes the speed with which they move "as a bolt strikes and flies and loses from the catch" (Sinclair 33). Following that, the entrance into the sphere is described as "the eternal pearl received us into itself as water receives a ray of light and remains unbroken . . . and here we cannot conceive of how bulk admitted another . . . as body enters into body" (Sinclair 35). Dante is puzzled at the entrance he makes into the sphere. They accelerate to match the speed of each sphere. This brings to the reader's mind, the theory of relativity, which was pronounced by Albert Einstein centuries after Dante's time.

Dante's question to Beatrice is a scientific question concerning mass, its density and rarity, and its capacity to reflect light. Beatrice answers him with an elaborate experiment using three mirrors that covers most parts of Canto II. Sinclair comments on this use of experiment as:

“It is notably characteristic of Dante that more than a third of the Canto is occupied with the discussion of a purely scientific question in purely and prosaically, scientific terms . . . This is the first among many illustrations in the *Paradiso* of the doctrine - which Dante owed to Aquinas and Aristotle - that knowledge based on sensible experience and reached by strictly rational process from that must logically precede all greatness of conception . . .” (46)

Even as the poem begins, Dante refers to the rising sun as “The lamp of the world rises on mortals by different entrances;”(Sinclair 21), this is a reference to the shape of the earth’s orbit, which determines the entrance point of the sun on earth. Further, Dante questions his guide about his ability to rise above substances lighter than him in heaven saying “ but now I wonder I should be rising above these light substances.” Beatrice supplies the solution with the help of theology saying “that which makes it to be a universe its likeness to God its realization of God’s thought.” (Sinclair 25).

Although Dante uses facts from the philosophy of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle his allegiance lies with his spirituality. Sinclair declares “He [Dante] makes use as a poet of the Platonic theory which he attacks as a Christian . . . That which is set down as a fact is in Dante a symbolic appearance”(Sinclair 70). Thus science and religion, which are often considered to be antagonistic, are roped in with finesse to bring about unparalleled art that stands the test of time.

Dante employs the flashback technique in bringing out the life history of his characters as in the case of Piccarda Donati. The story within a story technique is also used as Cacciaguida recounts the history of Florence. *Paradiso* embodies a wide range of techniques that work together to bring out the elevated thought and imagination of Dante. As Dr. Mangaiarkarasi describes the techniques in *Purgatorio*: “. . . can be considered as one of the fore runners of modern literary techniques.”

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(Mathiapparanam *et al.*75), the same can be said of *Paradiso*. Thus it is with the deft use of technique that Dante lends his wings of imagination, so the readers can soar above the limitations of reality into his genius of illusion.

The third chapter, which is the synthesis recapitulates the findings of the earlier chapters and proves that Dante's work is of universal value and is relevant to our times.

CHAPTER III

SYNTHESIS

Although *The Divine Comedy* dates back to the thirteenth century, its appeal and significance has only increased through the centuries rendering itself to newer interpretations and inspiration. The previous chapters are a testimony to the importance and the deft use of techniques like narrative viewpoint, allegory, allusions, dialogues, question and answers, figurative language, symbols, flashbacks, songs, imagery, use of light and music, use of science, and use of telepathy in *Paradiso*.

Criticism and research on Dante's works and life began shortly after his death by his student Giovanni Boccaccio, who was also Dante's first biographer. The biography of Dante was finished in 1351; this was a great feat considering Dante's reputation in Florence. Boccaccio's fascination for Dante moved him to gather information, which was hard to get due to Dante's exile and the attitude of the Florentines towards him. Boccaccio was given the opportunity to give the first public lecture on Dante, but he died before that. (Reynolds 414).

Gardner states that "It is such works as *Paradiso* that enable us to realize what were the noblest thoughts and aspirations of those ages whose exceeding light has so dazzled weak modern eyesight that they have sometimes been called dark;"(4). Dante's presence is felt throughout literature irrespective of language, culture, religion or milieu. He is past comparison with any other literary figure with the exception of Shakespeare. There are many references to Dante in literature that substantiate that he still plays a prominent role in inspiring creativity. Olaf Stapledon, a science fiction novelist acknowledges that Dante is a great source of inspiration for his writing. Patrick McCarthy compares *Star Maker*, a science fiction of Stapledon, to *The Divine Comedy* saying that it was greatly influenced by Dante's Comedy. "That quest and ultimate vision derived from the novel,

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might usefully be compared with Dante's *Divine Comedy*, A work that Stapledon knew well. He studied Dante's works in school and continued to read them in later years, both in translation and Italian; vacationing with his mother in Florence . . . he wrote in his diary, " I read Dante all the time." . . . Stapledon develops an elaborate analogy with the comedy . . ."(Stapledon xxviii). Dante's significance in the twentieth first century is profound, with some of the greatest poets of the twentieth century still relying on his poetry. T.S.Eliot's words bring out the prominence of Dante's presence in literature "Dante and Shakespeare divide the modern world between them; there is no third." Eliot has referred to Dante's ideas as seen in the poem *Hollowmen*. The three kingdoms that Eliot's poem describes closely resemble Dante's *Inferno*, *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso*. The "Multifoliate rose" is a description that depicts the white Rose that symbolizes Mary in *Paradiso*. He expresses his love for Dante in his essay *What Dante means to Me*. "The kind of debt that I owe to Dante is the kind that goes on accumulating; the kind that is not a debt of one's period or another of one's life."(Eliot 126). Thomas Carlyle praises Dante in his famous lecture *Hero as Poet* saying "Dante burns as a pure star, fixed there in the firmament, at which the great and the high of all ages kindle themselves: he is the possession of all the chosen of the world for uncounted time (90) . . . cannons and Cossacks will all have rusted into nonentity, while that Dante's voice is still audible."(102). Shelley speaks of *Paradiso* in his *Defence of Poetry* saying, "it is a perpetual hymn of everlasting love, and "the most glorious imagination of modern poetry" (Gardner 6).

Scholars have gone to the extent of calling the *Comedy* a supplementary to the Bible, which is high praise for Dante: Bergin states that "in connection with the overt comparison in *Inferno* 1 of his journey with those of Aeneas and of Paul, justifies the suspicion that the poet conceived of his great work as a kind of supplement to Holy Writ itself; he saw himself as a kind of prophet, a "scriba dei" . . . If such a pretension seems to verge on effrontery if not blasphemy, it is nonetheless quite in keeping with Dante's self-assurance and sense of mission.", he continues to assert that " surveying

the history of the Comedy over six hundred years we must concede that in one respect at least it is eminently and uniquely comparable to Scripture: it has an enduring attraction for commentators who, generation after generation, are drawn to it as bears are attracted to honey.” (Bergin706-707).

Paradiso shows language that is similar to that of the Bible indicating the debt that Dante owed to the scripture. The author targets an audience that is familiar with the Bible, alluding to biblical characters, beliefs and language. Kleinhenz claims “Dante the Poet is in many ways a mediator of other texts - a scribe, a translator, an editor, an interpreter - but more than this he is also a poet and a prophet, drawing inspiration from these other texts and developing and refining his own distinctive poetic voice.”(76). The Bible is a key source of inspiration for Dante. Kleinhenz also states that Dante invokes authority by the use of biblical language to deliver a ‘personal yet universal message’ in his poem, calling it ‘Poetics of Authority’ (75). Psaki comments on Dante’s language “Dante uses poetic language . . .he makes razor-sharp use of its polysemous qualities. No other language could serve Dante like poetry . . . imagistic language rather than analytical language.”(125). *Paradiso* shows great influence of the classics on Dante. Picone says “Even more than the *Aeneid*, in fact the *Metamorphoses* is the privileged classical intertext with which the *Commedia* finds itself continuously in dialogue” (54). The scientist in Dante cannot be overlooked as *Paradiso* has the logic of science. Reynolds compares Dante and Pierre Tielhard de Chardin the French geologist: “It is remarkable that a poet and a scientist, separated over 600 years and approaching the subject from what would seem to be totally opposed points of view should both use the sphere as the image of the universe and the “point beyond” as the image of God or Omega.”(30).

The structure of *Paradiso* is influenced by great philosophers of his time. “The general arrangement of Dante’s *Paradiso* is based upon the Ptolemaic system of astronomy . . . the theories of the supposed Dionysius the Areopagite (followed by Aquinas) and of St. Bernard concerning the

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angelic Hierarchies.”(Gardner13). Although Dante’s model of the geocentric universe has been proved wrong, the appeal of the poem remains undiminished owing to its supreme poetic value; the expression of an abstract thought in terms of tangible ideas with the help of certain techniques as the objective correlative. The poem portrays a strong autobiographical element. The fictitious poem presents characters from Dante’s life. The poem was conceived from a tremendous predicament that plagued the life of the poet, and is filled with the pain of exile from Florence and it appears as if the poet takes comfort in confiding his agony to the readers. The poem is filled with emotions that hold the interest of the readers for the whole length of the poem. Dante seems to play god in many instances of the poem, when he holds the decision of who appears in hell and who resides in Heaven. *Paradiso* brings out the love that nurtured the poet and the poem. The significance of Beatrice as a choice for his guide has seen many interpretations. Some consider her to represent “sacred theology or Divine science; for others . . . a symbol of Revelation, for others of co-operating Grace or even of Contemplation” (Gardner 10). Despite all these allegorical symbols, Beatrice portrays the supreme platonic love that the poet held for her, thus exalting her as by far the most eminent literary women figures. Beneath the prominent message of human deliverance, *Paradiso* also nurtures the unrequited love song of Dante, where Dante uses his poem to attain his unfulfilled wish of receiving the love of Beatrice Portinari.

The use of number is an interesting feature in *The Divine Comedy*. The use of number three is a repeated feature - the poem is divided into three parts: *Inferno*, *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso*; each of the poems have thirty three cantos, save the *Inferno*, which has thirty four, with the first canto being considered a prologue. The rhyme scheme invented by Dante for the Comedy is ‘Terza Rima’ which is a three line stanza with a rhyme scheme aba bcb cdc . . .zyz,yaz and so on. Further, studies of the Italian text show that “The 33 syllables of a *terzina* are mirrored in the 33 *canti* of a *cantica* and the three *cantiche* thus represent a kind of cosmic tercet, an encyclopedic representation of the number

three.” (Freccero 262). This could be interpreted as a symbol depicting the holy trinity. The poem is considered to be a novel as well as an epic and yet seen to transcend these labels with its techniques and theme. “Epic and novel exist side by side, linearity with circularity, in this poetic synthesis which has been considered a genre apart” thus Dante bridged the “gap between the middle ages and the modern world” when he wrote the “last epic and the first novel”(Freccero 138).

Of all the works of Dante, *The Divine Comedy* is the most popular. *Inferno* is the most sought after novel of the trilogy with its captivating imagery; *Purgatorio* is Dante’s personal design; but it is in *Paradiso* that Dante’s unparalleled imagination and skill are revealed to the reader. Dante’s *Comedy* which has a great deal of scientific ideology was a great success in the medieval period which was greatly influenced by the Papal rule and considered the dark ages for a long period of time. This stands partly as a testimonial that the medieval period had scientific inclination. *The Divine Comedy* continues to captivate readers of the twenty first century, (a contrasting milieu to the origin of the work), where science seems to be the religion ranging from atheism to agnosticism and extending to skepticism. The magnetism of the poem lies in its aesthetic value and the technique of making illusion seem real. Dante continues to reign supreme as *The Divine Comedy* has a profound effect on readers belonging to a different milieu, various cultures, geographical location and religious beliefs. This effect is woven with the techniques that Dante conjures that make the abstract tangible. The reader follows Dante to discover the depths of hell and the heights of heaven regardless of the logic of science or the dogma of theology, but bound by his magic of illusion, brought out through techniques, to the final prestige of the Empyrean where he leaves them baffled and in a sense of bliss.

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**Some Gaps in the Current Studies of Reading in
Second/Foreign Language Learning**

Syed Hossein Fazeli, M.A.

Abstract

The ability to read written material is very important in the civilized world. In a society characterized by globalization and technological change, where knowledge is becoming increasingly important, reading ability is a key skill for active participation. The intent of the current study is to set out the nature of reading alongside express importance of reading and reading comprehension. The importance of the present study is to explore the current studies of reading in order to find out some common main gaps in such studies. Such gaps are related to reading, reading comprehension and reading strategies, vocabulary and fluency.

Keywords: reading, reading comprehension, reading strategies

Introduction

To most people reading seems a simple process, but there are many sub-component processes which are involved in reading that leads it to be as a very complex skill. As Rayner and Juhasz (2006) assume all of such components involved in reading

are important to investigate in order to understand how the process work and how the skill develops.

Both teachers and researchers have attempted to identify the mental process of reading and the activities that readers use in order to construct meaning from a text. What is “reading”? , who is a “reader”? And what is the action of “read”?

On Reading

It seems only logical that a text about teaching and learning of reading would begin with definitions of what reading is, who reader is, and what the action “read” is. “Reading”, a complex activity, can be defined in a number of ways based upon the particular aspect of the reading skill examined. “Reading” is defined as “the action or skill of reading” (*Concise Oxford English Dictionary*, 2008, p.1196). It is defined also as “the skill or activity of getting information from books” (*Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, 1995, pp. 1178-1179). It can also be defined as “the ability to comprehend the thought and feelings of others through the medium of written text” (*The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*, 1994). Gibson and Levin (1975) assume that reading is extracting information from text. Urquhart and Weir (1998) define “reading” as the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in form via the medium of print. Goodman (1988) discusses it as receptive language process which is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning a reader constructs. Jenkinson proposes “reading” as an act of responding to printed symbols (as cited in Chapman and Czerniewska, 1978). Grellet (1981) suggests that understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as efficiently. Another definition of “reading” is the construction of meaning from print (Torgensen, Wagner & Rashotte, 1999).

Who is a Reader?

“Reader” is defined as “a person who reads” (*Concise Oxford English Dictionary*, 2008, p.1196), as “someone who reads for pleasures, esp. a person who reads a lot” (*Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, 1995, pp. 178-1179), or similarly “a person able to read” (*The New Lexicon Webster’s Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language*, 1995, p. 837).

Review of Literature

There is enormous research done on reading in the last fifty years. Also the research conducted over the last past half century has changed our view of reading as a mere process of decoding.

Strang discusses the nature of reading process and the ways of teaching and learning of reading (as cited in Chapman and Czerniewska, 1978). Also Jenkinson

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mentions that much has been written about the teaching of reading (as cited in Chapman and Czerniewska, 1978).

Since the 1970s there have been many changes, both in the kinds of books used in teaching reading, the ways they are used by the teachers, and the ways to learn to read and comprehend. During 1980s, there was a tendency to use schemes more flexibly. Trends in 1990s point to some blurring of earlier rigid distinction between reading schemes and other books.

Eskey (1992) reports that reading research in the 1970s and early 1980s was characterized by a search for more accurate and more revealing models of the reading process. Much research in the 1970s and early 1980s aimed at identifying the psycholinguistics of reading. Gibson and Levin (1975) report that reading has received more attention than any other aspect of education.

The Importance of Reading in English

The ability to read written material is very important in the civilized world. In a society characterized by globalization and technological change, where knowledge is becoming increasingly important, reading ability is a key skill for active participation. Reading proficiency is the royal road to knowledge and it is essential to the success in all academic subjects. Shaywitz (2003) states that reading comprehension is an important life skill. It is one of the most important domains in education, because it is the best predictor of success in higher education and job performance. Reading ability is necessary for many occupations and a prerequisite for future and life-long learning (Elley, 1994).

Reading Styles

The flexibility of the reading process had led researchers to identify number of reading styles which have great importance in language learning and teaching. Gibson and Levin (1975) discuss that the ability to read well is the basis for success in school and later.

Alderson (1984) emphasizes that in many parts of the world a reading knowledge of a foreign language is often important to academic studies, professional success, and personal development. In such situation, in countries around the world, school systems require students to learn English for access to information and for the eventual ability to compete economically and professionally. For good or bad, this situation reflects of a reality of early twenty-first century (Crystal, 1995; McGroarty, 2006). Millions of students are expected to learn English as an additional language to some extent (Crystal, 1995, p.7). Alderson (1984) proposes that this is particularly true of English as so much professional, technical and scientific literature is published today in English. In fact, it is

frequently the case that the ability to read English is required of students by their subject departments.

Comprehension, Vocabulary, Fluency and Strategy in Reading

The students may understand each word separately, but linking them together into meaningful ideas often does not happen as it should. Reading can be challenging, particularly when the material is unfamiliar, technical, or more complex. Moreover, for some readers, comprehension is always challenging. Comprehension refers to the ability to go beyond the words, to understand the ideas conveyed in the entire text.

Researchers have described the powerful, positive relationship between vocabulary and comprehension (Anderson & Freebody, 1981; Davis, 1944). In such situation most researches on reading focus on the effective reading strategies that increase students' comprehension. Aebersold and Field (2005) emphasize that to become better readers, students need to become aware of how they are reading and what they could do to improve comprehension. Also, Koda (2005) mentions that comprehension occurs when the readers extract and integrate various information from text and combine it with what is already known.

For many people reading text means reading books, papers, signs, etc. In a general sense, reading happens when people look at a text and assign meaning to written symbols in that text. Grabe (2009) discusses that the role of word recognition training for reading comprehension is more complex. The ability to comprehend critically what one reads depends on his knowing the meaning of a large number of words he sees in print. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the best predictors of reading achievement (Richek, 2005). In this way Aebersold and Field (2005) propose that knowing vocabulary is important for getting meaning from a text. L2/FL readers frequently say that they need more vocabulary so they can understand the meaning of the sentences. The understanding of grammatical structure enables readers to understand the relationship between words, but it does not provide access to the meaning of the sentences. Also Adams (1990) discusses that many studies over 20 years have demonstrated that word recognition is major predictor of later abilities and Klein (1988) suggests that although we undoubtedly have much yet to learn about the role of vocabulary in reading, it still represents one area where research has been substantial over the years. Grabe (2009) proposes that the effective use of context for word recognition purposes requires knowing most of the words in the environment. Correlation and factor-analytic studies over the years have high correlations between vocabulary and reading ability. Jenkinson believes that effective word recognition is basic to all progress in reading, and the development of understanding of word meaning is basic to reading comprehension (as cited in Chapman & Czerniewska, 1978). Spencer & Hay (1998) emphasize that word recognition is an essential component in the mastery of reading. Bromley (2004) reports that vocabulary knowledge promotes reading fluency, boosts reading comprehension, improves academic achievements, and enhances thinking and communication. Baker (1989) suggests that the

reader can learn about an unknown word in context by relating it to the meaning of words that surround it.

Thus, it is consistently demonstrated in L2/LF reading research that automated word recognition skills are a sufficient condition for successful reading comprehension.

Fluency is thought to consist of both accuracy and automaticity for better comprehension of text (Grabe, 2004; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003). That is, fluent readers are able to identify words in text quickly and accurately with a minimal amount of attention. Developing fluency in L2/LF reading has become a significant and salient issue for pedagogy in L2 settings (Grabe & Stoller; Nation, 2001); however there is little research on reading fluency (Grabe, 2004).

During the 1970s, the term *strategies* signified a form of mental processing that deviated from traditional skills-based reading. Strategies are commonly defined more simply as processes that are consciously controlled by readers to solve reading problems. A major contribution of reading strategies of fluent reading is their increasing automaticity, as a reader becomes more proficient (Anderson, 2009; Block & Pressley, 2007; Sinatra, Brown & Reynolds, 2002 as cited in Grabe, 2009). Most researchers agree that teaching repertoires of reading strategies improves comprehension and recall of information from text (Farstrup & Samueles, 2002). There is general agreement that instruction focusing on students' learning is more effective than individual strategy instruction (Baker, 2002; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pressley & Afflerback, 1995; Pressley & Fingeret, 2007 as cited in Grabe, 2009).

There is a great deal of evidence for the importance of reading strategies. One source of evidence is that successful readers know when and how to use deliberate strategies to repair comprehension (McNamara, 2007). Anderson (2000) assumes that reading ability can be improved by teaching how to read for particular purpose.

Some Main Gaps in the Current Studies on Reading

Although there is a welter of studies about reading and related topics, there are so many areas that have not been considered and discussed at all in detail. Such areas are observed as gaps of current studies of reading in this study. The gaps in current studies of reading are more than these gaps discussed here in this study. Some of these gaps are:

1. Clearly, learners' characteristics play important role in reading comprehension as well as learning and language learning. In the studies on reading, there is not much focus on the correlation between the learners' characteristics and success in reading comprehension *through* reading strategies. It is difficult to find even the correlation between the learners' characteristics and application of reading strategies directly in the current studies.

2. Since, mostly the current studies of reading were done among advanced and intermediate language proficiency learners and the outcomes of these studies were applied (generalized) for low language proficiency learners as poor language learners, the problem arises that normally the poor language learners do not know when, where and how to apply a particular strategy, as these are applied among advanced and intermediate language proficiency learners as good language learners. Therefore it is wrong to apply (generalize) the scientific outcomes which are obtained from good language learners. The studies should specific studies among poor language learners and their outcomes should be specified for such learners.

3. Reading comprehension can be affected by learners' factors such as gender and intelligence. However there is not much focus on the correlation between the factors that influence learners and their success in reading *through* the application of reading strategies. However, there are some studies about application of reading strategies and learners' factors.

4. In the studies on reading, there is not specific focus why the learners apply the same particular reading strategies more or less.

5. There are studies on the application of particular reading strategies by the learners as general information but from a technical point of view, there are not specific studies. For example there is not a technical study that deal with learners shift from one or some particular reading strategies to another, how this shift would affect reading comprehension.

6. The focus is on good language learners because normally the poor language learners are not advanced in applying the strategies. The gap in such studies is that there is not much focus on how to motivate the poor language learners to begin and continue applying the strategies of reading, and how to help the poor language learners to select particular strategies to be succeed in reading comprehension through such strategies.

7. There are not complete similarities or differences among a group of language learners; and similarities and differences are varied from one learner to another. In such situation, reading strategies employed should be treated as individual strategies and these should be considered from the individual learning point of view, but the reading strategies are discussed in the current studies as group strategies and from group learning point of view either directly or indirectly.

8. The vocabulary knowledge is discussed from two points of view, firstly vocabulary knowledge and secondly use of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary knowledge includes passive knowledge which is different from using vocabulary knowledge which is considered as active knowledge. In the studies on reading, there is not much focus on which reading strategies help the learners to have better skill in using

vocabulary and which reading strategies help the learners to acquire knowledge of vocabulary.

9. The types of reading strategies applied among the language learners are discussed in many studies, but there is not much focus on how to apply such particular reading strategies consecutively for long term learning and what kinds of procedure need to be applied.

10. New reading strategies for language learners are suggested. Researchers do not show how to connect such new reading strategies to the reading strategies already in practice. This will help better adjustment of the learning process.

11. Studies on reading strategies are geared to specific formats and procedures. Flexibility of the strategies for use in a variety of situations and among a variety of learners is not discussed much.

12. The process of reading and reading strategies is studied and discussed from learning point of view, but the correlation between reading strategies and acquisition process as a natural process needs to be studied, discussed and focused upon.

13. We also need to make a distinction between the nature of the target language: second or foreign language.

14. Focus on how reading strategies developed in language learning classes affect reading in other course papers which the learners have studied before or study simultaneously. In such situation, it is necessary to be specific on probable effects of other course papers on reading strategies as variables, whether directly, indirectly, consciously or unconsciously. Otherwise it is difficult to make any valid claim about the applications and outcomes of reading, reading comprehension, and reading strategies.

15. The majority of the studies on reading includes the application of reading strategies by the learners. However, there is not much focus on specific studies on teachability characteristics and evaluation of the teachability of such strategies. In other words, it is necessary to research on the possibility and evaluation of teaching particular reading strategies, and how teachers can teach it to the language learners for application in reading comprehension.

16. There is lack of balance and high correlation among teachers' approaches, methods and techniques relating to types of reading strategies. There is wide variation from some minimum level to some maximum level of range and from one language teaching class to another.

17. Emphasis on protecting the environment has led to many changes in content and cultural learning. There is not much focus on the correlation between reading strategies and such environmental studies *through* reading strategies point of view.

18. Intentional (explicit) and incidental (implicit) learning of vocabulary are two types of learning. Both have their own specific uses, but in the studies on reading, there is not much emphasis on the relations and correlations of such vocabulary learning and reading strategies.

19. Target language to be taught may come as a second or third language, or it is taught through mother tongue or a language other than mother tongue. In such situations, what type of procedure and outcomes regarding the application of reading strategies would occur?

20. Communicative competence is a considerable phenomenon in language learning which is correlated with reading, reading strategies, and reading comprehension that need to be studied and discussed in application, procedure and evaluation of reading strategies.

21. Majority of application of reading strategies relates to success in academic courses and for examination purposes. In such situations, examination purpose is a variable which may affect the outcomes of reading strategies. Here, this question arises if the purpose of application of reading strategies is for life-long learning or for some specific and time-bound purpose. In these contexts, what outcomes would occur? When we compare application of reading strategies for examination purpose with life-long learning, what outcomes would be obtained?

22. Reading studies are about application of reading strategies. Teachers should be enabled to develop and identify conditions where specific strategies are gainfully employed by their class in general and individual students in particular. Such conditions should be studied, discussed and focused in order to have successful application, procedure and outcomes of reading strategies.

23. Motivation is a strong instrument for the learners to apply reading strategies. But there are not many specific applied studies on the correlation between motivation and reading strategies; how motivation can be useful and helpful empirically in application of reading strategies, and how the teacher can develop motivation of the learners to apply reading strategies more.

24. Motivation can be a beginning point for the application of reading strategies and there is need for using reading strategies continued as a procedure. In this way, it is necessary to study how to motivate the learners to develop the continuity of such procedure.

25. Pragmatics, semantics and other sub-fields of linguistics are useful and helpful in language learning. Based on such sub-fields, specific applied studies on reading strategies may be pursued. Moreover, the correlation between such sub-fields and reading strategies should be discussed.

26. There is difference between the language used social sciences and physical sciences. Common words can take on specialized meaning (Janet, 1999). Differences in the application of reading strategies in various disciplines may be studied.

27. Studies on reading are done mostly applying strategies to English. In order to arrive at general conclusions we need to apply similar strategies to a variety of languages.

28. The different scientific backgrounds, fields and majors of the learners may affect the application, procedure and outcomes of reading strategies. Correlation of varied backgrounds and fields of the learners and reading strategies may be pursued.

Conclusion

The nature of reading procedure, and the approaches, methods and techniques of teaching reading have been the subject of much debate. The sheer volume of the literature and the welter of topics and findings on reading and related subjects is incredible and the researches were conducted over the last past half century has changed our view of reading.

In current studies on reading, various theoretical and applied research have been done to explore the nature of reading, reading comprehension, reading strategies , and other related subjects. But, among such studies there are some main gaps which were discussed in this study.

This study contributes to our understanding of the gaps among the current studies on reading in second/foreign language learning procedure. Further research is needed to better determine the strength of the association among reading strategies.

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**Unmasking Student Competence: Using Computers to
Teach Writing**

Renu Gupta Ph.D.

Abstract

Although many of us use computers to compose texts for everyday tasks, we resist the idea of allowing our students to compose their essays on computers. This paper describes a study conducted in Singapore that compared the essays written by school students in three conditions: by hand, on the computer, and by hand after one month on the computer. The analysis shows that students have latent writing skills that are constrained by classroom requirements but these emerge when they are allowed to compose on computers.

Introduction

Today, many of us use computers to compose texts; it could be for professional purposes, such as writing reports, memos and research papers, or for personal purposes, such as email and letters. It has become such a standard tool that we never consider writing anything longer than a paragraph by hand; in fact, we may now find it difficult to write a memo or letter by hand.

However, we seem to resist the idea of allowing our students to do the same when they have to produce an essay. We expect them to write essays by hand, either in class or as

take-home assignments. Teachers put forward several arguments against using computers in the English class:

- a) Students will plagiarize their essays from the Internet. If this is such an issue, the Internet resource can be eliminated.
- b) In their final examinations, students have to write by hand; if they use computers in the classroom, they will get out of the habit of writing by hand and will be penalized in the examination. Here, we need to distinguish between the tools used for teaching and testing; for example, we use textbooks for teaching, but these are not allowed in closed-book examinations. In the same way, we could teach writing through computers, but test students in a different mode.
- c) Students should display 'neat handwriting' in their essays; if they use the computer, their essays cannot be graded for neatness and further, their handwriting will deteriorate. This argument stresses only one component of writing, namely, penmanship, which is a relatively low-level skill; writing does not merely involve the mechanics of forming the letters, but also involves linguistic competence (spelling and grammar) and discourse elements (organization and cohesion).
- d) Not all students own computers; issues of access and equity will penalize some (if not most) students. This is slowly becoming less of a problem as the prices of computers drop further every year and the government willing to invest in technology to upgrade educational institutions. In fact, using computers is becoming more imperative to meet the demands of the workplace and to engage this generation of students, which is already tech-savvy.

One factor behind the resistance to using computers is that we have come to associate writing with using pen and paper, and find it difficult to think of using another medium for writing. Pen-and-paper technology satisfies only one of the many functions of writing—the need for a permanent record—but it is not central to writing. Scribbles on the blackboard, slate and chalk, and marks on the sand are still forms of writing; although the product is less permanent than pen-and-paper, an impermanent medium allows us to easily erase mistakes so that errors do not show up in the final product. Here, it is useful to distinguish between the process of writing (drafting/composing) and the final product, and the tools that support each; during the process stage, an impermanent medium allows frequent changes that leave no trace, whereas for the final product a permanent medium is required.

From the students' perspective, essay writing is very difficult. During the composition class, students are expected to generate ideas and organize them, after which they have to plan each sentence and write it out neatly. This requires them to coordinate a complex set of sub-skills. They have to manage both the higher-level skills of planning and organization as well as lower-level aspects, such as spelling and punctuation (Flower and Hayes, 1981). When writing with pen and paper, which allows minimal corrections, they either have to compose the entire essay in their heads or discover what they want to say

as the essay progresses. The teacher's feedback shows their concern with numerous levels of writing, from the mechanics of writing (legibility, spelling and punctuation) to word-choice, grammar, and organization. Because of the complex coordination of skills as well as the teachers' focus on errors, most students prefer to play safe and do not stretch their abilities.

Once we acknowledge that writing is a complex skill and that pen-and paper is an imperfect medium, it becomes easier to tackle the problem of teaching writing skills. A medium that allows more flexibility during writing would help students acquire writing skills. Here, the word-processor offers a solution. It is an alternative to the inflexibility of the pen-and-paper medium; at the same time, it offers permanence in the form of the final printout.

The computer is not merely an expensive typewriter. It has the potential to handle a number of jobs that are not possible when working with pen and paper. First, it makes the mechanics of writing (such as the physical labor of forming letters) much easier, leaving the writer free to develop ideas and attend to organization (Cochran-Smith, Kahn, & Paris, 1990). Second, the word processor is a fluid medium that allows writers to repair mistakes. Pennington (1991) points out that students can:

- obtain a neat display of the text
- erase text, and
- move text around.

In addition, current word-processing programs offer tools, such as spelling checkers and grammar check, that provide students with a database against which they can check their written work.

Although it sounds as if word-processing can work wonders for student writers, studies have not always found dramatic changes in student writing. One consistent finding is that students write longer texts on the computer (Jones, 1994; Morton, 1988), but this does not always mean that the quality of their writing improves. In some cases, writers plan less when they write on the computer (Haas, 1989) and do not change the structure of their texts during revision (Peterson, 1993). Although students write longer texts on the computer, this is because they add text to the end of their papers rather than revising within their papers (Daiute, 1986).

However, writing on the computer appears to help lower-ability students (Dalton & Hannafin, 1987) and ESL writers (Pennington, 1993). This is because computers support some of the multiple processes in writing, such as forming letters and checking spelling, leaving the student free to generate and expand their ideas.

This paper describes a study that introduced word processing into the English composition class. It examines the effects of this single change on the quality of student writing and on student motivation. Although the study was conducted in Singapore in 1996, there are enough parallels with the current situation in India to make this re-telling pertinent. In both situations, there was a push from the government to incorporate computers in teaching and the facilities were made available. However, teachers were skeptical about the effectiveness of using computers as well as hesitant about their own technology skills. The study found that a single change, namely, allowing students to compose essays on the computers instead of by hand, resulted in substantial improvement in their writing that transferred to later compositions that they wrote by hand.

Details of the study can be found in series of papers and chapters (Gupta, 1998a, 1998b; Gupta, Hvitfeldt, and Saravanan, 1997, 1998). Here, I will focus on a single student, Student Z, and track his writing strategies and development over a period of three months.

The Study

Background

The study was conducted in Singapore, where most of the schools were equipped with computer laboratories, each of which had 40 computers. Few schools used the computer laboratory for anything beyond teaching Computer Applications.

The 17 students in the class were 15 year-olds in the ninth grade who belonged to the weakest academic stream. Although English is the medium of instruction in Singapore schools, the students' proficiency in English was very weak; they were more comfortable in their home languages (Malay, Tamil, or one of the Chinese 'dialects'), using Singlish for everyday communication.

In the first three months of 1996 I observed students and collected their English compositions. In January, the students wrote their compositions by hand; at the end of January, I persuaded the English teacher to move his class to the computer laboratory where students wrote their English compositions on computers for a month. In March, students again reverted to writing by hand because the computer lab was unavailable. Hence, we were able to compare essays written by hand versus the computer, as well as look for any transfer to handwritten essays.

The class met four times a week for English. In each session, the teacher showed students a visual, such as a picture of some men cycling through a flooded street, and spent one hour writing a composition based on it. This format was followed both when the students wrote by hand and when they wrote on the computer. In the computer lab, students composed their essays directly on the computer using Microsoft Word. Since there were more computers than students, each student worked alone at a computer.

Each student wrote about 18 compositions by hand and 13 on the computer. In all, there were 520 compositions. These were analyzed using the style program on UNIX and statistical analyses were run to compare essays in the three modes: handwritten, computer, and post-computer. The results showed significant improvement in the students' written work (in terms of number of words, syntactic complexity, and range of vocabulary) as well as student motivation. Further, these results transferred to essays that the students wrote by hand in the latter half of the study.

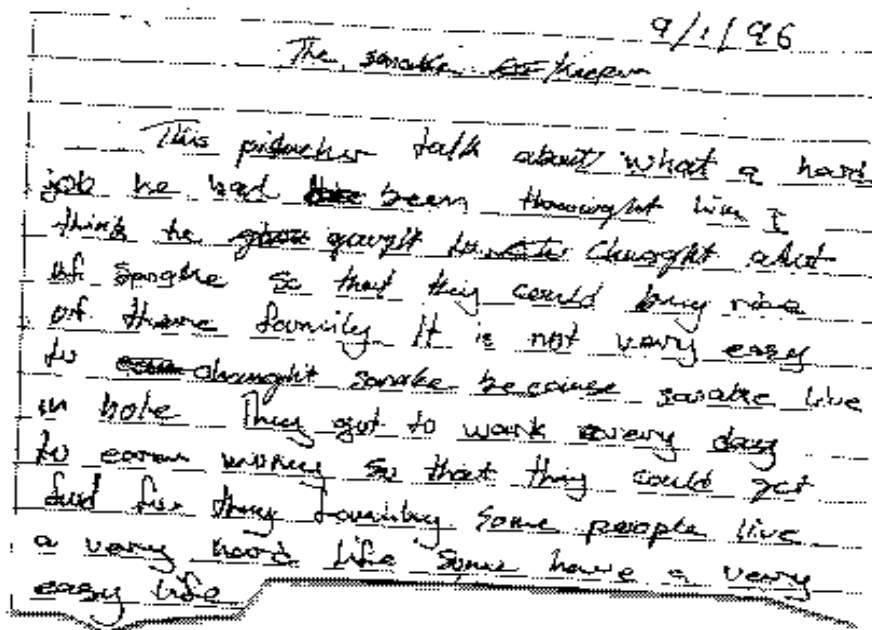
Case Study of Student Z

Student Z is representative of the students in the sample.

Initial Handwritten Essays

Figure 1 shows an essay that Student Z wrote by hand in January. It gives some idea of his initial writing skills and the problems he faces.

Text 1. Essay written by hand



In a more legible format, this is what Student Z wrote.

The snake ea keeper

This picture talk about what a hard job he had been thought him. I think he gave ??? alot of snake so that they could buy rice of there family. It is not very easy to chaught sanake because sanake live in hole. They got to work every day to earn money so that they could get food for they familiy. Some people live a very hard life. Some have a very easy life. (73 words)

It is not just the teacher who has a hard time reading such a text; the student could not read what he had written and so was unable to improve it. In writing, some cognitive attention is used for the lower-level skills of forming letters as well as language accuracy (in spelling, grammar and punctuation). In the case of weaker students, most of their attention gets diverted to this level.

Essays composed on the Computer

In February Student Z composed the following text on the computer.

Text 2. Essay Composed on the Computer

POOR PEOPLE

Last time were also like this, we were poorer that this people in the picture, we also live in flimsly shacks like this. At that time the living condition was very poor, and there are many manual worker there had to earn money day and night. To pay there rent. Some of this people are unskilled so that they had to build there own houses to protect themselfe for the rain and sun

I think not many people like living here, so they had to workhard to own a big house. I think some of other village are better that this in the picture. Because there water pipe is outside there home but some of other people village had build the pipe inside there own home no need to go outside and take water. Some of the village do business outside there own home. There had very poor hygiene standard and i think many people may get sick.

I think there future development are to build free house so that they would not have to pay there rent, so they can pay for other thing (185 words)

Handwritten Essays after Composing on the Computer

In March, when the computer lab was no longer available, Student wrote the following essay by hand. Notice the marked improvement from Text 1 that was written before he had practice composing on the computer.

Text 3. Handwritten Essay after One Month in the Computer Lab

The entertainment wold

They are a lot of entertainment and many kind of them in Singapore. Some of this entertainment make you laugh and some of them can enjoy you. And some of it make you relax some of the entertainment are very voicen.

In Singapore that why there are a lot of torise come to Singapore because there are a lot of entertainment around us. They is to much to tell. Every where you go you will find it very entertaing. The torises come here to relax themself. So they come to this place to entertain themself. Some of them come in group but most of them come with a guide. I always see alot of toris every where in Singapore. As time past many of this torise come for different country and they are growing alot in Singapore. Last year only they cover half the popelesion of us in this country.

Entertainment are some of the importan thing that are growing fast in Singapore you can find them any where you go. And there are many kind of them to. The tourise come here to have new situations in Singapore some of them come here to have social interaction with us. Some of them whan new experience so that they could learn new thing from us. And some of the new idea they took and they will talk about it with there friend back at there country.

The tourise come here for fun, enjoyment and to relax theyself so they came here to see us entertain them. They would also whan to change there view of us. So that they think Singapore is a clean and green country and they would come back for more.

(284 words)

What changed

Essay length

Comparing the three essays, the increase in length is obvious. Student Z could barely manage to write 73 words at first; on the computer he generated 185 words and even when he returned to writing by hand, he was able to compose an essay of 284 words. This parallels the results for the other students. When students first wrote their essays by hand, they averaged 112 words per essay. On the computer, the mean rose to 182 words. Curiously, when students went back to writing by hand, the mean was even higher at 215 words.

Text Organization

The second change was in the organization of the texts. The structure of Student Z's three essays can be seen in Figures 1-3. The three texts were diagrammed by breaking down the information into T-units (Hunt, 1965) and using the text analysis procedures laid out in Langer (1986). The numbers in the figures represent the sequence of idea units in the text.

Figure 1, which represents the structure of a handwritten essay, shows that the composition is merely a loose collection of ideas under the topic *The Snake Keeper*. Of the three main ideas, one (*Easy life*) is not even connected to the topic. Only one of the ideas (*Hard life*) is developed and the details are merely a loose collection of random points. There is considerable repetition of ideas; notice that the student has mentioned *the hard life* three times in the text.

Figure 2 is a marked contrast to Figure 1. Figure 2 not only has twice as many ideas as Figure 1, but is also better organized. Here, the student has not merely collected the ideas under a single topic but has set up three implicit sub-topics under which he groups related information: information about the past, information on changes, and future plans. This allows the student to handle the ideas that he generates with the word processor. Notice that the ideas are mentioned in sequence and no sub-topic has a loose collection of points. There is still the problem of information that hangs in mid-air with the idea of *Business Outside their Own Home*. However, Student Z has taken the trouble to set up a contrast. The text could be organized better, but at least the student has worked out the top-level organization of the essay; it is no longer a random list of loosely connected ideas but shows clear divisions into sub-topics under which related information is subsumed.

These notions about text structure transferred to later essays that Student Z wrote by hand. Text 3 (Figure 3) has a clear structure, with the information grouped under sub-topics. The numbering sequence is not ideal and the information is scattered through the text. The student knew what he wanted to say, but he was unable to cut/paste his sentences to bring related ideas close together.

Reasons for the change

The computer offered students two facilities: a readable display of text on the screen and editing facilities, such as delete, insert, and cut-paste. These facilities do not sound remarkable, but they offered students tools to (a) spot their errors, and (b) tools to fix these errors.

1. Legible display

From Text 1, we can see that Student Z clearly has problems even at the level of forming words. When an essay was composed on a computer, his attention was no longer focused on forming the letters, leaving him free to attend to other levels of writing.

Further, Student Z's handwriting was so illegible that he could not read even his own essay, and hence he could not revise it. Notice that in Text 1, the student deletes words as he writes and not later. Because the output displayed on the computer screen is readable, he was able to read his own texts. The teacher commented that the students had never tried editing their work before they came to the computer laboratory because they were unable to read their own handwriting.

2. Easy Revision

The ability to erase and move text allowed the students to change vocabulary, sentence structure and organization either while they were writing or when they had finished the essay. For example, Student Z typed 'how to say and do' and then changed it to the more complex structure--'how to speak or what to do'. He moved text around to bring related ideas together. This can be seen in the more complex structuring shown in Figures 2 and 3 that are discussed above.

Student E generated 200 words on *The Eagle*. She then edited each paragraph, deleting any repeated ideas. Finally, she read the entire essay and moved information across paragraphs so bring related information together.

For the students, it was a major struggle to produce even a 100-word essay, but on the word processor, they found that they could easily produce 200 words during the class. For the first time they found they could afford to delete words. The teacher pointed out that the students had never been taught to revise their essays; it surfaced because the students found they had sufficient time and text to work with.

3. Spelling & Vocabulary

Student Z had a range of 34 words in the essays he wrote by hand; this jumped to 148 words for essays written on the computer. In his handwritten essays, Student Z used words like *sleep*, *slowly*, and *started*, but on the computer he generated words that are difficult to spell (*again*, *earn*, *night*, *organize*, *there*, *fellow*, *enough*, *show*), low frequency words (*punishment*, *condition*), polysyllabic words (*feeling*, *following*, *continue*), and words with -s morphemes that do not occur in Singlish (*matters*, *kinds*, *rules*, *sends*, *sons*, *wings*).

It turned out that students were using the spelling checker for a novel purpose; instead of using it to check their spelling, they used it to generate words that they could pronounce but not produce in writing. For example, Student M wanted to use the word *start* but was unsure of the spelling. So he sounded it out [*sta:*], tentatively typed in *stard*, used spell-check to get a long list of suggested words, and selected the right one, *start*. Students used this strategy to get the spelling checker to provide words that they would not normally use in their written work.

The students have a fairly large receptive vocabulary, but because of the teacher's emphasis on spelling accuracy, they played safe and used basic vocabulary. For example, two students wanted to write an essay on parrots, but because they could not spell the word, they switched to cats and dogs. This emphasis on the mechanical aspects (such as spelling) concealed student proficiency in vocabulary, and did not allow them to stretch their abilities. On the computer, when spelling was no longer an issue, these higher-level linguistic competencies surfaced.

Discussion

The findings of the study were in line with the research literature, namely, when student writers compose on the computer, their essays improve in terms of length, syntactic complexity, and organization. The essays show very clearly that students' writing ability improved in the short space of a month. Their essays were longer, better organized and used a wider range of vocabulary. These effects persisted even when students reverted to writing their essays by hand. The computer helped because it is a more forgiving tool than pen-and-paper. Since the computer allows students to erase words and move text around without leaving a trace, it made them more adventurous about writing. The neat text display gave them pride in their work; it also released them from the physical labor of forming letters and, because it was legible, allowed them to read their own text in order to revise.

Another visible change was in student motivation. While all of these tangible improvements impressed the teachers in the school, they were more impressed with less visible changes--an increased interest in and enthusiasm for writing, improved attendance and classroom discipline, and the lasting effects of these changes when the pupils

returned to handwritten compositions. Students in other classes wanted to use the computer lab for their writing class and, as a result, the computer lab was not available for the latter half of the study.

I would like to turn to two aspects of the study that emerged from observing students at work. First, although students had never been taught how to organize their essays, they spontaneously did so on the computer. Writing instruction consisted of giving students a topic and leaving them to generate text as best as they could; students were never taught how to generate ideas, expand them, organize points into clusters, and then write. Yet, when they used a computer this latent knowledge surfaced. Students started expanding points that were not clear, deleting repetitions, and re-arranging points.

Second, students were clearly hampered by the teacher's emphasis on spelling accuracy. This constrained them in their choice of topics and limited the vocabulary they used in their essays. Through the spelling checker, they were able to produce words that they knew but hesitated to use because they did not know the spelling.

Both these effects emerged when students began to use the word processor. Neither the teacher nor I suggested these strategies; instead students spontaneously used the new tools to meet goals that they were unable to achieve through conventional pen and paper.

Implications for Teachers

When this study was conducted in the 1990s, there was considerable debate about the benefits and disadvantages of allowing students to compose essays on the computer. This discussion seems to have died down after 1998; instead, research journals such as CALICO and System take it for granted that students are using computers and have moved to a discussion of collaborative tools, such as the Internet and discussion forums. However, this seems to remain a concern in certain countries. In discussing the situation in Japan, Sugimoto (2006) points out that though the nation is technologically advanced, the government is encouraging the use of computers, and students are constantly on their computers, there is resistance to using them in classrooms.

Teachers who struggle to teach their students essay writing find that the computer helps. In hand-written compositions, teachers try to cope with virtually all areas of composition (such as penmanship, spelling and punctuation, vocabulary, idiom, grammar, word choice, style, cohesion, and organisation). In contrast, essay composition on the computer instantly eliminates several of these lower-order skills (e.g., spelling, punctuation and penmanship), leaving the teacher free to concentrate on higher-level skills, such as organisation, content, and style. Teacher feedback is simpler and more able to focus on specific skills. Writing is a difficult skill that needs to be taught, and the computer offers the student writer assistance at different levels. The computer makes the process of learning to write less painful and more interesting.

Because the written products can be saved on disk, students can revisit their essays later in the term. This not only gives them a chance to develop their ideas further but also makes them realize how much their writing ability has matured.

Computers also allow the teacher to show students how to edit their work. To do this, one computer has to be connected to an overhead projector so that the entire class can see the computer screen. The teacher can then display one student's work and ask the class for suggestions on improving it. The suggested changes can be typed in and students can see the effects of the change immediately instead of having to visualize it. In terms of process skills, this is particularly useful because students do not have to imagine what the revision process or the final version will look like--it is done in front of them.

Although the formal examination in India still requires students to write by hand, through the computer students can still learn how to organize and revise their essays. They learn the principles of good writing and, as our study shows, they transfer this learning to essays that they write by hand.

Teachers who want to use technology in the classroom often feel that they should use special software packages, such as multimedia lessons. We could make a start with what is at hand—a standalone computer with a word-processing package, such as Microsoft Word.

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Appendix

Figure 1. Structure of Essay Written by Hand in January

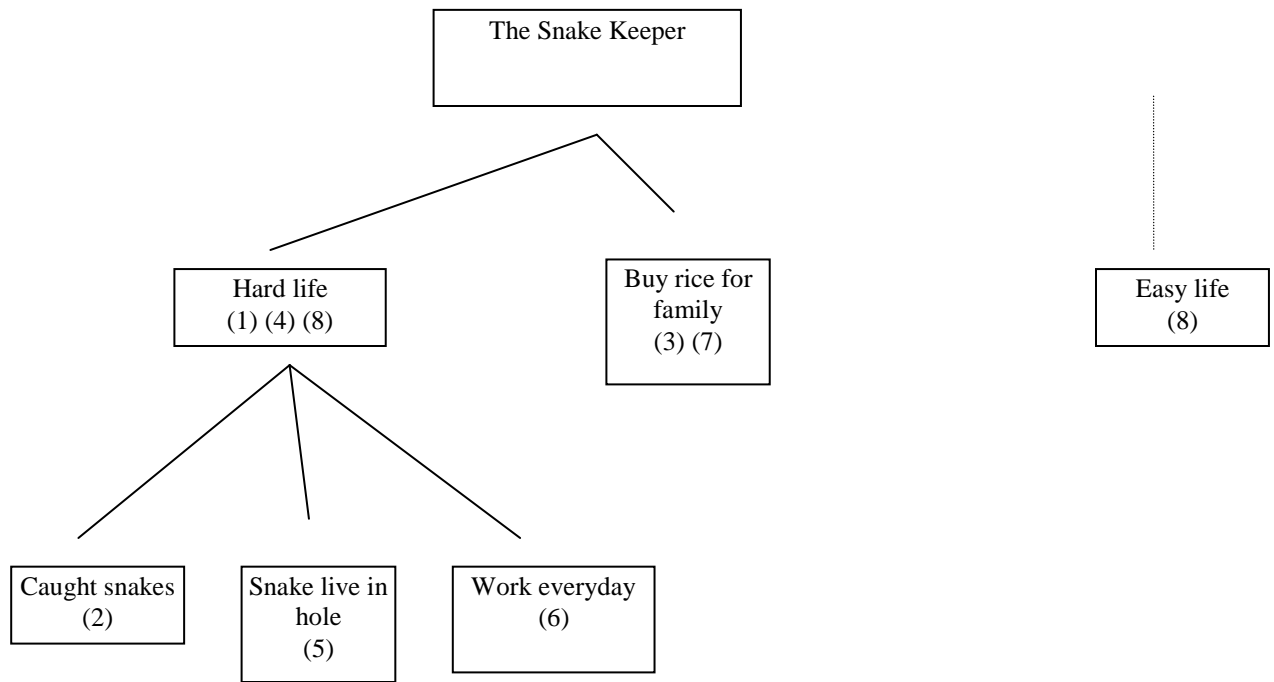


Figure 2. Structure of Essay Composed on the Computer in February

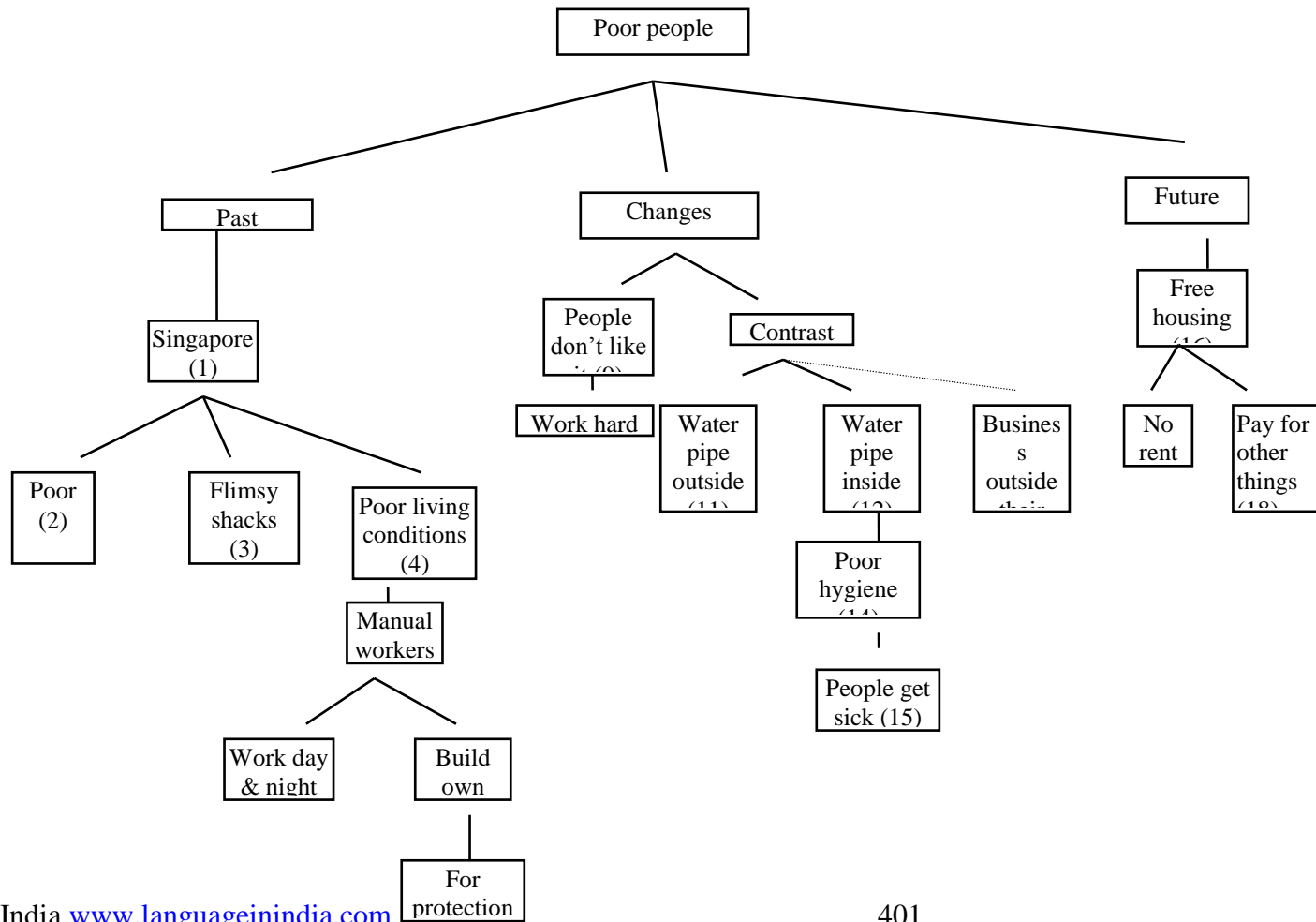
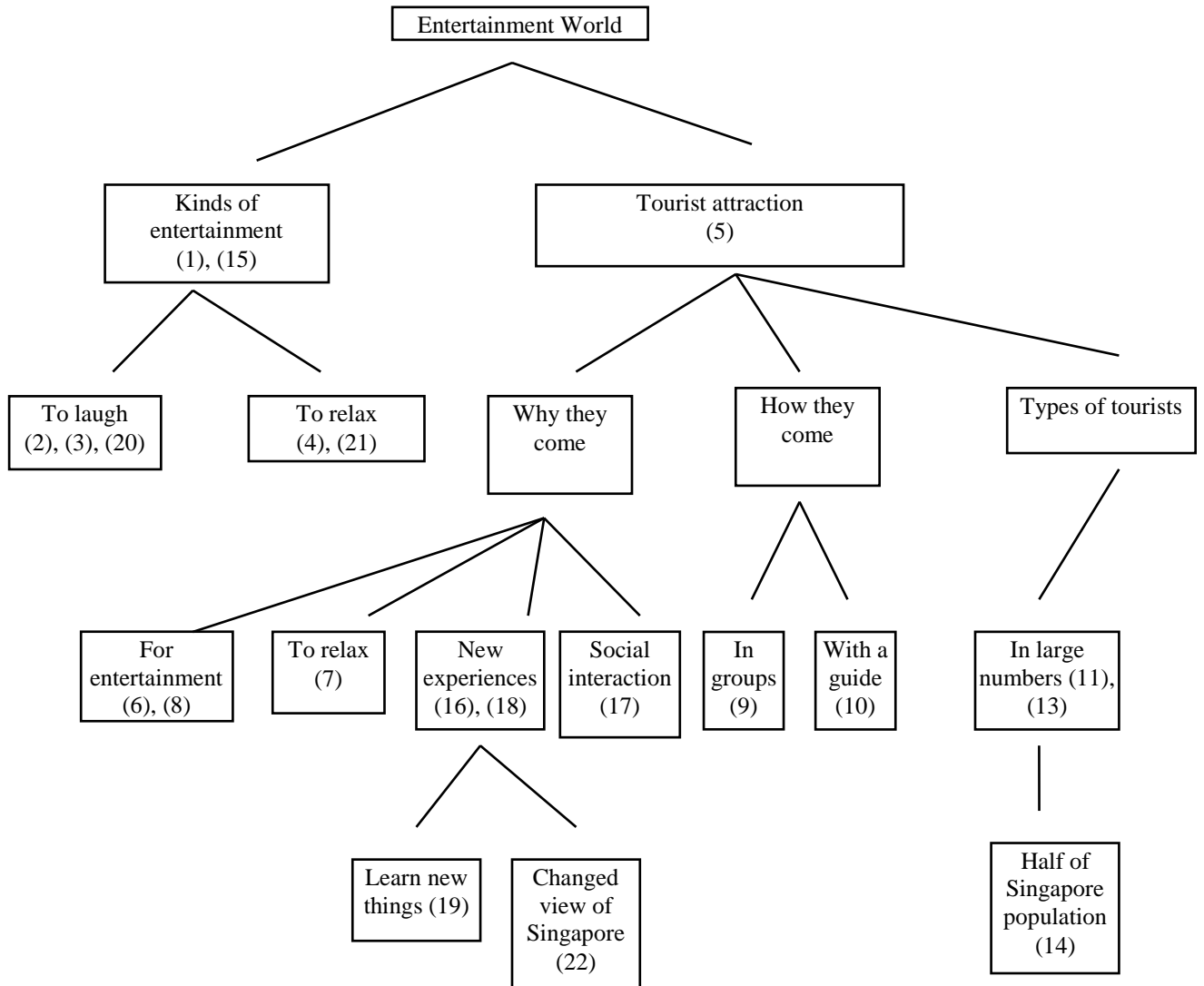


Figure 3. Structure of Essay Written by Hand in March



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Feminist Literary Criticism

Shilpi Goel, M.A., M.Phil.

Abstract

Feminist Literary Criticism is the rebellion of the female consciousness against the male images of female identity and experience. The concept of female identity shows us how female experience is transformed into female consciousness, often in reaction to male paradigms for female experience. It is an ideology that opposes the political, economical and cultural relegation of women to positions of inferiority. The critical project of Feminist critics is thus concerned with "uncovering the contingencies of gender" as a cultural, social and political construct and instrument of domination. This paper offers a comprehensive guide to the history and development of Feminist Literary Criticism and a lively assessment of the main issues and authors in the field.

Key Words: Feminist Literary Criticism, consciousness, oppression.

Three Waves of Feminist Literary Criticism

The concept of Feminist Literary Criticism came out as one of the crucial developments in literary studies. The term *Feminism* is derived from French term "feminist" which was used regularly in English for a belief in and advocacy of equal rights for women based on the idea of the equality of the sexes. Its studies have been broad and varied from the mid-19th century until the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment in 1920.

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Feminist Literary Criticism

There are three waves of Feminist Literary Criticism, which are described as “Waves Model”:

"First Wave" feminism: In the 1830s, the main issues were abolition of slavery and women's rights. 1848 – Women's Rights Convention held in Seneca Falls, NY. 1920 – the 19th Amendment guaranteed women the right to vote.

"Second Wave" feminism: Feminism waned between the two world wars, to be "revived" in the late 1960's and early 1970's as "Second Wave" feminism. In this second wave, feminists pushed beyond the early quest for political rights to fight for greater equality across the board, e.g., in education, the workplace, and at home.

"Third Wave" feminism: More recent transformations of feminism have resulted in a "Third Wave". It began in the early 1990s. Third Wave feminists often criticize Second Wave feminism for its lack of attention to the differences among men and women due to race, ethnicity, class, nationality, and emphasize "identity" as a site of gender struggle.

Intentions of Feminist Criticism

The main **intentions of feminist criticism** are:

- To unfold and widen the female tradition of writing
- To interpret symbolism of women's writing so that it will not be lost or ignored by the male point of view
- To help women's writings retain or gain a significant place even in the world of men
- To consider female writer and their writings from the perspective of a women
- To prevent sexism in literary texts
- To augment alertness regarding sexual politics of language and its approach

International Women's Liberation Movement

Feminist literary criticism started as part of the international women's liberation movement. *The Feminine Mystique* by Betty Friedan sparked a national debate about women's roles. According to *The New York Times* obituary of Friedan in 2006, it “ignited the contemporary women's movement in 1963 and as a result permanently transformed the social fabric of the United States and countries around the world” and “is widely regarded as one of the most influential nonfiction books of the 20th century”[14]. In the book, Friedan defines women's unhappiness as “the problem that has no name,” She pins the blame on an idealized image of femininity that she calls the feminine mystique.

Friedan's Focus

According to Friedan, women have been encouraged to confine themselves to the narrow roles of housewife and mother, forsaking education and career aspirations in the process. Betty Friedan attempted to demystify this false feminine mystique, which she described as "a world confined to her own body and beauty, the charming of man, the bearing of babies, and the physical care and serving of husband, children and home" in order to renew the women's fight for equal rights.[1]

"The only way for a woman, as for a man, to find herself, to know herself as a person, is by creative work of her own. There is no other way." [15]

Kate Miller

Kate Millet's *Sexual Politics* (1969) laid the foundation for subsequent feminist scholarship by showing how cultural discourse reflects a systematized subjugation and exploitation of women. Millet also introduces some of the fundamental terms, such as "patriarchal," which gained considerable significance in feminist literary studies. According to Millet "patriarchal" is a term where male-dominated structures and social arrangements elaborate the oppression of women. By definition it also exhibits androcentrism, meaning male centered. "Sexual Politics" soon became a cult book among feminist critics, especially with its politics of female representations in literature.

Elaine Showalter: Feminine, Feminist and Female

Elaine Showalter, an American literary critic, feminist, and writer on cultural and social issues, is one of the founders of feminist literary criticism in United States academia, developing the concept and practice of gynocritics.[4] Showalter coined the term 'gynocritics' to describe literary criticism based in a feminine perspective. Her *A Literature of Their Own* is a typical example.

In her analysis of the historical development, Showalter presents three important stages of women's writing. First, the imitation of the mainstream literary tradition: second, the protest against the standards of this dominant tradition concerning social values and rights: and third, self-discovery which aims at a search for identity. Showalter identifies these stages as Feminine, Feminist and Female[3]. The Feminine period covers the years between 1840-1889; the Feminist period 1890-1920, and the Female period starts in 1920 and comes to the 1960s. It continues with its renewal of perspectives with the advent of the women's movement after the 1960s. Showalter's contribution to the feminist criticism centres on her rediscovery of the forgotten women writers falling into these stages.

Feminists' mission is to end all forms of exploitation & injustice against the women. They have a moral obligation to combat against tyranny and subjugation. In order to accomplish feminism's objectives it may be inevitable to oppose religion and economic

exploitation, but not intrinsic. Their goal is only to oppose oppression, exploitation and injustice. Feminists advocate social, political & economical rights for women equal to men.

Bell Hooks: Sexism

Bell Hooks argues:

“Feminism, as liberation struggle, must exist apart from and as a part of the larger struggle to eradicate domination in all its forms. We must understand that patriarchal domination shares an ideological foundation with racism and other forms of group oppression, and that there is no hope that it can be eradicated while these systems remain intact. This knowledge should consistently inform the direction of feminist theory and practice.” [6]

Hooks' approach describes that sexism is a particular form of oppression. Though there are also some other forms of oppression, e.g., racism and homophobia. These forms of oppression require too much efforts to dismantle like as sexism but feminists' objective is to end only sexism against this view that women are subject to sexist oppression and that this is wrong.

Mary Wollstonecraft: The Rights of Woman

The influence of Mary Wollstonecraft on over two hundred years of feminist enquiry cannot be overstated, who eloquently anticipated the concerns of second-wave feminism. At the heart of Wollstonecraft's work is an attack on the authority of Edmund Burke, John Milton and Jean-Jacques Rousseau, 'fellow authors of a fictitious femininity, and patriarchal enemies in league against female emancipation' in which Wollstonecraft exposed Burke's sentimental 'aestheticisation of beauty', Rousseau's construction of an ideal, objectified woman, and the flawed misogynistic construction of Milton's Eve. In her detailed readings of these texts, Wollstonecraft reveals herself adept at the deployment of what would later be termed feminist critique. But this is not the limit of her achievement. [9,10,12]

Most notably in *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*, Wollstonecraft argues that well-educated women will be good wives and mothers and ultimately contribute positively to the nation. Wollstonecraft argues that women ought to have an education commensurate with their position in society and then proceeds to redefine that position, claiming that women are essential to the nation because they educate their children and because they could be "companions" to their husbands rather than mere wives. Instead of viewing women as ornaments to society or property to be traded in marriage, Wollstonecraft maintains that they are human beings deserving of the same fundamental rights as men. Large sections of the *Rights of Woman* respond vitriolically to conduct book writers such

as James Fordyce and John Gregory and educational philosophers such as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, who wanted to deny women an education. (Rousseau famously argues in *Émile* (1762) that women should be educated for the pleasure of men.)[7, 8]

Virginia Woolf: Founder of Modern Feminist Literary Criticism

Virginia Woolf is seen to be ‘the founder of modern feminist literary criticism’ (Goldman, 66). As Jane Goldman demonstrates, Woolf’s groundbreaking essay *A Room of One’s Own* constitutes a ‘modern primer’ for feminist criticism, and her influence on later generations of feminist thought has been immense [11].

Woolf matters to feminist literary criticism not simply as a writer and critic, but also as a subject of critical enquiry. The rescuing of Woolf from the apolitical prisons of Bloomsbury and madness was one of the formative projects of second-wave feminist literary criticism, giving rise to a constructive relationship between the writer, her criticism and her critics.

It is Woolf we must thank for the provocative concepts of thinking back through our mothers, the woman’s sentence and the androgynous mind. It is Woolf who wrote of killing the angel in the house and demanded the adaptation of the book to the body. Goldman’s chapter illustrates how, in Woolf’s creative contradictions and her disruptive boundary-crossing imagination, we find sources for the many, often conflicting, theoretical positions of contemporary feminist thought.

Beauvoir: A Rich Lexicon of Images and Ideas

Like Woolf, **Beauvoir** has left feminism with a rich lexicon of images and ideas, not least of which is her definitive assertion that ‘one is not born a woman’. This concept is implicit in the work and debates surrounding all our protofeminists and pioneers, but in Beauvoir’s *The Second Sex* this fundamental idea receives explicit articulation.

As discussed above, the recognition of the social construction of gender and the coercive nature of gendered subjectivities has been at the centre of feminist literary criticism, enabling it as a discourse to challenge humanist assumptions about identity, nature and progress, and to scrutinize the potent mythical formations of femininity and masculinity [2].

From Kate Millett to Judith Butler, feminist critics have been inspired by Beauvoir, but, as Elizabeth Fallaize argues, the full substance of her monumental work is hardly known. Since the 1990s, a new generation of feminist literary critics have been working to revise the limited perceptions of Beauvoir’s work, and Fallaize contributes to this vital process through a study of Beauvoir’s analysis of myth.

Myth, claimed Beauvoir, was instrumental in ‘persuading women of the *naturalness* of their fate’, and Fallaize traces her examination of feminine archetypes from Stendhal to Sade, in the process finding an ecumenical methodology that anticipates later literary-critical movements from Marxism to structuralism to psychoanalysis. *The Second Sex* prefaces the point at which *A History of Feminist Literary Criticism* more obviously begins and, as with Wollstonecraft and Woolf, the echoes of Beauvoir’s influence will resonate throughout its pages.

Social Construction of Gender

‘Feminism’ is an umbrella term for range of views about injustices against women. There are some disagreements also among feminists about the nature of justice in general and the nature of sexism, in particular, the specific kinds of injustice or wrong women suffer; and the group who should be the primary focus of feminist efforts. But all the feminists agreed that there is some sense of "rights" on which achieving equal rights for women is a necessary condition for feminism to succeed. As Kolodny also points out, there is a basic principle that unites feminist literary critics under one roof despite their plurality of methods:

“What unites and repeatedly invigorates feminist literary criticism... is neither dogma nor method but an acute and impassioned attentiveness to the ways in which primarily male structures of power are inscribed (or encoded) within our literary inheritance: the consequences of that encoding for women - as characters, as readers, and as writers; and, with that, a shared analytic concern for the implications of that encoding not only for a better understanding of the past but also for an improved reordering of the present and future” [5, 13].

Conclusion

The field of feminism is undoubtedly very vast as it is committed to bring about social change to end injustice against women, in particular, injustice against women as women. Feminist literary criticism has been very successful especially in reclaiming the lost literary women and in documenting the sources. In this respect, feminist criticism has successfully directed attention to the female intellectual tradition. To conclude If feminist criticism really wants to generate new analytical methods in its readings of literary texts, it can only achieve its aim by challenging and disrupting the patriarchal tradition within its dominant discourses, that is, by working from within that tradition.

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Amy Tan and Chinese American Literature

Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.

Identifying American Asian Literature

The term ‘Asian American’ is in use since the late 1960’s and it includes people from diverse national origins like the Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, East Indian, Pakistani, Vietnamese, Thai, Cambodian, Laotian and Pacific Islanders. The term ‘Asian American’ is intrinsically complex. It embraces all the contending sociopolitical and cultural forces that affect the daily life of the Asian Americans. This semiotic status of the term ‘Asian American’ shapes the understanding of Asian American literature.

Frank Chin and his co-editors limited their selections to three subgroups – Chinese, Japanese and Filipino, for inclusion in their Aiiieeeee! An Anthology of Asian – American Writers (1974) whereas the editors of Home to Stay - Asian American Women’s Fiction (1990), Sylvia Watanabe and Carol Bruchac, have included the works of Korean and Asian Indian writers. King-Kok Cheung and Stan Yogi chose a non-prescriptive approach in their, Asian American Literature: An Annotated Bibliography (1988), where they list works of writers of Asian descent, who had settled in the United States or Canada, regardless of where they were born.

In her book, Reading Asian American Literature - From Necessity to Extravagance, (1993) Sau-ling Cynthia Wong says that the diversity of perception, is a “result of Asian American literature’s inter-discursivity in history and in contemporary life” (8).

Asian American literature ensures that the voices of the Asian American are heard, and their experiences interpreted. It proves the power of literature to break through barriers of culture and national boundaries.

The Chinese Americans

It is estimated that the Chinese Americans number more than 2.3 million (Schaefer 2006: 334). The Chinese were the first Asians to migrate to America. The severe drought that destroyed the crops in the Canton province in 1847 – 1850 led to the massive influx of labourers to build the transcontinental railroad in the 1860's. In 1882 the United States Congress enacted the Chinese Exclusion Act, which, among other things, prevented the formation of Chinese families in the United States. Since they intended eventually to return to China and also because of the enormous expense of the journey most men left their families behind. The long and arduous separation often threatened the family unit and made life difficult on both sides of the Pacific.

The men were busy labouring eighteen to twenty hours a day to earn their livelihood and were also troubled by their White tormentors and immigration officials. The women who were left behind had to shoulder the responsibilities alone and a few who risked journeying alone to the United States were either kidnapped or sold to prostitution. The effects of this were not reversed till the Immigration laws in 1965.

Spread of Chinese Americans

'Chinese American' is a term of recent coinage used to refer to the persons of Chinese ancestry residing permanently in the United States. In 1915, the Chinese-American Citizens Alliance was founded to protect their civil rights, and this also indicated the psychological shift of commitment and the importance of the American part in Chinese American.

Much of the creative energy had been consumed in the breaking away from Chinatowns, where the Chinese had all huddled together in the beginning, and the rest had been devoted to the pursuit of middle class American values – financial and social status.

The predominantly male labourers and the poorly educated peasants were engrossed in supporting their families left behind in Southern China. The gender- imbalanced bachelor societies in Chinatowns experienced physical and psychological hardships which were coupled with limited schooling, and this did not favour artistic creation.

Later as they developed, there was no dearth of Chinese- American doctors, lawyers and engineers, but writers were few.

A Cultural Creation

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Amy Tan and Chinese American Literature

The emergence of Chinese American literature labelled a cultural creation. There were few firsthand records left by the nineteenth century Chinese immigrants, the first generation Chinese Americans.

A glimpse of its original cultural creation can be gained from the collection of folk rhymes of Chen Yuanzhu and Hu Zhaozhong, exhibiting harsh conditions forcing young men to emigrate coupled with their wishes for success.

Vestiges of the oral tradition of Chinese American can be found in the genre of the wooden fish song or 'muyu' which is a small percussion instrument. These lyrics created a crucible of folk sensibility.

A few poems carved by immigrants into the wooden walls of the barracks on Angel Island in San Francisco bay which was used as an immigration station between 1910 and 1940, were preserved through community effort and collected in Island (1980). They constitute the angry poignant voices of the early Chinese immigrants. Songs of Gold Mountain : Cantonese Rhymes from San Francisco Chinatown, (1987) by Marlon K Hom who rendered selected poems from the 1911 and 1915 volumes of Jinshangeji, were songs composed in written form by members of the San Francisco Chinatown. They covered topics of American hardships, their triumphant return to China, the pain of the separation of family and the Republican Revolution of Dr. Sun Yat Sen.

The Second Generation of Chinese Americans

From the ranks of the second generation Chinese Americans who started writing imaginatively about their experiences were Pardee Lowe with his Father and Glorious Descendant (1943) and Jade Snow Wong who wrote Fifth Chinese Daughter (1945).

The works of Lowe and Wong were autobiographical and charted Chinese American life from tradition to modernity and from conformity to individual freedom. Twenty years lapsed before Virginia Lee published her semi-autobiographical The House That Tai Ming Built (1963). These works confirmed a stereotyped image of the Chinese and their culture. They portrayed the Chinese immigrant either withdrawn and totally Chinese or quietly assimilated and unobtrusively American. These books are however considered landmarks in Chinese-American Literature.

C Y Lee's The Flower Drum Song (1957) catered to the white stereotypes of the Chinese and earned great popularity. This was followed by Louis Chu's Eat a Bowl of Tea (1961) which provides a tale of community renewal in the postwar period. This novel departs from the autobiographical and provides a narrative of community life in the New York Chinatown after World War II. Chuang Hua's Crossings (1968) is a sustained example of high modernism in Chinese American literature picturing attempts to come to terms with deracination and has affinities with Hualing Nieh's Mulberry and Peach (1981) where the refugee woman, unable to resolve her conflicts splits into two personalities.

The Women Writers

The women writers of the Far East, can be traced to the ninth-century Chinese poet Yu Xuanji who produced some of the finest lyric poetry in her language, while writers such as Murasaki Shikibu, in her innovative novel written in the early eleventh century The Tale of Genji, and Sei Shonagon, in her Pillow Book completed in the year 1002, recorded the flowering and decadence of the imperial court in Heian, Japan around the turn of the eleventh century. Despite such literary accomplishments, the essential social and political status of women in the medieval period declined.

By the twentieth century, Asian American women writers had produced a rich body of literature. There are, however, very few who received literary awards and creative writing fellowships like Gwendolyn Brooks who received the 1949 Pulitzer Prize for her poem Annie Allen. Alice Walker won the Rosenthal Award of National Institute of Arts and Letters in 1973 for In Love and Trouble (1973), a collection of short stories about black women and Maxine Hong Kingston won the national Book Critics' Circle Award for her The Woman Warrior in 1976.

Despite these impressive achievements, most minority women writers remained virtually unknown. Women, in particular, are now seeking a new understanding of their present goals and life styles. There is strength and diversity in their story, each woman writer writing from her own ethnic perspective, often in a very American setting. They have something unique to share, teaching what it was like to live in a country which always viewed one as an outsider. At the same time, they share the universal tragedy of loneliness, facing anyone who leaves family and homeland, and also many other issues common for sisters of all colours that weave women together.

Amy Tan's Art – Focus on Women in the Face of Adversity

Amy Tan is an artistic member of the Chinese American women writers who addresses the issues of inequality meted out to women in other cultures, the different cultural expectations of women, abortion, friendship, generation gaps between mother and daughter and the strength of women in the face of adversity. The novels of Tan have created an indelible mark on the literary scene depicting the lives of Chinese American women with their generational and cultural differences and her novels has formed the foundation of this study.

Amy Tan's Own Story

Amy Ruth Tan was born to Daisy and John Tan in Oakland, California on 19th February 1952; her parents had emigrated from China in 1949. They had left behind three young daughters, planning first to find a place to live in and then to send for them. This dream was shattered with the Communist Revolution. Tan's mother tried hard, but failed to establish contact with her children.

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Amy Tan and Chinese American Literature

Tan won a writing contest when she was eight, mostly due to the influence of her father. Her engineer - Baptist - minister father told her Bible stories, and innumerable fairy tales. When Tan was twelve she learnt of the existence of the sisters, and could relate to the pain which continued to haunt her mother. At fifteen, she lost her brother Peter, a year older than her, to brain tumour. The next year her father succumbed to the same disease.

Her grief-stricken mother, believing that their house was imbalanced in feng shui (wind and water), fled with her two remaining children to Switzerland, where Tan attended the Monte Rosa International College, in Montreux.

At sixteen Amy was arrested for drug possession and later tried to elope with an escaped mental patient who claimed to be a German army deserter. Her mother sent the police after her and Tan was grateful for this help and began college at Oregon, where she met Lou De Mattei, and married him in 1974 against her mother's wishes.

She received a master degree in linguistics at the San Jose State University and she started her Ph.D. programme in linguistics at the University of California but left school after the murder of a close friend.

She worked as a language development specialist for handicapped children, and later took up free lance writing and joined a writing group. She was a workaholic and this led to depression and Tan began seeing a psychiatrist but was soon disillusioned.

In 1985, Tan read a novel Love Medicine (1984) by Louise Erdrich, a set of interwoven stories narrated by different generations of a native American family, and this changed her life, she was captivated by Erdrich's images and voice.

Another great influence on Tan's writing was her mother Daisy, whom Tan refers to as her muse, and the tumultuous life that her mother led in China has served as an inspiration for Tan's novels. Daisy Tan was born to a wealthy Shanghai family. After the death of her father her mother, Jing mei, was raped by a rich man who wanted her to be his concubine. When she gave birth to a son, one of the man's wives claimed him as her own and Jing-mei committed suicide by swallowing opium infused New Year cakes. Years later Daisy entered an arranged marriage with an abusive husband and had to abandon three daughters in China to escape her marriage and came to the United States.

All this led Tan write her novels with the suffering of women in the forefront and she also projected the victory that the women strived for and often achieved.

Today, Tan lives in San Francisco with DeMattei, her husband, and her two Yorkshire terriers. The death of her mother was a very disheartening episode and she is at times haunted by her mother's sense of doom and relies on antidepressants. When she

experienced the loss of her mother she became totally involved with writing and voiced forth her mother's story.

Amy Tan wrote these novels: The Joy Luck Club(1989), The Kitchen God's Wife(1991), The Hundred Secret Senses(1995), The Bonesetter's Daughter(2001), and Saving Fish from Drowning(2005). All her novels were New York Times bestsellers and she was the recipient of various awards. She has also authored a memoir, The Opposite of Fate (2003), two children's books, The Moon Lady (1992) and Sagwa (1994), and numerous articles for magazines. Her work has been translated into thirty five languages such as Spanish, French, and Finnish, Chinese, Arabic, and Hebrew. She was the Creative Consultant for Sagwa, the Emmy-nominated television series for children, which has been aired worldwide. Tan has lectured internationally at universities and her essays and stories are found in hundreds of anthologies and textbooks. She also serves as the Literary Editor for the *Los Angeles Times* magazine, 'West'.

Tan's The Joy Luck Club received the Bay Area Book Reviewers Award and the Commonwealth Gold Award. It has been selected as the American Library Association's Best Book for Young Adults and also selected for the National Endowment for the Arts' Big Read. The Kitchen God's Wife was elected New York Times Notable Book and the American Library Association Notable Book. The Hundred Secret Senses was the finalist for the Orange Prize, and The Bonesetter's Daughter has been the New York Times Notable Book and was also nominated for the IMPAC Dublin Award. Saving Fish from Dying was also nominated for IMPAC Dublin Award and was the Booklist Editors' Choice.

Apart from fiction for adults, Tan has branched out into other kinds of entertainment. Occasionally she indulges her rebellious side by performing with a literary rock band called the Rock Bottom Remainders, a band composed of best – selling authors, along with writers Stephen King and Dave Barry. She specially enjoys performing her signature song "These Boots Were made for walking". She has joined the San Francisco Symphony for a reading of her work set to music. Tan's debut novel The Joy Luck Club has been reproduced as a movie directed by Wayne Wang, and was released in 1993. She served as Co-producer and Co-screenwriter with Ron Bass for the film adaptation.

The Joy Luck Club

The Joy Luck Club, Tan's maiden novel reveals her power as a master story teller. The novel portrays the stories of four mothers and their daughters. It has been divided into four parts, each of which carries four stories. The Chinese mothers left China wishing to forget all their dark past and start afresh in America. They dreamt of a better future for their children, which would have nothing to do with the China they knew. The mothers wished that their children would speak perfect English and lead free lives without sorrow. Michael Dorris in his review "Mother and Daughters" comments, "The Joy Luck Club is that rare, mesmerizing novel one always seeks but seldom finds. Tracing the poignant

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destinies of two generations of tough, intelligent women, each gorgeously written page welcomes the reader and leads to an enlightenment that, like all true wisdom, sometimes brings pleasure and sometimes sadness”(1).

The Joy Luck Club has a short story sequence and focuses on the Chinese mothers and their American daughters who are at odds with their mothers, and how they later inherit the power of the mother's wisdom and strength. The mothers had become strong, either by seeing their own mothers suffer or by their own suffering. The difficulties they faced made them strong; they did not bend or break when the storms of life hit them hard. They wished that their children would have a bicultural heritage, the best combination that the cultures could offer. But they observed that their children drifted away to embrace only one - the American and the mothers strove to reach out and forcibly link up with their daughters and reveal to them the strength they needed to take from their mother and grand mother. The daughters often experienced moments of revelation after they underwent trauma in life and then they recognised the value of the rich experience of the mother and began to listen and assimilate the mothers' stories. Ben Xu, in his article "Memory and the ethnic self; Reading Amy Tan's, The Joy Luck Club" comments, "They become less resistant to identifying with their mothers and more receptive to the humble wisdom of the previous generations. The change from resistance to acquiescence signifies simultaneously the growth of a mature self and the ethnicization of experience" (15).

Not on Collective Awakening – Concerned More with Individuals

Tan insists that for her, writing is not a political experience; her novels are concerned with individuals rather than collective awakening. In her article "Why I Write" in the Literary Cavalcade she says:

Because my childhood disturbed me, pained me, made me ask foolish questions. And the questions still echo. Why does my mother always talk about killing herself? Why did my father and brother have to die? If I die, can I be reborn into a happy family? Those early obsessions led to a belief that writing could be my salvation, providing me with the sort of freedom and danger, satisfaction and discomfort, truth and contradiction I can't find in anything else in life...

Writing, for me, is an act of faith, a hope that I will discover what I mean by "truth". I also think of reading as an act of faith, a hope that I will discover something remarkable about ordinary life, about myself. And if the writer and the reader discover the same thing, if they have that connection, the act of faith has resulted in an act of magic. To me, that's the mystery and the wonder of both life and fiction - the connection between two individuals who discover in the end that they are more the same than they are different. (14)

The Kitchen God's Wife

Tan followed her initial success with a second critically acclaimed novel, The Kitchen God's Wife. It is the story of a Chinese mother and her daughter in America. The first two chapters are narrated by the American born daughter, Pearl, and then the mother Winnie (the Americanised version of Weili) takes over and the book takes flight as she relates her story from the time she was a young girl in China.

Tan recalls how just after The Joy Luck Club had been published, it had become the best seller, people started asking her about the second book. They, however, warned her that it could be nothing like the first and that the second book was always doomed. In her article "Angst and the Second Novel" Tan recalls a warning from a writer friend and her reaction to it:

"Well, don't sweat over it too much," the other writer said. "The Second Book's doomed no matter what you do. Just get it over with, let the critics bury it, then move on to your third book and don't look back." I saw the bar graphs of my literary career falling over like tombstones...

Who knows where inspiration comes from? Perhaps it arises from desperation. Perhaps it comes from the flukes of the universe, the kindness of muses. Whatever the case, one day I found myself asking, "But *why* is she telling this story?" And she answered back: "Of course I'm crabby! I'm talking, talking, talking, no one to talk to. Who's listening?" "And I realized: a story should be a gift. She needs to *give* her story to someone. And with that answer I was no longer bumping my nose against a dead-end maze. I leaped over the wall and, on the other side, I found enough emotional force to pull me through to the end.

So what I have written finally is a story told by a mother to her daughter, now called The Kitchen God's Wife. And I know there will be those who will say, "Oh, a mother-daughter story, just like The Joy Luck Club". I happen to think the new book is quite different from the old. But yes, there is a mother, there is a daughter. That's what found me, even as I tried to run away from it...

And the story is, in fact, about a woman who does the same thing: she fights to believe in herself. She does battle with myths and superstitions and assumptions-then casts off the fates that accompany them. She doesn't measure herself by other people's opinion... And sometimes, in secret, she lets her imagination run wild with hope."(4,7)

The Hundred Secret Senses

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After The Kitchen God's Wife, Tan created The Hundred Secret Senses, a novel that portrays an exploration of sisterhood.

Olivia the protagonist had Kwan, her half sister, who safeguarded her through life, and showered on her joy, love and care, though she received nothing in return. Olivia's mother Louise was always interested in a lot many programmes and had no time for home or children. Kwan proved to be the perfect honorary baby sitter. Kwan became Olivia's surrogate mother and considered herself responsible for anything that happened in Olivia's life. Kwan believed that she has the ability to communicate with ghosts with her yin eyes (eyes that could see dead people). Olivia was skeptical and fascinated with Kwan's visions and belief in the afterlife. In the second half of the novel, Olivia strived to come to terms with her marriage which was on the verge of breaking up because of their inability to have children and her husband's memories of his earlier girl friend.

Despite the problems, Olivia and Simon went to Changmian, Kwan's native town, on a professional trip to study the cuisines of China with Kwan who accompanied them as interpreter. Kwan narrated the story of her fate in a former life, when she was a one eyed servant girl Nunumu, working for Western missionaries in Changmian in the 1860's and her friendship with Miss Nelly Banner, an American with a complicated love life and a tragic destiny. This past is connected to the present and Kwan believed that Olivia was Nelly Banner. Nunumu in the end disappears and is reincarnated as Kwan, designated to create for Olivia a bridge to reconciliation.

The readers of The Hundred Secret Senses are left reeling under the quick changes of time and space. The world of yin leaves the readers in fantasy wondering what Tan will come up with next.

The Bonesetter's Daughter

The fourth novel of Tan, The Bonesetter's Daughter is as engaging as her previous novels. Ghosts play an important part here too, but they appear only to lead and guide their loved ones. In the preface to the novel Tan acknowledges "As luck and fate would have it, two ghost writers came to my assistance during the last draft. The heart of this story belongs to my grandmother, its voice to my mother. I give them credit for anything good, and have already promised them I will try harder next time". Tan also gives a dedication at the beginning of the novel:

On the last day that my mother spent on earth.
I learned her real name, as well as that of my grand mother.
This book is dedicated to them.
Li Bingzi
and
Gu Jingmei.

The mother daughter relationship is once again given a thorough delineation and it differs from The Joy Luck Club in being a single story encompassing a lineage of three women. Tan writes that her novels throw light on individuals and relationships rather than culture, history and the Chinese back ground. Her stories are, however, always set in America as well as in China and she deals with the importance of knowing one's heritage and lineage to live a meaningful life.

Saving Fish From Dying

Saving Fish From Dying is Tan's latest creation. It is narrated by the dead Bibi Chen, who was the tour guide engaged to take a group of eleven people on a trip to Burma. The group follows their plan with a new guide but Bibi Chen stays with them in spirit, even to the point that the travelers go missing.

The different characters portray idiosyncrasies, bringing to mind the travellers in Chaucer's Canterbury Tales.

Tan in an interview displayed on her home page states, "I took fictional devices from a number of genres. There are twelve travelers, and twelve or more genres here—murder mystery, romance, picaresque, comic novel, magical realism, fable, myth, police detective, political farce, and so forth" (Amy Tan Home Page). On the surface the novel talks of politics and philosophy, but it also deals with love and family ties.

Mother-Daughter Relationship

Tan has in her novels highlighted the mother – daughter relationship, not because she is an expert in the matter she says, but because she wanted to tell her mother's story. The voice of her mother has helped her find her identity and endowed her with all the strength she needs for the future. The story that the mother says seems to help not only in recreating but also in reshaping the past. Tan deals with cultural identity and familial relationships that are part of growing conflicts, misunderstandings and collective memory. Her plots are usually composed with an aging Chinese mother who is considered abusive and mired in tradition, who is also dissatisfied with her family life. Her American born daughter is torn between filial duty and individuality. With an opening up of the mother's cultural and personal history, catharsis is achieved and the daughter accepts her mother as a unique person with profound and abiding love for her. This foray into the legacies of her Chinese heritage also provides her with a renewed sense of self worth which helps her to confront and resolve problems in her own life.

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**An Acoustic Analysis of Glottal Fricative [h] at Word Medial and Final
Positions: A Comparison between
Regular and Non-regular Urdu Speakers of Pakistan**

Azhar Pervaiz, M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate
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Abstract

In this paper, the acoustic properties of voiceless glottal fricative [h] in Urdu language are analyzed and compared between regular and non-regular Urdu speakers. Regular Urdu speakers imply those speakers whose L1 is Urdu; whereas non-regular Urdu speakers imply those whose L1 is Pashto and Punjabi.

Data relating to [h] at word medial and word final position are taken in carrier phrases of both regular and non-regular Urdu speakers. Data of ten speakers were taken and analyzed through PRAAT and it was found that the regular Urdu speakers have longer duration while closing an Urdu word at /h/ sound than non-regular Urdu speakers and none of the speakers shows any sign of [h] at word final position. The paper also shows that the duration of [h] sound at word medial position of regular Urdu speakers is longer than the duration of [h] sound of non-regular Urdu speakers.

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1. Introduction

Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and one of the state languages of India and has more than 60 million first language speakers and more than 100 million total speakers in more than 20 countries (Gordon 2005). Urdu Language has only one glottal fricative, i.e. [h] which is voiceless. In a voiced sound the vocal folds are closed together and vibrating but in a voiceless sound they are pulled apart. This position will produce a completely voiceless sound if there is little or no air flow through the glottis as in the case of voiceless fricative. But if there is considerable air flow as in h- like sound, the vocal folds will set vibrating while remaining apart. They can still vibrate but at the same time a great deal of air passes out through the glottis.

In English /h/ is somewhat like the voiceless counterpart of the surrounding sounds. At the beginning of a sentence /h/ is like a voiceless vowel, but /h/ can also occur between vowels in words or phrases like “behind the head”. As you move from one vowel through /h/ to another, the articulatory movement is continuous and the /h/ is signaled by a weakening of the sound which may not even result in a completely voiceless sound (Ladefoged, 2001:56).

According to Gussenhoven and Jacobs (1998), a word is normally not started with [ŋ] and may not end with [h] i.e. it may not occur at the end of a syllable. The two segments are in complementary distribution as [hæŋ] is a word but *[tæŋ] is not a word. However, in Urdu the word may end at [h] sound orthographically like [tənxwəh] (wages), [wəḍəh] (promise) etc. This paper acoustically investigates whether or not this is omitted in the speech of regular and non-regular Urdu speakers. This article further investigates the difference of [h] sound at word medial and at word final position in the speech of regular and non-regular Urdu speakers.

2. Literature Review

The place of articulation of /h/ consonant is glottal. This means that the narrowing that produces the friction noise is between the vocal cords. Ladefoged (2001) says that in producing [h] sound the vocal folds are apart between the arytenoid cartilages. Phonetically, /h/ is a voiceless vowel with the quality of the voiced vowel that follows it (Roach, 1983: 6). However, the spectrum of the [h] sound is different because of two reasons.

First, the vowel shape to the follow the beginning to be formed before the production of the frication; this shape will change for different vowels and thus affect the spectrum of

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the [h]. Second, for the close front vowel the source of the [h] turbulence may be at a velar or upper pharyngeal location rather than low in the pharynx or at the glottis (Pickett, 1999: 137).

Phonologically, h is a consonant. It is usually found before vowels. As well as found in initial positions it is found medially in words such as: ‘ahead’ /əhed/, ‘greenhouse’ /gri:nhaus/ ‘boathook, /bəʊthʊk/. It is noticeable that when h occurs between voiced sounds (as in the words ‘ahead’ and ‘greenhouse), it is pronounced with voicing- not the normal voicing of vowels but a weak slightly fricative sound called breathy voice.

In Urdu [h] sound is different from the other voiceless fricatives [f, s, ʃ, x] because it does not involve a constriction within the oral cavity. This sound is classified as a glottal fricative. Ladefoged and Maddison (1996) say that forms of h, h̥ in which a turbulent air stream is produced at the glottis are also sometimes classed as fricatives. One problem with classifying [h] as an approximant is that voiceless approximants are by definition inaudible. If there’s no friction and no voicing, there’s nothing to hear. Anything you can hear during a voiceless [h] must be some sort of weak friction, resulting from some sort of weak turbulence, which means that [h] is some sort of weak fricative but still a fricative. The tradition in generative phonology is to class [h] as a glide.

2.1 Sound Change Rules in Urdu

Bilabial assimilation	n → [+bilabial]/___[+bilabial, -nasl]
Velar assimilation	n → [+velar]/___ [+stop, +velar, -nasal]
Nasal assimilation	V [+long] → [+nasal]/___[+nasal]
/h/ deletion and vowel lengthening	V [+short]h → [long]#
/h/ deletion	h → ∅ / V[long]___#

Some sound change rules of Urdu represented in conventional linear for-mat. Capitalized ‘V’ indicates a vowel and ‘.’ indicates a syllable boundary (Hussain, S. 2006). This article investigates whether or not this rule is applicable in Urdu Language in Lahore and people in Lahore omit *h* sound at word final position or not.

3. Methodology

3.1 Population

Ten speakers were selected who were the students of graduation and post-graduation level of 23 to 40 years of age. Five of the speakers were taken from Lahore whose L1

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was Urdu (regular Urdu speakers) and five from outside Lahore whose L1 was Pashto and Punjabi (non-regular Urdu speakers).

3.2 Procedure

Recordings were taken through PRAAT v.4.1 (Software for Acoustic Analysis of Speech) from the speakers. Four Urdu words i.e. [tənxwəh] (wages), [wəɖəh] (promise), [xəmə gəh] (living place under tent) were used with [h] at word final position, and [vəɖjəh] (reason) two words were selected with [h] word medially i.e. [kəhə] (said) and [ɖ əlhə] (groom). These words were used in carrier sentences spoken in connected speech. (The Urdu passage is given in appendix.)

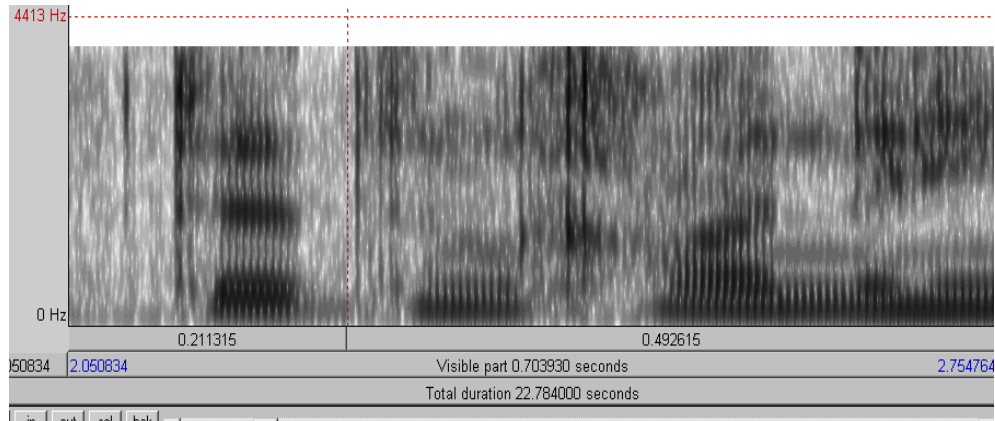
The speakers were asked to read these sentences. So the total number of words was 60 and the words were analyzed using PRAAT. In the process of analysis, SPSS-16 (Statistical Package of Social Sciences) was used for data entry, deriving averages and for standard deviation.

4. Results

The average duration of [h] of regular Urdu speakers is longer than that of the average duration of non-regular Urdu speakers as shown in the tables 1.1 and 1.2 below.

4.1 Speakers with Urdu L1: Table 1.1

Segment	Avg. Duration (ms)	SD (ms)
[tənxwəh]	171.4	70.47
[wəɖəh]	157	49.70
[xəmə gəh]	117	24.07
[vəɖjəh]	106.2	13.6

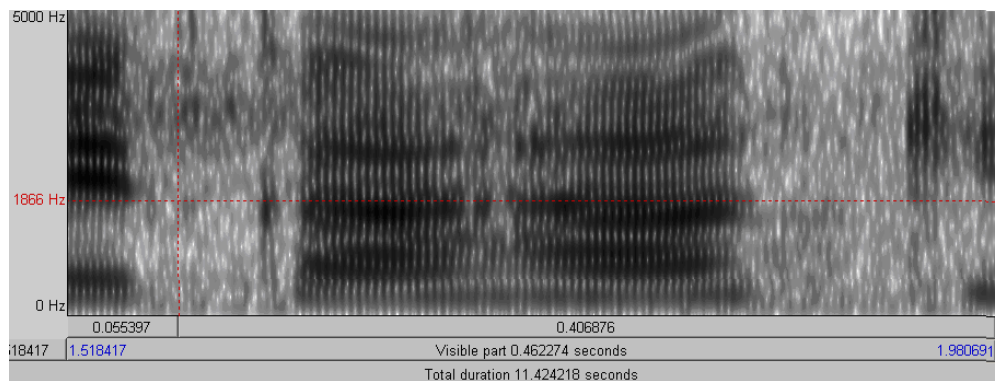


Spectrogram of Urdu word [tənxwah] (wages)

4.2 Speakers with Pashto and Punjabi L1

Table 1.2

Segment	Avg. Duration (ms)	SD (ms)
[tənxwah]	96.8	14.61
[waɖ _l ah]	86	20.07
[xæma gah]	105.6	6.54
[vəɖjəh]	100.6	47.71



Spectrogram of Urdu word [kəha] (said)

The results of table 1.1 show that the average duration of [a] sound is longer of the Urdu L1 speakers as compared to the average duration of [a] sound of the Punjabi and Pashto L1 speakers while deleting the [h] sound at word final position.

4.3 Speakers with Urdu L1

Table 1.3

Segment	Avg. Duration (ms)	SD (ms)
[kəha]	67	14.46
[d̪ʊlha]	96	36.74

4.4 Speakers with Pashto and Punjabi L1

Table 1.4

Segment	Avg. Duration (ms)	SD (ms)
[kəha]	58	10.45
[d̪ʊlha]	55	17.79

Likewise, the duration of [h] sound is also measured at word medial position of both regular and non-regular speakers. The results in table 1.3 show that the average duration of [h] sound of Urdu L1 speakers is longer even at word medial position i.e. [kəha] 67ms and [d̪ʊlha] 96ms than the duration of [h] of non-regular Urdu speakers as shown in table 1.4.

5. Discussion

The results of the data of both regular and non-regular Urdu speakers show that neither of the speakers is producing [h] sound at word final position and [h] is deleted, making the vowel i.e. [a] a longer vowel which is in accordance with the rule i.e.

/h/ deletion rule in Urdu $h \rightarrow \emptyset / V[\text{long}] __\#$

The duration of [h] sound at word medial position is longer of Urdu L1 speakers than the duration of [h] sound of the Urdu L2 speakers (with L1 Punjabi and Pashto) when [a] sound precedes [h] sound. The standard deviation of the words with /h/ at final position of the Urdu L1 speakers is more than that of Urdu L2 speakers. Same is the case with the words with [h] at medial position.

6. Conclusion

To conclude, after the acoustic analysis of glottal fricative [h] in Urdu at word medial and final position, it was observed that there is a difference of production of the words spoken by the regular and non-regular Urdu speakers. Regular Urdu speakers take longer duration while producing [h] sound both at word medial and word final position than that of non-regular Urdu speakers. Finally, the duration of [h] sound at word medial position of regular Urdu speakers is longer than the duration of [h] sound of non-regular Urdu speakers.

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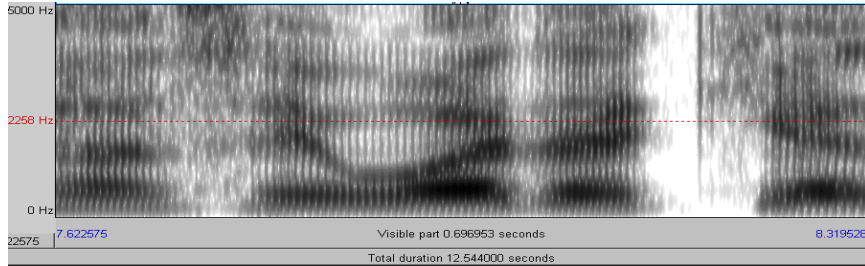
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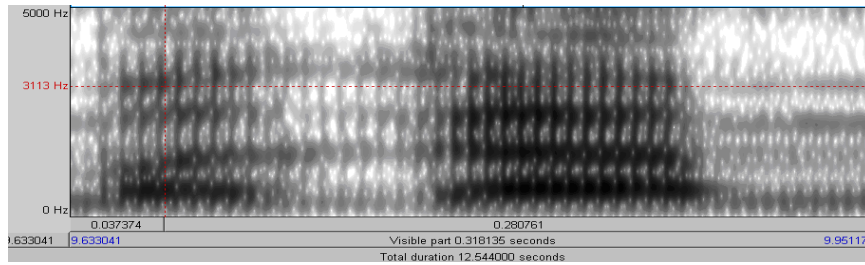
APPENDICES

Appendix I

Spectrograms of [waɖah] & [xæma gah] of Regular And Non-Regular Urdu Speakers Non-Regular Urdu Speakers

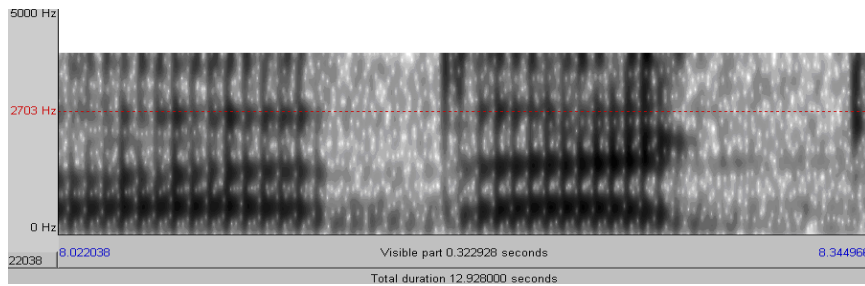


[waɖah]

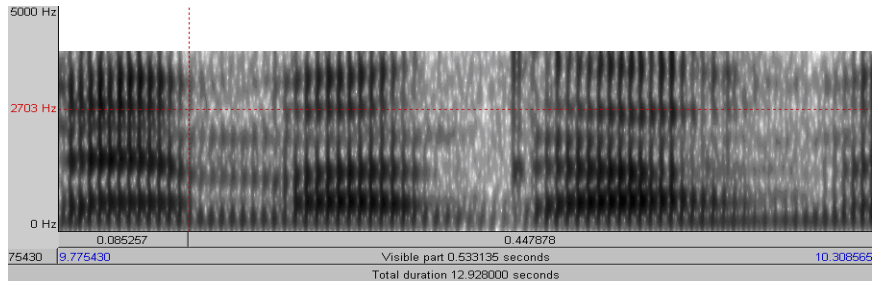


[xæma gah]

Regular Urdu Speakers



[waɖah]



[xæma gah]

Appendix II

میرے دوست نے مجھے کہا کہ مجھے اس ہفتے تنخواہ نہیں ملی اور اسکی وجہ مجھے معلوم

نہیں۔ میں نے تو دلہا سے وعدہ کیا تھا۔ اب مجھے خیمہ گاہ میں رکنا پڑے گا۔

Original text of the speech used for recording of words like [tənxwah], [wad,ah], [xæma
gah], [vədjəh] etc.

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Azhar Pervaiz, M.Phil., Ph.D. Scholar and Tahir Ghafoor Malik, M.Phil., Ph.D. Scholar
An Acoustic Analysis of Glottal Fricative [h] at Word Medial and Final Positions: A
Comparison Between Regular and Non-regular Urdu Speakers of Pakistan

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Teaching Writing Skills
K. R. Vijaya, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

Abstract

Students associate writing with pain and have been given little opportunity to engage in enjoyable writing. This paper advocates methods which can be used for improving the writing ability of the students. After discussing the difficulties in writing, it explains what type of teacher invention and assessment can be useful. It also provides recommendations to stimulate writing skill among students.

Writing as a Skill

Writing is a skill like driving, swimming, typing or even preparing a good meal. Teachers always command our students to write and grow frustrated when some of our students hesitate, stare outside the window, dawdle over blank paper, give up and say “I can’t write”, while other students are able to write and give the paper at the end of the period.

The reason for this sort of variation in responses may be that few teachers have ever allowed adequate time for prewriting and have taught the students the strategies for effective writing. One needs to understand the complicated and intertwining processes of perception and conception through language.

First of all, one should not have the attitude that writing is a natural gift. The result of this attitude is that students do not do their best when they write or even hardly try at all. However, some students when they are not successful may have to keep their critical thinking skills to themselves.

For these students, specific instruction is essential. Both students and faculty assume that writing skills need not be taught at all at the undergraduate level. One must not have the tendency to observe the skill of writing from a distance and should get on the field where one can understand the pressures under which the writer operates.

What Really Makes One to Write?

The negative force that the students feel is the resistance to writing. It is because of their poor knowledge in the subject matter. Good writers will be overflowing with information about the subject that they write. They will be interested in specific details, insights, anecdotes, connecting thoughts and references. Sometimes, the subject itself seems to take hold of the writers' experience, turning everything that happens to writer into material. The more a writer knows about the subject, the more he tries to write about the subject. Sometimes, most of all, it is the approaching deadline for submission. Some writers may not be able to finish their work before the deadline. One needs to reconsider one's attitude towards those who delay writing.

Writing as a Language Exercise

Writing is only used as a means of making the students to practice a particular language exercise. Students usually take down the new vocabulary; write answers for reading comprehension and do note-making, developing the hints. It is really doubtful that it teaches them real writing.

There are also certain tasks like essay writing and letter writing where the students can express themselves using their own words. But only a few students are skillful in indulging in such activities. Others really struggle. If the objective of the students is to pass the exam which does not include any extended writing, they never know the value of writing effectively that is a part of long-term education process.

Writing, a Painful Process!

Writing is hard work for everyone. It is really painful to indulge in active thinking that clear writing demands. It is scary to sit down with a blank sheet of paper and know after an hour that one does not have anything worth keeping in the paper. Even T.S. Eliot says that every word is a struggle for a writer. It is upsetting to find how an apparently simple subject often turns out to be complicated, but writing is not an automatic process. It is a skill that can be acquired through practice, hard work and determination.

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Some Steps for Writing Clearly

Writing clearly takes more effort than speaking clearly and it can be a more threatening experience. Written word is permanent and allows the reader some time to analyse and assess. In contrast to written words, spoken words once recorded have short lives and mistakes made while speaking are more readily overlooked and forgotten.

E-mail can be very casual among friends. But formal electronic correspondence requires the same rules of writing. The reasons are both personal and professional.

Getting an idea across requires writing that is well organised, specific and appropriate for comprehending. Clarity in writing also demands editing and revising so that the intention of the writing is clear. Otherwise, unclear references or incomplete details can make the reader to fill in the blanks and distort the meaning.

Sentence errors, incorrectly linked ideas and careless punctuations may project an uncaring attitude and raise questions in the readers' mind regarding the capability of the writer. The extensive use of Jargon and technical language in writing not aimed at a specialised audience marks a writer a pompous and the writing as inapproachable. From the dreaded college application essay to job application letters and business communications, the words on the paper inform others what and how the writer thinks.

Involving the Students in Teaching

The most important factor in writing exercises is that students need to be personally involved in order to make the learning experience of lasting value. Encouraging student participation in the exercise, while at the same time, refining and expanding writing skills, requires a certain pragmatic approach. The teacher should be clear about what skills he/she is trying to develop.

Next, the teacher needs to decide on the methods which can facilitate learning of the target area. Once the target skill areas and means of implementation are defined, the teacher can then proceed to focus on what topic can be used to ensure student participation. By reasonably implementing these objectives, the teacher can expect enthusiasm, dexterity and successful learning from students.

Choosing Target Areas and Thereafter

Choosing the target area depends on many factors; what level are the students? What should the students be able to produce at the end of this exercise? (a well written letter, basic communication of ideas, etc.) What is the focus of the exercise? (Expression of ideas, conveying a message, tense usage, creative writing).

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Once these factors are clear in the mind of the teacher, the teacher can begin to focus on how to involve the students in the activity thus promoting a positive, long-term learning experience.

Having decided on the target area, the teacher can focus on the means to achieve this type of learning. As for assessment, the teacher must choose the most appropriate manner for the specified writing area. If formal business letter English is required, it is of no use to employ a free expression type of exercise. Likewise, when working on descriptive language writing skills, a formal letter is equally out of place.

To Involve the Students

The teacher can consider how to involve the students by considering what type of activities are interesting to the students; will they need any of the skills pragmatically? What has been effective in the past? The best way to approach this is by brainstorming sessions and feedback from students. By choosing a topic that involves the students, the teacher can provide a context within which effective learning on the target area can be selected.

On Error Correction

Finally, the question of which type of correction will facilitate a useful writing exercise is of utmost importance. There are some criteria for the evaluation of text book writing activities the teacher has to ensure.

1. Do the students find the activity motivating?
2. Is this kind of writing relevant to their needs?

However, if the task is more general (for example, developing informal letter writing skills), may be the best approach would be to have the students work in groups thereby learning from each other. Most importantly, by choosing the correct means of teaching, the teacher can encourage rather discourage students.

Importance of Having an Outline

A scratch outline can be helpful for writing a good essay. It is a good follow up to the prewriting techniques: brainstorming, free writing and making a list. For example for the topic, Problems of being a sportsperson and student in the college, the following can be the outline.

1. Little time for studying

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- a. not reading textbooks
- b. not able to complete the assignments
- c. poor performance in the tests
- 2. little time for sports practice
 - a. not able to practice regularly
 - b. no physical fitness
 - c. underperformance
- 3. No time for personal pleasures
 - a. not able to watch T.V programme
 - b. not able to meet friends
 - c. sleeping late

Such outlining is a skill that will develop the ability of the students to think in a clear and logical manner.

There are several models of outlining available to us, and have been in practice for many years. A topic outline focuses on the aspects (content) that a student must cover while preparing his or her draft. Students think and put down in writing the broad contents of a topic as they may have already gathered some information. Then they can sequence the content in such a way there is a free and unhindered flow from one point to another. On the other hand, a sentence outline, similar to what is presented above, presents the actual content by listing, in an ordered manner, the significant sentences of a paragraph. Sentence outline may be very helpful for our students, as this model demands writing sentences one by one in terms of the content sequence.

Process Writing

Process writing can also be used to encourage learners to start working on their writing skills from a beginning level. By removing students' fears about producing sub-par written work, the teachers can encourage them to improve their writing abilities. Only mistakes made in grammar and vocabulary should be corrected. Students may strive to come to terms with writing in English by writing in English. Allowing for mistakes and refining based on materials covered in class - instead of "perfect English" - will help students incorporate skills at a natural pace, and improve their understanding of materials discussed in class in a natural progression.

Some Practical Recommendations

Here is a list of recommendations to improve the writing ability of students.

1. Students should be provided with regular time slot to think, write, read rework ideas and rewrite.
2. The students can be encouraged to write about topics that matter to them the most.

3. When the students do not know what to write about a particular subject, free writing sometimes helps. The teacher can let them not worry about spelling, punctuation, committing mistakes or finding exact words. The students may write without stopping.
4. Students can be given time and opportunities to get feed back on their writing. Constructive comments from the teacher and their peers provide helpful feedback.
5. The mechanics of writing including spelling errors and grammar rules are more meaningful if taught on the spot.
6. The students can be exposed to good written models.
7. The students can be provided with a wide variety of reading materials on which they can be asked to reflect upon.
8. The students can be encouraged to write in all subject areas. That kind of writing gives students a means to move from observation to reaction.
9. The students can be encouraged to fine tune their work so that it is as close to their final draft.
10. The teachers can be enthusiastic, well prepared and organised when teaching writing skills.

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**Self-esteem of Institutionalised Elderly Women in Coimbatore
- A Case History**

Kavitha. V. R. S., M.A., M.Phil.

Abstract

Good health comprises of both physical and psychological health. Psychological health issues include depression, anxiety, sexuality and body image, as well as alcoholism and abuse.

Pivotal to all of these issues is self esteem which is defined as how one estimates about oneself. Lacuna in good self esteem either male or female, one is easily susceptible to cycle of negative and destructive behaviours and would never achieve good health or sense of well-being.

It is well established that women begin to exhibit lower self esteem than men, right from the adolescence. The prime role of women is to provide care for their children and family members. Unfortunately, it is withdrawn when they become elderly and become more dependent, considered to be unimportant and are forced to resort to old age homes. The loss of independence, reversal of roles and the transition in standard of living influence the level of self-esteem to a greater extent.

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Self-esteem of Institutionalised Elderly Women in Coimbatore - A Case History

A descriptive study design was framed and thirty women were interviewed and the case histories were also collected to throw light on the same. The results of the study denote that major proportion of the elderly women's level of self esteem is high by resorting in old age homes due to the ill treatment and seclusion in the home, denial of nutritious food and the treatment for sickness and also given less significance for their ideas, suggestions etc.

What is Self-esteem?

The word esteem comes from a Latin word that means to estimate. Self esteem is how one estimates about one self. Self esteem is not a trait one is born with, rather, it is learned, first through family relationships parents especially, but also brothers and sisters, and others extended family, including aunts and uncles and even baby sitters.

These initial family experiences tend to be the foundation of each individual's sense of self worth, and the beginnings of self esteem. Self esteem is dynamic that tends to change over time, influenced by encounters with people outside the family, in addition to the continuing influence of family members either in a positive or negative way. The negative or repetitive negative experiences in multiple arenas would erode self esteem.

It is established that women begin to exhibit lower self esteem than men right from the adolescence due to the general existence of patriarchal society like in India, which would affect women's self esteem.

Varieties of Self-esteem

High self esteem in a woman focuses on positive and self assured and when fails at something, would try it again, determine to succeed or try another path. A woman with high self esteem is not self critical, but can effectively and appropriately deal with anger; lacks need to manipulate others to reach the desire. Moreover, those women are realistic about oneself and comfort, capable enough to engage in numerous types of quality relationships.

By contrast a woman with low self esteem is unable to focus on her positive attributes, but rather is stuck dwelling as all the ways. She loses ability to deal effectively, depends on others emotionally and after makes poor choices in friendships and partnerships, women with low self esteem are more likely to become trapped in dysfunctional relationships.

Longevity – Problems of Old Women

In most parts of the world, women live, on average, longer than men. The rise in the number of those who are non-productive and who do not generate any hope immediately

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raises an economic and social problem. Apart from food and shelter, the old need care and medicines. They also crave love and tender care. They would like to interact, be heard, be visible, and would like a bit of space of their own and have a constructive and creative role to play in society.

Above all these, the problems of old women, single, divorced and widowed, are from different from those of old men. Since then, the prime role of women is to provide care for their children and family members. Vice versa, they become more and more dependent, considered to be unimportant and are forced to resort to old age homes.

The loss of independence, reversal roles and the transition in standard of living influence the level of self esteem to a greater extent.

The level of self esteem tends to be dynamic with the changes in the life style and roles they perform. Hence, self esteem arises in each person with irrespective of age, caste, and race and brings aware of their own self esteem.

Seniors' Perception

According to the perceptions of the seniors, they cease to be useful to any one in any way and this increases their feeling of worthlessness. Their pillars of existence and the ideas of life in general begin to disappear. They go from being heroines to their kids to being dependent on their kids, a fact unacceptable for them. How ever, men can easily adapt to new life situations, but for women loss is always painful, be it a loss of a spouse, of mobility or health or independence. In such situations, it is no wonder that the senior citizens suffer from low self esteem.

Abhishek (2009) suggested that the self esteem of elderly people at old age home results in the feelings of worthlessness and lowers self esteem. With out good self esteem, whether male or female, one is susceptible to a cycle of negative and destructive behaviors, and will never achieve good health or sense of well being. It is well established that girls begin to show lower self esteem than boys do, beginning in adolescence (Michelle Beller, 2009).

Methodology

Objectives

- i. To identify the level of self esteem of the elderly women
- ii. To find out the reasons to stay at old age homes.

To reach the above cited objectives a structured interview schedule consisted of two parts namely, socio-demographic profile and self-esteem.

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Part-I focused on socio-demographic profile and part-II was two point scale constructed by Nalini Rao (1989) to measure self esteem which consisted of four dimensions namely, general self, social peer, Family care and lie. This scale was found to be reliable and valid at 0.99.To check the feasibility of the research, the subjects were interviewed at old age homes. When the study was found to feasible, the data collected were included for the main study.

The data were collected from the elderly women whose age was above 60 years residing in a three old age homes located at the vadavalli panchayat of Coimbatore district. Since the elderly women were less in number compared to men at each old age home and some of the women were chronically bed ridden to cope up with the investigator. Hence the sample size itself became limited to thirty. With the adoption of sample survey method the data were collected from the elderly women.

Findings

The study findings denote that majority of the respondents belong to the age of 61-90 years, and most of them are widows with 3-5 children. A high proportion of elderly women pay to the homes on monthly basis and a very few only at the time of admission. Less than one half of the respondents' period of stay is 13 years, while, rest of their period is below 8 years.

With regard to the health status, 83.3% of the subjects are physically good in health whereas, 16.66% of them suffer from diseases like diabetes, hypertension, gastritis and arthritis. A major proportion of the elderly women's self esteem is at high level and a very small proportion of them have moderate self esteem, while, none of the old women's self esteem is low. Case histories were also collected in order to find out the reason that forced them to resort to old age homes.

TABLE.NO.	VARIABLES AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1	60-80	21	70%
	81& above	9	30%
	TOTAL	30	100%
2	MARITAL STATUS		
	Single	4	13.33%
	Married	2	6.66%
	Widow	18	60.00%

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	Divorce / Separated	6	20.00%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%
3	NO.OF CHILDREN		
	Unmarried	4	13.33%
	1-2	8	26.66%
	3-5	10	33.33%
	6& above	8	26.68%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%
4	NATUREOF STAY		
	Paid	24	80.00%
	Unpaid	6	20.00%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%

TABLE.NO.	VARIABLES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
5	PERIODOF STAY Below 1 year	8	26.66%
	1-3 years	13	43.33%
	3-5 years	6	20.00%
	5 years & above	3	10.00%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%

6	HEALTH STATUS		
	YES	25	83.33%
	NO	5	16.66%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%
7	LEVEL OF SELF ESTEEM		
	Low below 35	0	0
	Moderate 36-70	2	6.66%
	High 71-100	28	93.33%
	TOTAL	30	100.00%

Case History-1

An old woman, aged 75, belong to a upper class Iyer family, whose husband is a retired state government employee, is the focus here. Both were blessed with only son and led a very comfortable life at their native place Vellore. Son was highly qualified and occupied a prominent position as a software engineer with handsome pay scale, got married and became a father to a female child and has been settled at Tiruppur. He took his privilege to visit Vellore purposively, delivered some kind words to their parents, but the strategy was not understood by the elderly couples. Days passed by, the spouse felt to be bored sitting all alone for each day to spend their leisure time and, additionally, they were subjected to depend frequently on their son for their medical assistance.

Fortunately they found a day to reveal their inconvenience to their son for which he suggested- “Sell this house and join us at Tiruppur, I am there for you”. These trusted words forced them to follow their son’s decision and executed the same. They reached Tiruppur with a healthy hope to join son’s family and to spend their leisure time with their grand daughter. But these hopes fell in despair, because they were accommodated at Tiruppur for a month, and confidential steps were taken to gather details about available old age homes and they never permitted their grand child to play with their lovable grand parents.

Meanwhile, the parents realized that their beloved son's suggestions were not true. Their son grabbed maximum revenue from them and forced them to resort to an old age home with a promise that it is only "A temporary decision". Since the victim and her spouse belong to a prestigious heritage family, their "tongue was highly tied" to express their situation to their kith and kin. No other go, due to their physical weakness and dependency, nodded their head to get settled in an old age home, where they were provided with accommodation at the top floor as they were the only couples at home.

Father digested all his son's strategies and easily adapted to a new life. Whereas the mother was highly embarrassed, showed lack of interest to eat food and experienced and had trouble with her sleep. In addition, she could find no companionship on the top floor of the old age home. Moreover, her health did not allow her to descend to the ground floor to have any interaction with anybody. Their high hopes and trust on their son gradually faded away after six months of life in the old age home.

The son visited them sometimes and demanded huge sums of money. As money was not paid, the son did not visit them often and their mobility even for significant medical treatment was further curtailed. The mother was affected badly by all these: temporary decision became a permanent one.

Case History-2

An elderly Hindu widow around 90 years of age residing for the past 10 years in the old age home revealed that she had 4 sons and 2 daughters whose native place was Coimbatore, had quite good properties which were not distributed to their children till the death of her spouse. After the death of her husband she was cared for by her last son as per their tradition. During this period her son transferred all the properties to his name and also hid the same fact from his mother. Other sons came to know of it, and a tragic chapter opened in her life. Her first three sons quarreled with her and never believed her words that she was not aware of what had been done by her last son. Each day she had to face some quarrel relating to property. The first three sons blamed her for not giving the property to them also, and the last one blamed her to be the cause of all the problems in the family.

The elderly woman was ill-treated with denial of good food, and was subjected to constant verbal abuse, etc., but still she was in good physical and mental health to manage all those. None of her first three sons were in a position to welcome her to their home. Simultaneously, the chances to stay in fourth son's home also became critical.

The old woman revealed her problems to her two daughters, who were married to husbands with lower incomes and were not in a position to take their mother along with them and were also not in a position to raise objections to their brother who forged the documents relating to properties.

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The daughter-in-law told her that they would go for town to relax themselves from the family tension. The elderly widow was so happy and appreciated her daughter-in-law's initiative to give her some peace and happiness. They went shopping and she purchased many eatables and other things needed for day to day life for her mother-in-law. The elderly woman felt so tired and said that they could leave and go home. The daughter-in-law did not accept her suggestion but took her to some other place walking for a long distance. The daughter-in-law did not respond to her questions, etc. as to where they were heading to. They reached the old age home and the old woman was left there with the things bought for and was given 10 rupees for her personal expenses. The daughter-in-law also promised that after solving the problem in the family they would take her back to home but this never happened.

Case History-3

An elderly Hindu woman of 65 years of age had no children and was separated from her husband a long time ago, just after 3 years of her marriage due to misunderstanding between the spouses. She worked in a textile industry to earn her livelihood and stayed along with her mother. After the death of her mother she became unable to lead a solitary life and went to stay with her only sister.

In her house she had a peaceful life of her own as she had with her mother. The sister's two sons got married and after some period of time the sister became a widow and later died. The victim was not in a position to stay along with their nephew as this was a prestige issue. She, with the help of her friends, found out an old age home for her normal living and at present is not in good health to earn her life. She has spent one and a half years highly dependent for her physical and psychological needs on the old age home and is convinced that being a separated woman it was good that she found shelter in an old age home.

Discussion

The findings showed that the self-esteem of elderly women is high despite of their stay in old age homes, which concurs with the study findings of Ron (2007). Ron stated that the self esteem of elderly women in receiving services in a day-care center was higher than that of elderly women receiving the same services at home. This is plausible due to the provision of services in a social context which gives elderly people proper attention. Their interaction to get along with peers increases their self-esteem, self-evaluation and sense of mastery.

Conclusion

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In rapidly urbanizing India, families today are faced with the problem of space crunch. Often living in cramped houses, there is little or no space for a bed ridden old person. Finances are stretched, health care is expensive. Where both husband and wife work, full-time health care workers have to be hired to take care of sick persons, putting pressure on space as also finances. If the sick person is also mentally affected, further complications arise.

The plight of elderly in the middle class families is no different from inter-generational conflicts over care, space, time and finances. It is, therefore, a safe bet that millions of families face, or are likely to face, the challenge of inter-generational demands on scarce family resources. In a no-win competition between generations, the old are fated to lose and suffer discrimination, alienation, neglect and marginalization. The large number of old age destitutes and the rising number of old age homes is testimony to the growing acuteness of the problem.

Implications

The elderly women should be given some psychological support and steps can be taken to form an elderly community.

Despite of the patriarchal society, the daughters must be encouraged to take care of their elderly parents.

Steps can be taken to counsel the family members to care for the elderly or to rejoin them to their family.

A law can be enacted to punish adult children who do not perform their responsibility to care for their parents.

Steps can be taken to modify the government's health care, economic and welfare policies.

Steps can be taken for the working population in unorganized sectors who receive no pension after retirement.

Recommendations

A comparative study can be carried out between male and female senior citizens.

A similar study can be replicated in a larger sample.

A comparative study can be conducted between institutionalised and non-institutionalised elderly women.

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**An Assessment on Women's Work Participation
and Economic Equality**

J. Sheela, B. Sc., M.A., Ph.D.
M. Jayamala, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.

Beginning of Agriculture and Women

In the history of human civilization, the advent of agriculture was the beginning of the settled life. With the settlement of erstwhile nomadic people, the relationship of family, kinship and community crystallized with time between different sexes and age groups. Thus the beginning of agriculture had a special significance in defining and determining the status, role and contribution of women thorough out the world. Since then women play a different role in their home, viz., activities as wives in their personal lives, as mother responsible for the development of their children and as homemakers in charge of the operation of their homes. In addition, women also played a pivotal role in agriculture and livestock management. In modern agriculture too, women continued to share a number of farm operations with men.

Tradition and Roles of Women

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An Assessment on Women's Work Participation and Economic Equality

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Traditionally, women had no definite role in majority of family affairs system. The situation not seems to be changing considerably in spite of the changing scenario in the society. The patriarchal system of the family life, which has been in voyage since time immemorial, has downgraded women. The work of women at home includes collection of firewood, bringing water from long distances and helping in the family or in the fields and third type of work is not recognized because they are not paid for it. The work burden on women is extreme.

Srivatsava (1985) reported that women irrespective of land, status of the family provide 14 to 18 hours of productivity physical labour in different chores. The energy spent by them in performing these is more than it is physically feasible for them to spend particularly in a below subsistence level of living. Indian women work for 69 hours a week, while men work 59 hours per week. It is estimated that the average hours of unpaid work done by women outside their home ranges from 6.1 to 7.5 per day, with some women working for 10 hours and more.

Women in Current Work Force

For equal participation of women in the work force, Ministry of Labour had set up a Women Labour Cell in 1975 with the intention to focus the condition of working women and bring improvement in them. Yet the work participation of women in both organized and unorganized sector is yet to improve.

The gradual realization of self resulted with women's movements for the enlistment of women. Men and women are indispensable part of humankind. They are supplementary and complementary to each other; neither can stand-alone. The development of community, society or nation in any field, be it social, economic, political or spiritual, depends on both men and women. Women are the mothers of race and provide the liaison between generations.

Constitutional Rights of Women in India

Indian Constitutional Rights define the position of women in a State. It defines the political, social and economic ways of living and the status of women. The Constitution of India not only guarantees equality to women but also empowers the State to adopt positive measures in favour of women for neutralising the socio-economic, educational and political disadvantages. Rights to equality are a fundamental Right.

But in practical, it could be seen that the society from the very beginning, being very backward in thinking regarding the freedom of women. Nehru once said "To awaken people it is the women who must be awakened, once she is on move the family moves, the village moves, the nation moves" (Mishra, 1993).

The role of women has to be visualized as described in the words of Rabindranath Tagore in *Chitra*. “The heroine speaks to Arjuna, I am no goddess to be worshipped, not yet the subject of common pity to be brushed aside, keep me by your side, in the path of danger and daring, if you allow me to share the great duties of your life, then you will know my true self”. Today women are educated, employed and economically independent with decision making power.

Undervaluing Women’s Contributions

The workingwomen of today represent a new dimension of Indian womanhood. They are women dedicated to their job and challenge the changing society as well as committed to their dear and near one’s. The prosperity and growth of nation depends on the status and development of women as they not only constitute nearly half of the population, but also influence growth of remaining half of the population. The crucial role of women in household activities, agriculture and allied occupations however has been underestimated and undervalued. Women take up different works to eke out their livelihood and the majority of the rural women depend on agriculture, which is the major occupation in unorganized sector in India.

The Real Issue

The real issue therefore, is more serious despite their enrolment in agricultural work in such a long magnitude, they have not been actively involved in the main stream of development and there is hardly any appreciation and recognition of their extensive contribution. By and large, they have remained as “invisible workers”.

Women work participation in rural areas even today remains confined to household activities and women are considered as a helping hand to their men folk in agricultural and allied activities. Many of these labourers are landless, homeless and belong to the socially depressed class of the society.

Hence, this paper focuses on the work participation of the women in various sectors and across the States. The study is based on State wise data of main and marginal workers from Census of India 1991 and 2001, which constitute the inference.

Discussion

Women’s rights are nationally accepted and constitutionally guaranteed to uplift them through socio-economic and educational opportunities to satisfy the constitutional goal of equality and social justice. Their development over the past decades is being pursued through positive discrimination in their favour in education, employment, governance and other areas. But women’s rights, though granted in theory gradually during 21st century, their implementation became slow and dilatory. The socio-economic, political and legal

changes have brought changes in the status of women in the country. Many of these changes are both in a positive as well as in a negative direction such as a rapid increase in female life expectancy and literacy, participation at grass root level democracy and increasing awareness about rights and access to productive resources. Moreover, women bear a highly disproportionate share of the overall burden of work.

The Plight of Working Women

The plight of working women is worse than that of men as they have to perform double and sometimes triple duty, namely, full-time duty at work place, looking after children and performing the household course-cooking, cleaning, washing and sometimes shopping also. Work related inequalities result from the fact that for the same nature of workwomen are paid less as compared to their male counterparts (Dreze, 1997).

Women in Workforce: Some Statistics

Women form an important part of the Indian Workforce. According to the information provided by the Registrar General of India, the work participation rate for women was 25.7 per cent in 2001. This is an improvement from 22.3 per cent in 1991 i.e., a slight increase of up to 3.4 per cent. The two important aspects that require mention are that while there has been an improvement in the work participation rate of women, it continues to be substantially less in comparison to the work participation rate of men.

Among the rural population in the year 1991 female work participation is only 26.8 to that of male. In the year 2001 the rate has increased to 31.0. Moreover, there seem to be a rural urban divide in so far as work participation of women is concerned. Among the urban population the female work participation rate was 9.2 in the year 1991, which shows the slight increase to the rate of 11.6 during the year 2001. In rural areas women are mainly cultivators and agricultural labourers. In the urban areas 80 per cent of the women workers are in the unorganized sectors such as household, industry, petty traders and services, and building and constructions.

Table 1. Work Participation Rate by Sex – 1991 and 2001 Census

Place of Residence	1991		2001	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Rural	26.8	52.6	31.0	52.4
Urban	9.2	48.9	11.6	50.9
Total	22.3	51.6	25.7	51.9

Source: Census of India, 1991 & 2001

Application of Relevant Laws and Implications of Statistics

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According to an estimate by the National Commission on Self Employed Women (1988); of the total women workers about 94 per cent are in Informal or Unorganised sector whereas just 6 per cent of them are in organized /formal sector.

Only the women in the organized sector can be considered to be protected by the labour laws while the women in the unorganized sector are marked with high incidence of casual labour doing intermittent jobs at extremely low wages, total lack of job security and social benefits, long hours of work, unsatisfactory working and living conditions. Thus the hours spend by the women in economic activities is devoted to unpaid work that largely remains unrecognized.

According to the Census report it is observed that the Percentage distribution of women in organized and public sector (Table 2) are comparatively low both in the year 1991 and 2001. In the year 1991 the percentage distribution of female work participation in the organized sector is only 14.2, which has increased to 17.1 per cent during the year 2001. A similar result is observed in the public sector too. Thus across the census period there seems to be no absolute change in women's work participation between the organized and public sector.

Table 2. Percentage Distribution of Women in Organized and Public Sectors

Sector	1991		2001	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Organized Sector	14.2	85.8	17.1	82.9
Public Sector	12.6	87.4	14.4	85.6

Source: Census of India, 1991 & 2001

Male versus Female Workers

In India according to 2001 census, working population (Table 3) of both male and female is 40.2 million persons. Female workers comprise only 1.2. million persons. The state wise data on female main workers inferred that Maharashtra shows the highest female main workers (1.03 million) followed by Andhra Pradesh (95.8 Lakh), Tamil Nadu (74.5 Lakh) and Karnataka (54.6 Lakh). Kerala shows the least participation of female main workers of 17.7 lakh. In case of female marginal workers the state wise distribution shows that Uttar Pradesh has the highest participation of female marginal workers (80.0 Lakh) followed by Madhya Pradesh (45.5 Lakh) and Rajasthan (44.7 Lakh).

Table 3: Distribution of Population by Working Category

	Main Worker	Marginal Worker	Total Worker
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State	Persons	Females	Persons	Females	Persons	Females
India	313004983	72857170	89229741	54363078	402234724	127220248
Rajasthan	17436888	4595570	6329767	4475283	23766655	9070853
Uttar Pradesh	39337649	4999389	14646175	8002877	53983824	13002266
Bihar	21052875	3541857	6921731	3949746	27974606	7491603
West Bengal	23023583	3528612	6458107	3565034	29481690	7093646
Madhya Pradesh	19102572	5046293	6690947	4552858	25793519	9599151
Maharashtra	34748053	10331758	6425298	3989498	41173351	14321256
Andhra Pradesh	29040873	9585381	5852986	3646286	34893859	13231667
Karnataka	19364759	5467914	4170032	2831522	23534791	8299436
Kerala	8236973	1776280	2046914	741962	10283887	2518242
Tamil Nadu	23757783	7454473	4120499	2323412	27878282	9777885

Source: Primary Census Abstract: Census of India 2001

As noted in the case of main workers in Kerala, female marginal workers show the least participation of 7.4 lakh persons. Among the southern states Kerala is the least populated state has the lowest working population (10.2 million). Hence both the main and marginal female workers are low when compared to that of other states. Moreover it is generalized that the working age group of male members in Kerala are migrated to foreign countries, which influences the high standard of living of women and thus reflected in the female work participation.

Distribution of Workers

Distribution of main workers to population by State is provided in Table 4. This infers that in India the female main workers have declined from 18.07 in 1991 census to 16.77 in 2001 census. Though the same result was observed across the states, compare to northern parts of the country southern region evidenced the participation of more female main workers. Main workers are classified by industrial category are provided in Table 5.

Table 4: Distribution of Main Workers to Population by State

State	1991 Census		2001 Census	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
India	51.29	18.07	44.51	16.77
Rajasthan	48.91	15.59	43.70	19.99
Uttar Pradesh	49.38	9.14	38.19	7.26
Bihar	48.12	11.26	40.17	9.75
West Bengal	51.00	8.83	46.00	8.87

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Madhya Pradesh	52.98	27.21	45.33	21.78
Maharashtra	51.67	36.30	47.78	33.57
Andhra Pradesh	57.31	37.28	51.93	30.87
Karnataka	55.20	27.71	52.30	24.66
Kerala	44.21	13.42	40.86	10.78
Tamil Nadu	57.16	32.89	51.79	30.08

Source: Census of India 2001

Table 5: Main Workers Classified by Industrial Category, India 2001 Census

Industrial Category	Female Workers
Agriculture, Hunting & Forests, Fishing	3617948
Manufacturing and repairs	4381139
Mining and Quarrying	262928
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	67451
Construction	1064350
Wholesale and Retail Trade	1857666
Hotels and Restaurants	215187
Transport, Storage and Communication	368279
Financial Intermediation, Real estate, Renting and Business Activities	755870
	7763064
Public Administration & Defence, Social Security, Health & Social Work, Social and Personal Service Activities, Private Households with Employed Persons	

Source: Census of India 2001

Generally, the prevalence of female work participation in public sector is common against other private sectors. It is true in the case of female workers according to 2001 census. The data shows that majority (77.6 lakh) of the female workers are engaged in public administration, defence, education, security, health and social work and private household with employed persons, closely followed by 43.8 lakh female workers engaged in manufacturing and repair works.

Though India is a agrarian society the participation of female in agriculture, hunting and forestry, fishing are evidenced a record in third place (36.2 lakhs). Involvement of women in wholesale and retail trade and construction is higher to that of the male dominated industrial categories like financial intermediation, real estate, renting and business (7.6 lakhs), transport, storage and communication (3.7 lakh), hotel and

restaurant (2.2 lakh) and hazardous categories like electricity, gas and water supply (0.6 lakh).

Though the government and service sectors encourage women to participate in all endeavors, it is evidence that their work participation is considerably low to that of male members on the whole. Moreover, among the working categorical areas the female work participation is comparatively low in risk-oriented sectors and more in service sectors.

Conclusion

India generally is a patriarchal society where male members head most of the works. Female-headed works are comparatively low. Women act as workers but do not take part in decision-making authority. This is evidenced that in India though there is an improvement in standard of work participation from the year 1991 to 2001 still their participation in main works are comparatively low and found reluctant change. Women are still far behind from the reach of empowerment. They are still in inhibition to take part in hazardous occupation like electricity, transport, water etc., where male domination is more.

Women's empowerment is not a concern of women alone it is on part of both men and women. This process involves sincerity, earnestness, capacity and capability of the human. Women's empowerment is a complex issue having many societal ramifications, women alone cannot solve it, men also should understand the need for women's empowerment and support their cause.

Women should learn to articulate their needs and rights in clear terms and work for them without at the same time upsetting the domestic harmony and family life. They have to work tirelessly in their march towards their empowerment and a life with an identity of their own.

The attitude towards women needs to be changed to make women part and parcel of the family as well as society on the whole by carving out an important place for them. Men have built an impression that women are inferior and they cannot face emerging situations. This attitude has to be changed through positive approach of equality in their rights. Thus they need to be motivated/encouraged in work participation level. The work participation of women to gainful economic equality has to be raised by enhancing their rights. The goal of the development could be achieved only by the overall improvement in the quality of women.

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Economics of Crime : A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Convicted Female and Male Criminality In Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu

S. Santhanalakshmi, Ph.D.

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE
AVINASHILINGAM UNIVERSITY FOR WOMEN
COIMBATORE – 641 043**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS
FEBRUARY 2008**

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S. Santhanalakshmi, Ph.D.

*Economics of Crime: A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of
Convicted Female and Male Criminality In Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu*

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**” submitted to the Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, for the award of the **DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS** is a record of original research work done by **S.SANTHANALAKSHMI**, M.Sc., M.Phil., during the period of her study in the Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, under my supervision and guidance and the thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree / Diploma / Associateship / Fellowship or similar title to any candidate of any university.


Signature of the Guide

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Economics of Crime: A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Convicted Female and Male Criminality In Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the matter embodied in this thesis entitled **“ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU”** submitted to the Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore - 43, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the **DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS** is a record of original research work done by me in the Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, under the supervision and guidance of **Dr.A.Rajeswari**, M.A., Dip.Ed., M.Phil., Ph.D. (Avinashilingam), Professor and Head, Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore – 43 and that it has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree / Diploma / Associateship / Fellowship or similar title to any candidature of any other university or institute.



Signature of the Candidate



Signature of the Guide

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CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

Man cannot remain an Island by himself because man by nature is social and his interests are best protected under the membership of the society. Although most people prefer to follow the policy of 'live and let live', there are certain deviants who, for some reasons or other, deviate from the normal path (as designed under the socio-legal norms) and associate themselves with illicit activities. This obviously imposes an obligation on the part of the Government which is the guardian of the society to hold such deviants in proper check, with a view to maintain the normalcy in the society.

The problem of crime is commonly visualized through various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, criminology, philosophy and economics. The thinking process on crime from economic angles began with Gary S. Becker's work in 1968. The concept of crime has been changing through the ages with the changing dynamic social policies. What is crime and how it affects the very existence, upkeep and welfare of the society is a matter of great concern for the society.

The theories based on socio-economic conditions on crime attempt to locate the cause of crime in socio-economic environments faced by law-violators. Various theories are available in literature regarding crime. The theories which are oriented towards socio-economic conception of criminalization includes economic or punishment and reward theory, sociogenic theories, anomie theories, family background theories and cultural conflict or labeling theories.

The economic approach isolates the importance of probabilities and magnitude of reward and punishment and indicates how they can be treated

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formally. Micro and macro level study of criminal behavior indicates the way in which socio-economic phenomena can influence the observed pattern of offending in a rational individual (for micro models) and across different areas (for macro models). Of these various theories, the present study emphasizes on "Economic or punishment and reward theory". This theory developed by George (1958) stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables him / her to choose courses of action freely and also the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. Decision making in this sense is to act rationally, that is to choose courses of actions which maximize one's expected utility (within the resource constraints that is his own, perception and information based on practice, circumstances and past penalty). A potential offender behaves as if he has a view about and is responsive to both the probabilities of detection and the possible punishment as well as the range of opportunities available to him for both illegal and legal activities. It is these perceptions which determine his behavior. Some persons become criminals not because their basic motivation differs from that of other persons but because their benefits and costs differ. The best way of controlling crime is a judicious application of pleasure and pain principle.

In foreign countries this subject has been analysed and given importance for quite sometime, whereas in India the contribution to this field has been quite disappointing. Empirical estimates of the impact of micro and macro economic variables in crime have been generally consistent across the studies of Freeman and Richard (1995) ; Weinberg and Mustard (1997) ; Machin and Meghir (2000) ; Donohue and Levitt (2001) ; Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001) ; Keith Ihlanfeldt (2002) ; Steven (2004) ; Ansari (2005) ; Coomaraswamy (2005) and Hutchinson and Yates (2007).

According to Saviz (1967), before an act can legally be defined as a crime, atleast theoretically, five conditions must be met. An act must take

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place that involves harm inflicted on someone by the actor. An act must be legally prohibited at the time it is committed, the perpetrator must have criminal intent when he engages in the act, there must be a casual relationship between the voluntary misconduct and the harm that results from it, and there must be some legally prescribed punishment for any one convicted of the act.

Crime in India has increased about twice as fast as population growth. In India, though the incidents of total violent crime has gone down from about 2,08,736 in 2004 to about 2,02,640 in 2005 in terms of rate per 1,00,000 of the population, homicide stood at a constant 3.8 per cent during the past 10 years. Murder alone accounted for 58.6 per cent of the total convicts under IPC crimes.

The highest percentage (28.3 per cent) of under trials was charged with murder. The National Crime Records Bureau states that Tamil Nadu ranks 10th in the percentage share of all India crime rate and ranks 9th in the rate of murder during the year 2005. It also states that one case of murder is registered every 16 minutes and one case of attempt to commit murder every 19 minutes in India (National Crime Records Bureau, 2005).

A prison is a place where the prisoners convicted by the court of law are detained for a period of their punishment. In India the total number of jails amount to 1,140 of which 107 are central jails, 268 are district jails, 678 are subjails, 14 are women jails and 73 are other jails. In Tamil Nadu, there are seven categories of prisons namely central prisons, special prisons for women, sub-jails, special sub-jails, borstal school, farm prison and open air prison (Tamil Nadu Prisons Department, www.Google.com).

The number of prisons in Tamil Nadu is given in Table – I.

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TABLE – I
PRISONS AS ON 2006 – 2007 IN TAMIL NADU

Category of prisons	Number
Central prisons	9
Special prison for women	3
Borstal school	1
Special sub-jails (Men : 3 and Women : 3)	6
District jails	6
Sub-jails (Men : 98 and Women : 9)	107
Open air prison	2

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

Table – II indicates the population accommodated in prisons in Tamil Nadu.

TABLE – II
POPULATION AS ON 06.01.2008 IN TAMIL NADU PRISONS

Category	Female	Male	Total
Authorised accommodation	1791	18385	20176
Actual prison population	1173	15818	16991
Category wise population			
Convicts	191	6268	6459
Under trials	54	2196	2250
Remand prisoners	899	6611	7510

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

To control the criminal activities and to maintain the prisons and to arrange for rehabilitation measures the government has to undertake

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expenditure on prisoners. The Table – III shows the budget details for 2007-2008 in Tamil Nadu.

TABLE – III
BUDGET DETAILS FOR 2007-2008 (IN RUPEES)

Budget estimate	9637.30 lakhs
Expenditure on prisoner 2006 – 2007 (in Rupees)	
Diet	1060.42 lakhs
Medicines	39.21 lakhs
Transport charges	0.47 lakhs
Over head and other charges	4846.40 lakhs
Industries (2006 – 2007) (in Rupees)	
Number of prisoners employed	1071
Value of prison made articles produced during the year	267.14 lakhs
Wages paid to the prisoners during the year	241.63 lakhs

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

Crime is increasing at a rapid rate, and along with it are changing fast the concepts regarding it. Till now most of the researchers on crime have confined themselves to males, because crime has been considered a male behavior. In India, statistical reports on crime have always revealed that men involve in greater offences than women who are considered to be more religious-minded than their male counterparts and less prone to unethical and immoral activities.

Today, however, with the upsurge of women offenders in the country, the former notion is proved wrong. Women, like men suffer from jealousy, enmity and hatred which motivates them to commit crimes. They are fast indulging in all sorts of crimes with the aid of the latest technique. A few years back they were hardly heard of committing such daring offences as dacoity,

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smuggling or train-robbery, but these incidence are not uncommon these days. The changing social norms and values as well as the impact of other cultural patterns culminating in the complexity of life are largely responsible for this change.

Very few studies have been made on Indian women criminals to highlight their offences and the criminal tendencies present in them. The increase in the criminal rate among women becomes conspicuously alarming in the light of the fact that a large number of such incidents go unreported. Many factors may be responsible for this short-reporting, the chief among which are : the police may show carelessness or relaxation in recording the commission of crimes by women ; the family members and neighbours may often try to conceal the crimes of women in order to save prestige. Besides, male victims suffering at the hands of women offenders such as prostitutes or pickpockets may attempt to suppress facts to avoid publicity.

In India crimes committed by women are rapidly increasing, and the types of the offences are probably similar to those committed by women abroad. However, the predominant factors which are found to determine criminal tendencies in Indian women are economic insecurity, social deprivation and emotional disturbances, besides family and domestic quarrels ; Destitution may also significantly affect the criminality of women.

Most of the problems of society are the problems of women. By and large men have a tendency to escape the problems whereas women are subjected to the problems. Thus illiteracy, dowry, crime, poverty etc. are more problematic to women than to men. If a crime is committed by an individual, the wife, the mother and the daughter of the offender are affected psychologically more than the criminal himself.

'Economic offences' are the manifestations of criminal acts done either solely or in an organised manner with or without associates or gangs with an intent to earn wealth through illegal means, and carry out illicit activities violating not only the laws of land, but also other regulatory, statutory provisions governing the economic activities of the government and its administration.

The economic offences cause significant damage to the general economy of the country and adversely affect the growth and development of nation. Some of the major impacts that may be caused by the economic offences are :

1. Increase in inflationary pressure.
2. Uneven distribution of resources
3. Marginalization of tax base
4. Generation of abundant black money
5. Creation of parallel economy
6. Development works / effects undermined.
7. Country's economic equilibrium at stake
8. Breeding ground of corruption
9. Illicit business and public office corruption thriving and affecting normal business activities.
10. Resources of financial institutions and commercial institutions diverted and distorted.
11. Weakened morale and commitment of the citizens.
12. The poor / weak continuing to be poorer and at risk.

The underworld is the sector of the polity and the economy which seems to have prospered over the years not only in India but also elsewhere in the third world and the advanced countries. It is based on ill-gotten money,

muscle power and a superstructure of its own. In most countries it has close links with political and bureaucratic powers and these are used in the most unscrupulous channels to serve their own ends. The underworld has enormous economic and political clout.

While the underworld is thus active in socio-political affairs of a country and very frequently engages itself in political subversion, espionage and even riots and terrorism, its principal arsenal comprises what are generally known as economic offences.

Economic offences, are a group of activities loosely so called to indicate a number of eco-commercial manoeuvres for profiteering on the sly, covering such disparate concepts and phenomena as smuggling, tax-evasion, money laundering and corruption.

The entire phenomenon of such activities has been referred to as the parallel economy, as distinct from the official economy. The parallel economy which covers the entire gamut of the subterranean world of economic offences and crimes, very frequently and over large areas intermingles with the official world every day.

Economic offences as a phenomenon in India, and for that matter in many other countries, particularly in the emerging third world, have lately become an integral part of the economy. Actually, the multifarious economic offences, perpetuated as manifestations of the sprawling subterranean economy, have highly deleterious repercussions on the official economy. In fact, the former, runs not only parallel but also largely counter to the latter. Such misdemeanours have not only become extensive but also highly pestering to the man in the street. These no more are crafts practised by a few persons or groups of persons, but have already become a definite part of industrial entrepreneurship and business dealing in which a multitude of

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persons participate with uncanny finance and organisation and unlimited finance and endowment.

In conjunction with smuggling, money laundering, tax-evasion and black market as extremely potent socio-economic forces, the parallel economy based on a barrage of economic offences has today become a major hurdle bedeviling the polity and the economy. The linkage of crime and espionage makes the parallel economy strong and powerful. The strategies that it deploys, the currency and the produce that it controls form a definite branch of applied economics today.

The extent to which the parallel economy, in conjunction with black money, smuggling and money laundering-forces ancillary but exceedingly potent have ramified into the economic activities of countries is to be analysed.

There is little research or interest to study economics of crime but there are two important factors that provide relevance to the study. The important factors are :

- (i) The early neglect and inadequate interpretation of economics of crime in research and in practice
- (ii) The notion of the increased incidence of economic crimes, with the attendant need to understand and curtail it, which form the background of the study of the investigator.

On this background the investigator has done a study on
“ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE

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CRIMINALITY IN A SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU” with the following objectives.

OBJECTIVES

- (i) To analyse the extent of various forms of crimes under Indian penal code in Tamil Nadu during the period 1990-2005.
- (ii) To analyse the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money-laundering, cultural object theft) in India during the period 1990-2005.
- (iii) To assess the socio-economic conditions of female and male convicted prisoners from the selected prisons for the period 2005-2006 in Tamil Nadu.
- (iv) To examine the factors which motivated the convicted prisoners to commit crime in the period 2005-2006.
- (v) To analyse the rehabilitation measures undertaken by the Government for the convicted prisoners in Tamil Nadu.

The following null hypothesis are tested as follows :

- (a) The potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.
- (b) There is no association between the age group of the convicted prisoners and their nature of offence.
- (c) Socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.
- (d) Duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**”, is discussed under the following headings :

- 2.1 Studies Relating to Factors Influencing Criminal Activities
- 2.2 Studies Relating to Economics of Crime
- 2.3 Studies Relating to Socio-Economic Conditions of Female and Male Criminality
- 2.4 Studies Relating to Economic Offences
- 2.5 Other Related Studies

2.1 STUDIES RELATING TO FACTORS INFLUENCING CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES

The factors activating the criminogenic process are various in number with respect to their nature and magnitude. These factors can be grouped in two classes as,

- 1. Incentives to offend
- 2. Socio-demographic factors

2.1.1 Incentives to Offend

Smigel (1965) and Ehrlich (1967) find there are significant negative effects of crime of probability of conviction and severity of punishment and that usually the effect of probability of conviction exceeds that of severity of

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punishment, indicating preference for risk in the region of observation. This is also supported by Carr-Hill and Stern (1979) in the study, although crime decreased as both probability of conviction and severity of punishment increased, the absolute value of the co-efficient of probability of conviction was often as such as three times or even greater than that of severity of punishment.

Walker (1968) suggests, “theft and housebreaking are facilitated by the long nights of winter ; forgery, on the other hand is an all weather pursuit” and at a more detailed level.

Phillips et al. (1972) found a strong relationship between the rising arrest rates of young males and lower rates of labour force participation (after allowing for the influence of some other variables), and advocate the creation of job opportunities as a method of combating high crime rates.

Ehrlich (1973) think that an individual’s decision to commit a crime is not qualitatively different from his decision to buy an orange or any other commodity, just as an increase in the price of an orange or other commodity under ‘Ceteris paribus’ condition, should decrease consumption of oranges so should an increase in the expected cost of committing a crime decrease the number of crimes committed. This leads to the conclusion that criminals react to incentives as fast as “the rest of us” do and deterrence occurs.

Mansfield et al. (1974) correlated the crime rates with recorded temperature, day, light, sunshine and rainfall for each month and found that the first three factors were strongly correlated with such crimes but showed negligible correlations with forgery.

The actual penalty received in court is only a part of the punishment as seen by the individual which is supported by the work of Willcock (1974)

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which showed that in a sample of adolescents, considerable weight was attached to the shame of appearance in court.

Belson (1975) found in his study of 500 adolescents that family disapproval was a much more powerful deterrent to delinquent activity than the perceived likelihood of being caught.

The works of Danziger and Wheeler (1975), Jasso (1980) provide a strong association between recorded offence rates and income inequality distribution in a society.

Cook (1977) summarizes well the conclusion that emerges from these surveys : "There is strong evidence that an increase in the threat of punishment can reduce the amount of some crimes in some circumstances, but very little evidence about the long-term effects, the typical magnitudes involved, the relevance of process, the responsiveness of juveniles to threats, or the extent to some important crime categories (such as murder) are responsive to changes in the threat level.

Long and Witte (1981) have surveyed both the aggregate and individual studies that seek to determine if there is a relationship between criminal activity and legitimate opportunity. Their survey concludes that the evidence only very weakly supports the simple economic model (i.e., that higher income and lower unemployment rates are associated with lower levels of criminal activity). This conclusion is consistent with the result as reported in Schmidt and Witte (1984).

A study by Hofer and Tham (1987) found no significant effect on the theft rate from the variation in imprisonment rate for change in the risk of detection.

2.1.2 Socio-Demographic Factors

There are several socio-demographic factors which may be important in influencing the individual's propensity to offend such as : prevalence of ethnic minorities, sex ratio, types of neighbourhood, concentration of working class people, proportion of young people in total population, number of broken homes, lack of parental care and amount of overcrowding in houses (Sharma, 1999).

2.2 STUDIES RELATING TO ECONOMICS OF CRIME

Becker's (1968) exposition of an economic model of crime assumed that a potential offender acts as an expected-utility maximiser who allocates his time between competing activities, both legal and illegal, with uncertain consequences. A rational agent will thus engage in some illegal activity as long as the marginal return from crime exceeds the marginal return from legal occupation by more than the expected value of the penalty. The theoretical foundations of the link between economic deprivation and crime is based upon the notion that deprivation creates economically motivated offenders who are compelled to commit crime in order to satisfy basic needs. A major problem with these theories is that they rely on the troubling supposition that macro-level relationships reflect the sum of a series of individual-level social-psychological processes.

Darold Maxwell (1970) conducted a study on "Crime, Youth and Labour Market". This research utilizes a model permitting alternative partitioning of the population. Classified by labour market status which links individual subsets to property crime. The study concentrates on eighteen-to-nineteen-year-old white and non white males. When distinguishing between those who

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are not working and all the others having significantly higher crime rates. Between labour force and in the labour force, the latter group appears the most criminal. To conclude that economic opportunity is a key factor in generating youthful crime and that, properly weighed, participation rates may be a better measure of economic opportunity than simply unemployment rates.

Mays' (1970) study on "Crime and its Treatment", analysed that changes in the standard of living are felt by all classes of the community, but they are felt keenly by the classess nearest the poverty line. The kinds of crime which the various strata of society are most likely to commit, and their amount, are by no means the same. One of the most fruitful approaches to elucidating the influence of the economic factor would be to measure the economic conditions of the various classes or groups of society.

1. Crime is a predominantly urban phenomenon and in comparatively small, static and homogenous rural areas crime rates are low.
2. Criminal statistics suggest that crime is closely associated with lower-class neighbourhoods. It has a strong subcultural basis and is a reaction on the part of depressed groups against social and economic frustrations imposed on them by more successful and more powerful classes.
3. Crime is part and parcel of a special way of life which has grown up in lower class and economically poor neighbourhoods and is intimately associated with the positive cultural values of such localities. Homogeneous slum neighbourhoods encourage juvenile gangs and so perpetuate a delinquent tradition independently of middle class culture and institutions.

4. Crime is unevenly distributed even amongst lower status groups, all of whom might be expected to react against social and economic frustrations with equal force. Differential delinquency rates are to be found amongst people living in the same kind of locality and in the same broad occupational class.
5. The ecological distribution of high crime rates amongst people living in older and poorer areas might partly arise, it seems reasonable to suppose, because of the experience of discrimination arising from the resident's lowly occupational and economic roles.

Following these studies, and particularly in 1970, an attempt was made to formulate a more comprehensive model of the decision to engage in unlawful activities and to test it against some available empirical evidence by Stigler (1970). The analysis goes beyond that of Becker and other previous contributions in several ways. First, it incorporates the concept of opportunities both punishment and reward – costs and gains from legitimate and illegitimate pursuits – rather than the cost of punishment alone, the attempts to identify and test the effect of their empirical counterparts. Specifically, it predicts and verifies empirically a systematic association between the rate of specific crimes on the one hand, and income inequality as well as law enforcement activity on the other. Second, it links formally the theory of participation in illegitimate activities with the general theory of occupational choices by presenting the offender's decision problem as one of an optimal allocation of resources under uncertainty to competing activities both inside and outside the market sector, rather than as a choice between mutually exclusive activities. The model developed can be used to predict not only the direction, but also the relative magnitude of the response of specific offenders to changes in various observable opportunities. In addition, the analysis distinguishes between the deterrent and preventive effects of

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punishment by imprisonment on the rate of crime and enables an empirical implementation, the researcher analyse the interaction between offense and defense - between crime and collective law – enforcement activity through police and courts – and employ a simultaneous equation econometric model in estimating supply – of – offenses functions and a production function of law – enforcement activity. The results of empirical investigation are then used to provide some tentative estimates of the effectiveness of law enforcement in deterring crime and reducing the social loss from crime.

Leon and Morvin (1971) who had studied “The Criminal in Society”, analysed that the more complex the economic structure of society becomes, the harder it is to measure the rhythm of its economic situation, of its economic cycles, of depression or prosperity, of the real economic changes which may occur within different classes and groups and in the various parts of the country. Thus to measure the economic situation of a relatively simple agricultural community is a feasible proposition. To do the same of our society is not. The task continuous to baffle the imagination and knowledge of our most expert economists. To adopt economic indices, which must be multiple and diversified, to serve as a sensitive and relevant barometer of economic change, and then to bring them into some kind of relationship with the trends in crime, is an undertaking even more formidable.

Allingham and Sandmo (1972) and Kolm (1973) had analysed in “Income for tax evasion – A theoretical Analysis”, the individual who is confronted with the problem of deciding what proportion of income not to report to the tax authorities. At variance with Becker’s model where the income of crime is a parameter, here the income of criminal activity is a function of the proportion of the exogenous income not reported.

Both the probability and the severity of punishment are found to deter crime for a person who does not want to take risk. For risk lovers, the effect of the severity of punishment is uncertain. An increase in the severity will have similar effects for illegal activities as a wage decrease in labor supply models will have for legal activities.

Two effects obtained are : substitution effect and an income effect. The substitution effect of a more severe punishment will consist in less crime. The sign of the income effect is positive, and the total effect on crime of a change in severity becomes indeterminate. The effects of changes in gains from crime and in exogenous income depend on whether there is decrease or increase in the risk aversion an individual will allocate a larger proportion of his income to tax cheating the higher his exogenous income and the higher the gains from crime.

Ehrlich (1973), in his study concluded that the assumption of a fixed leisure time obviously requires that the time allocated to legal and illegal activity changes in opposite direction (and with equal amounts), but the effects of changes in some of the parameters are also different from the previous model. Whereas the effects on crime of changes in exogenous income and gains to crime are the same as above, the effect of changes in the severity of sanctions become inconclusive without further restrictions on some parameters.

Ehrlich (1973) conducted a study on “Participation in Illegitimate Activities : A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation”, where a theory of participation in illegitimate activities is developed and tested against data on variations in index crimes across states in the United States. Theorems and behavioural implications are derived using the state preference approach to behaviour under uncertainty. The investigation deals directly with the

interaction between offence and defense crime and collective law enforcement. It indicates the existence of a deterrent effect of law enforcement activity on all crimes and a strong positive correlation between income inequality and crimes against property. The empirical results also provide some tentative estimates of the effectiveness of law enforcement in reducing crime and the resulting social losses.

Baldry and Jonathan (1974) in his analysis, "Positive Economic Analysis of Criminal Behaviour", introduces the assumption that a person has to choose between zero or a given number of hours of legal work per week. Transforming the Ehrlich model into a nonlinear programming model, obtains unambiguous predictions of the effects on crime of changes in sanctions and economic variables.

Block and Heineke (1975) conducted a study on "Labour Theoretic Analysis of the Criminal Choice", in which they had studied a model where a vector of attributes of the penalty, interpreted as the length of sentence, is included in the utility function. In this model one obtains considerably more ambiguous results than from the previous models. Unless one is willing to make strong assumptions about individual preferences, it is not possible to decide whether criminal activity will decrease or increase as a result of changes in the probability of punishment, of changes in returns to legal and to illegal activity, and of changes in exogenous income. They have shown that changes in legal and illegal remuneration lead to changes in illegal activity that are composed of stochastic counter parts of the substitution and income effects of traditional supply and demand theory. But the similarity is not close. Even if one assumes that illegal activity is inferior (that is, that such activity is decreasing with income), it is not possible to sign the relevant terms. Increasing the penalty, for instance, will not deter crime.

Votey and Phillips (1976) study focuses on four of the seven FBI index crimes for which an economic motive would be expected namely larceny, burglary, robbery and auto theft. This study makes two contributions ; one is the formulation of a model which permits alternative partitions of the population, classified on the basis of labour market activity, showing how each of the subsets is linked to youthful crime.

The second contribution, which follows directly from the model, is the proportion that labour – force participation may be a crucial element in the explanation of youthful crime. Our econometric analysis demonstrates that the model explains variations in crime rates for youth. In the process it reveals the importance of including participation rates as explanatory variables. Finally, the results are consistent with and extend Fleisher’s earlier work.

The finding concludes that changing labour-market opportunities are sufficient to explain increasing crime rates for youth. To test this hypothesis, this study constructed a model which includes all of the population subsets, classified by labour-market activity and colour, for a particular population age group. This formulation of the model has explanatory and predictive power but is plagued by collinearity between the independent variables, particularly between the colours. For purposes of analysis, two alternative formulations of the model are tested. Classifying the population as not working (unemployed plus not in the labour force) and others, and as in the labour force or not in the labour force and others. The estimates of the not-working formulation indicate that an increase in the unemployment rate and / or a decrease in the participation rate for either colour will increase the crime rate. Collinearity between the explanatory variables by colour is such that one can only obtain significant estimates of the impact of changing labour-market conditions for both colours jointly using either the white or the non-white variables.

The labour-force / not in the labour force formulation has greater explanatory power than the not working formulation, demonstrating the importance of participation rates relative to unemployment rates in explaining crime rates. This point is reinforced when one observes that during the middle and latter sixties, crime rates rose while unemployment rates declined. It is the decline in the participation rate which provides an explanation for the rise in crime during this period. The findings indicate that a successful attack on rising crime rates must consider the employment problems facing young people.

Heineke (1978) had analysed "Economic Models of Criminal Behaviour" where he studied somewhat different types of models where the individual allocates his time (and not his wealth or income) between legal and illegal activities. The individual's income is assumed to be equal to the sum of three elements : exogenous income, the monetary and monetized benefits and costs of illegal activities. (Monetization implicitly takes place if an individual, having to choose between actions involving non-monetary gains and losses, acts rationally according to certain axioms). If convicted, this income is reduced by a factor that represents the monetary and monetized costs of crime. Here, some of the individuals may choose to specialize in either legal or illegal activities, whereas others may choose a mix of the two.

A marginal increase in the probability or the severity of sanctions will affect the optimal mix of activities, whereas such an increase may be insufficient to have an effect on individuals who have specialized in one of the two activities. Assuming leisure time not fixed, the same comparative statistics results as for the portfolio choice model are obtained. The reason for this similarity is the monetization of psychic benefits, and the high degree of independence between the types of activities.

Carr-Hill and Stern (1979) estimated “Crime, The Police and Criminal Statistics” and emphasize that the economic and criminological approaches should be seen as complementary rather than conflicting. They maintain that the economic approach isolates the importance of the probabilities and magnitude of reward and punishment, and show how they can be treated formally. The criminological approach takes these for granted and indicates how different groups might view and react to less probabilities, rewards and punishments.

These two approaches are related to the issue of opportunities of hitting valuable and low-risk targets. Those who more or less explicitly dismiss the theory of rational choice often focus on the motivation of individuals, assuming that behaviour is determined by individual characteristics and by the norms of the groups to which they belong.

Witte (1980) had studied a simplified version of their several sanctions model where time spent in legal income-generating activity (work), time spent in illegal income-generating activity (theft and so on), time spent in illegal consumption activities (drug use, assaultive activities and so on) are separate arguments in the individual’s utility function. Here too, similar inconclusive results are obtained. When benefits and costs of legal activities are risky, even more ambiguous results are obtained.

The standard assumption that people maximize expected utility is appealing because it follows from the Von Neumann – Morgenstern axioms of individual behaviour that many scholars regard as reasonable, or at least as a fruitful hypothesis. However, many laboratory experiments have shown that people do not always choose in accordance with these axioms, in particular Lattimore et al. (1992), who included burglaries in a set of risky prospects to

choose between. As a result, various alternative forms of preference functions that are non-linear in the probabilities have been proposed.

Hellman (1980) tries to explain criminal behaviour in economic terms. The standard model begins with an assumption about behaviour. All it means is that in making choices the criminal takes account of expected gains and costs from various actions, where gains and costs include all kinds of psychic possibilities, including a taste or distaste for crime based on moral considerations. There are several categories of gains and costs to be considered. It is necessary to keep in mind that the importance of various ingredients in the criminal choice, as well as the applicability of the assumption of rationality, varies from one individual to another and from one crime to another. The kinds of gains that can be derived from a criminal act vary, depending on the type of crime and the individual criminal. The most obvious form of gain is a monetary one. Stealing property yields monetary gains; murdering for insurance money also yields monetary gains. For some crimes, the exact value of the monetary gain is known. For example, the potential thief may know that there is \$ 50,000 in the safe. In other cases, only the expected value or average monetary value to be gained is known. As an example, on the average a thief may expect to take \$ 400 worth of property in a burglary in Boston's back bay area.

The second category of gain is psychic gains. This is a very general category and includes lots of possibilities – the thrill of danger or value of risk, a feeling of “getting back at the system”, peer approval, a sense of accomplishment, and so forth. The importance of psychic gains depends on the crime. The psychic gains derived from a rape are different from those derived from a burglary. Psychic gains also depend on the individual committing the crime. The psychic gains to a juvenile from auto theft are likely to be larger than those to an adult professional.

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Ehrlich (1981) in his U.A. suggest that opportunity approach the number of offences is determined by the interaction of potential offenders, who are seeking the best targets and potential victims, who by measures of private protection seek to be less attractive or vulnerable to crime.

Studies of tax cheating based on individual data by Clotfelter (1983), Slemrod (1985), Witte and Woodbury (1985) and Klepper et al. (1989) conclude that both the probability and severity of punishment have negative effects upon crime.

The portfolio model of time allocation with non-fixed leisure time has been somewhat extended by Schmidt and Witte (1984) had analysed “Economic Analysis of Crime and Justice : Theory, Method and Applications” and introduced four possible criminal justice states, each taking place with a certain probability. In these models the effects of changes in sanctions, and in gains and losses of crime become more ambiguous than in the previous models. Especially, and somewhat surprisingly, illegal activity will decrease with increasing unemployment under the standard assumption of decreasing absolute risk aversion. The explanation is that unemployment implies a lower income, and therefore a higher risk aversion, and then again a lower expected utility of crime under risk neutrality time allocated to illegal activity is not affected by change in the expected employment rate.

A good survey of the main contributions to the development of the economic models of crime is found in Schmidt and Witte (1984). The gains and losses included in the economic models of criminal behaviour are usually meant to represent all kinds of benefits and costs that have an effect on the people’s decisions.

The kinds of gains obtained from a criminal act vary, depending on the type of crime and the individual criminal : some are monetary, obtained from

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theft, robbery, insurance fraud and so on. Others are psychic, such as the thrill of danger, peer approval, retribution (bank robbery), sense of accomplishment, or 'pure' satisfaction of wants (rape). For some property crimes the prices obtained on markets of stolen goods are of importance.

Ferrajoli and Zolo's (1985) study on "Marxism and the Criminal Question" has analysed the question whether it is possible to trace a theoretical strategy for a criminal policy on the basis of Marx's work. The answer offered is that Marxian political and economic analysis does not supply any "general theory of criminality and that any attempt to formulate such a theory (as in Lenin, Pankaj Mishra and Gramsci) necessarily leads to authoritarian and regressive conceptions of crime and punishment. Nevertheless the authors maintain that it is possible to trace three theoretical suggestions within Marxian thought which allow of a fruitful approach to the criminal question. The first suggestion relates to the economic roots of many aspects of modern criminality ; the second regards the Christian and bourgeois "superstition of moral liberty and individual culpability ; the third suggestion deals with the lack of a guaranteed "social space as the prime root of crime". These theoretical suggestions permit clarification of the social character of penal responsibility and this character points to the need for the socialization (but not deregulation) of criminal treatment. This essay grew out of a reply to a questionnaire drawn up by *la questione criminale*, an Italian review which tries to approach the criminal question from a Marxist stand point.

According to Camoron and Samuel (1987), the economic model of crime suggests that changes in benefits and costs of committing a particular type of crime might have effects on other types of crime. If, for instance, the probability of being convicted for robbery increases, some robbers might shift to burglary. One crime is substituted for another, just as people buy more

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apples instead of oranges when the price of oranges goes up. A certain number of statistically significant effects are found. Indicating that some crimes are substitutes whereas others are alternatives.

Phillips and Votey (1987) studied on “The Influence of Police Intervention and Alternative Income Sources on the Dynamic Process of Choosing Crime as a Career”. This study demonstrates how a rational process of choice may be influenced by both deterrence forces and economic opportunities. This choice is modeled by a dynamic (Markov) process which captures self-sorting by youth among the categories of innocents, desisters and persisters in crime. A key to the results is the introduction of the perceived probability of punishment and its influence on the sorting process. The analysis shows how this force and the availability, or lack of, economic opportunities or income sources modify transition probabilities. The long-run consequences will be a larger subpopulation of individuals who have experimented with crime but subsequently revert to crime-free behaviour and a smaller subpopulation of individuals who commit a greater share of crime. Empirical evidence is based on data from the New Youth Cohort of the National Longitudinal Surveys.

Cameron and Samuel (1987) in his analysis on “A Subjectivist Perspective on the Economics of Crime”, states that superficially the theory of criminal activity is a subjective one as it derives allegedly from subjective expected – utility theory according to which decision – makers choose on the basis of the weighted average utility from success or failure in some act. The weights are the subjective probabilities that the individual attaches to outcomes. In the case of crime, the relevant outcomes are states where some punishment is experienced and the punishment true state of escape from detection. All individuals obey the same calculus and even have the same utility function, which is unchanging over the life cycle. Anyone will, in this

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model become a criminal if the price is right ; if the prices cease to be right, people will cease being criminals. Entry and exit into and out of crime are symmetrical. It is thus mistaken to talk about criminals as all individuals have criminal intentions ; whether or not they are observed exposed to perform criminal acts simply depends on the values of the relevant constraints and expectations in the time period under consideration.

According to Blumstein and Cohen (1987) a criminal learns about the techniques of crime and the available opportunities for crime from other criminals. Punishment plays a special role in this as the prison is a veritable university of crime where the criminal has an opportunity to learn from the past successes and failures of masters of the art. In this approach, entrants to crime are rational utility maximizers with time-invariant preferences ; this implies that they should purposefully get arrested in order to obtain entry to prison. Entry to crime is an act of resolving conflict in an environment where risks are not known because of the absence of repeated sampling and the substantial uniqueness of each person's entry. Mixing with more experienced criminals cements the decision to become a criminal, but it is not the by product of a deliberate decision to obtain human capital by going to prison. To conclude, a vast literature exists on the economics of crime, the great bulk of it being constructed by analogy with neoclassical general-equilibrium models of commodity – market and factor – market interdependence. The main conclusion of this book is that for the most part, the economics of crime has been methodologically misguided. From time to time in the literature, observations have been made that show recognition of this, but these have never been integrated in a meaningful way.

Women's lack of economic security forces them to put up with extreme acts of violence for the sake of survival. Inheritance laws and practices, the lack of access to land, the lack of education and the denial of mobility

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contribute to keeping women locked into situations from which there is no escape. David Levinson in an 90 country study found that the lack of economic dependence is one of the main reasons for violence against women (Levinson and David, 1989).

Gottredon and Hirschi (1990) had studied a useful introduction into “crime economies” which avoids a reliance on complex economic theory is to consider crime relationships within model markets. Such an analysis complements the interest in globalization by reflecting the dominant influence in contemporary economic restructuring in a post-communist world. In addition, it is consistent with simplistic representations of crime as profit, marked by greed and self-interest. Market models of economic development are even more appropriate to the contextual study of crime, in that many of the rational choice assumptions which underpin such market models also appear in traditional as well as more recent, explanations of crime. With choice being an essential component of market economics, and also for theories of crime as – opportunity, limitations of choice, whether through structures and institutions of crime control or market regulation, will influence the analysis of crime and economy from a market perspective.

Analysis of Bennett (1991) on “Development and Crime : A Cross-National, Time Series Analysis of Competing Models”, concludes that economic development affects crime rates. Two competing models, the Durkheimian and opportunity, claim to explain this relationship. It attempts to assess the effects of change using cross-sectional designs and variables that measure level of, rather than actual change in, economic development. This study evaluates these competing explanatory models by analyzing the effects of level of development and rate of growth on crime rates. The findings indicate that both affect the rate and type of crime in ways that refute the Durkheimian and only offer qualified support for the opportunity model. A

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pooled time series, cross sectional analysis that controls for possible spurious factors reveals interesting nonlinear effects that allow further specification of the crime and development relationship.

Marriman (1991) observed in “An Economic Analysis of the Post World War II Decline in the Japanese Crime Rate”, that since the end of world War II there has been a dramatic decrease in reported Japanese crime. Adult arrest rates have fallen steadily since the early 1950s and juvenile arrest rates have fallen since the early 1960s. An economic analysis of crime predicts that crime rates depend upon returns to crime relative to returns in legal pursuits and the certainty and severity of punishment. Regression analysis is used to test this theory using Japanese data. The empirical results indicate that the economic model does not outperform alternative models. However, the results are consistent with the hypothesis that increases in returns to legitimate work diminish both adult and juvenile crime. Unemployment affects some adult crimes but has little impact on juvenile crime. The share of the population in poverty has no significant impact on either type of crime. Increases in the certainty of punishment deters adult crime but there is little evidence that increases in either the certainty or the severity of punishment deter juvenile crime. There is weak evidence to support the hypothesis that increases in the severity of adult punishments deter crime.

Lessan (1991) had analysed “Macro-Economic Determinants of Penal Policy : Estimating the Unemployment and Inflation Influences on Imprisonment Rate Changes in the United States, 1948-1985” and studied the conflict theory that proposes that systemic economic distress generates problem populations which require control via palliative and coercive means. Most previous research has concentrated on examining the unemployment-imprisonment relationship. A review of the literature suggests that other structural conditions that generate marginalization as well as the state’s

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placative control must be considered in order to understand the linkage between economic-fiscal forces and penal policy. Using annual time-series data for the period 1948-1985, the present paper examines the extent to which changes in imprisonment rates reflect (a) governmental attempts to offset the threat of unemployment and inflation and (b) fiscal limitations placed by state expenditures on placative controls. The results indicate support for the conflict thesis, with inflation rates and annual fluctuations in black and white male unemployment rates exerting an independent positive effect upon imprisonment-rate changes, after controlling for variations in violent crime rates, prison capacity, and age structure. Possible reasons for the lack of evidence regarding trade-offs between state's placative and coercive policies are discussed and suggestions for further research are noted.

Petras and Davenport's (1991) study "Crime and the Transformation of Capitalism", investigates factors that enhance criminal behaviour. Typically, explanations for increasing crime rates discuss various familial and community attributes ; i.e., single parent households and poverty rates. When crime has increased, these attributes are cited as being responsible. As a result, the familial and community attributes suggested as causing crime are seen as intervening variables ; which are either attenuated or amplified in their ability to control criminal behaviour by the condition of the economy itself. Within this study, five urban cities (New York, Detroit, Newark, Boston, and Philadelphia) are observed over a twenty eight year period. Structural change is measured by industrial employment and crime is measured by three indices : burglary, robbery and murder. The investigation reveals a strong relationship between declining industrial employment and increasing crime rates. In addition, we find that the magnitude of this relationship is subject to variation. This variation is dependent upon whether or not the industrial decline experienced was steady or vacillating between high and low levels. These

findings support the contention that familial units and other communal organizations are merely intervening variables between large-scale structural changes and criminal behaviour. Moreover, it suggests that unless anti-crime efforts (increasing the size of the police forces, increasing state expenditures for law enforcement, etc.) are accompanied by strategies of industrial reorganization, they will have no impact on reducing crime rates.

Pyle and Deadman (1994) cite two reasons why a positive association may not always be observed : first, during a recession there is less property available to steal and second, with more people at home during the day due to unemployment, the surveillance of residential premises is increased. Thus whilst one set of theories predict that property crimes should increase in times of economic hardship (motivational theories), the other that property crimes may fall during a recession (opportunity theories) part of the problem lies with the fact that statistical “correlation” between variables does not necessarily imply a ‘casual’ relationship.

Panther (1995) attempted a study on “The Economics of Crime and Criminal Law : An Anti Thesis to Sociological Theories”, where he studied that the relationship between sociology and economics of crime has been dominated by mutual prejudice and misunderstanding. This study tries to contribute to a change of this state of affairs by showing that, on the one hand, the economics of crime does not as a method imply politically conservative policy recommendations and on the other hand, that insights of the sociology of crime may enrich the economic approach considerably. This is done via a brief survey of the economics of enforcement, the literature on the relation of income distribution and unemployment on crime, and the literature relating to sociological theories of crime and methodological individualism.

To a certain extent, the interaction which is crime and economy substantiates Reiner's fourfold framework for an analytical understanding of crime (Morrison, 1995).

- (a) As a legal category - where labels such as 'legal', 'legitimate' and 'deviant' delimit certain aspects of economic activity as being criminal ;
- (b) As a motive – whereby a particular behaviour or relationship which has been labeled criminal is the preferred economic choice ;
- (c) As an opportunity – wherein this choice is invited usually as a result of certain constrained or directed market conditions ;
- (d) As an absence of control – again into a market sense where internalized controls such as business 'ethics' or commercial 'conscience' are either compromised or re-interpreted, and where external or situational regulators make the crime choice both economically sensible and commercially profitable.

Morrison suggests that by adopting an interactive analysis, such as with crime and economy, and must not separate from meta theory of modern life and its problems – must locate the domain of our study within modern life and its problems. Essential to such a meta theory of modern life, and perhaps one of its most significant modern problems, are the material, financial and opportunistic disparities which emerge out of economic development. The position of crime in addressing such disparities itself presents problems for economic development, and may well emerge as a feature of it.

Eide and Erling (1995) has substituted the assumption of rank-dependent expected utility for the ordinary expected utility in various models of criminal behaviour.

Masih and Masih (1996) capture the essence in stating that a 'criminal activity is not something that can be caused by a single factor or two unless combined with a host of other factors, the dynamic interactions of which create an attitude as well as an environment which result in the final act of crime'.

Crime as economy emphasizes the need to view crime as a process of interconnected relationships working towards the maximization of profit. This occurs within a context of set power structures and social constraints. As with other profit 'maximisers', crime is dependent on market conditions such as competition. This is particularly so when it comes to the application of criminal enterprise within situations of opportunity. At least for crime and crime relationships (as structures and conditions of profit), crime control may be viewed both as directed against market conditions and against criminal behaviours and crime relationships.

Freeman and Richard (1996) in his analysis on "Why do so many young American men commit crimes and what might we do about it?" makes the point that there are two crude indicators of the aggregate cost of crime to society. At the one extreme, lies a society that spends nothing on crime control and the aggregate cost would then be the loss of property, lives and misery due to crime. At the other extreme, imagine a society that spends so much on crime prevention that no crimes are committed. The cost of crime would then be the opportunity cost of crime control resources like prison, police and private spending that could be spent on other activities. Clearly no societies represent that extremes. At the social optimum, society would spend first enough on crime control so that the marginal dollar spent equals the marginal reduction in social costs of crime.

There is diverse evidence in the United States that young men respond to economic incentives for crime.

- The demographics of the criminal population show that those who commit crimes consist disproportionately of persons with low legitimate earnings prospects the young, the less educated, persons with low test scores.
- Areas with higher unemployment tend to have higher crime.
- Greater inequality is associated with higher crime rates.
- Surveys show that individuals who commit crime have lower perceptions of the risks of crime, higher assessments of the relative earnings of criminal behaviour and lower legitimate hourly pay.
- Time worked by men in the lower deciles of the earnings distribution fell in the 1980s as their real earnings fell.
- Many youths combine crime and work or shift between them readily.

Steven (1996) in his work on “The effect of prison population size on crime rates : evidence from prison over crowding legislation”, offers a vivid illustration. Previous research on prisons and crime recognizes two channels through which longer prison stays and higher rates of incarceration can reduce the crime rate. One channel is incapacitation : Longer average prison stays prevent criminals from committing crimes by keeping them off the street. The other channel is deterrence : Longer and more certain prison terms raise the costs that prospective criminals must balance against the benefits of criminal activity. These channels are difficult to evaluate separately, because sentence lengths and conviction rates are correlated in complex ways with a state or a community’s aggregate crime rate. A high crime location will

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typically generate more prison-years of incarceration than a low crime one. However, this positive association between the prison population and the crime rate is not due to the incentive effects of prison terms on criminal activity. Alternatively, if some “anticrime” communities tend to be tough on criminals, work hard to solve crimes and apply longer prison terms to those who are convicted, such communities may have higher rates of imprisonment and lower crime rates than communities that are more tolerant of crime. This pattern could induce a negative correlation between prison time and crime rates that is not the result of behavioural response on the part of criminals.

To develop new insights on the casual relationships between prison time, incarceration rates and crime rates, a researcher would like to find changes in a jurisdiction’s prison population or in its typical prison term that are not attributable to any of the confounding factors described above. Steve focuses on one such source of variation : court – imposed changes in prison over crowding legislation. Steve argues that these suits are exogenous shocks to the number of criminals held in correction facilities, in part because there are long and unpredictable delays between filing and resolution of these suits. Using these stocks as instrumental variables, he finds powerful evidence that the size of the prison population has a negative effect on the level of crime in a state. His estimates suggest that a 10 per cent rise in the prison population is associated with a 4 per cent decline in violent crime and a 3 per cent decline in property crime. These estimates are several times larger than ordinary least squares estimates and they are substantially greater than conventional estimates. When these parameter values are combined with standard estimates of the costs of crime they suggest that the marginal social benefit of an additional prison-year in the 1990s was approximately \$ 50,000, compared with a marginal cost of incarceration of roughly \$ 30,000. The prison population has increased since these estimates were compiled, so the

marginal benefit today is probably lower, but estimates of this type remain a critical input to the design of public policy. This important study not only offers new estimates of the marginal effect of imprisonment on crime, but it also suggests a new research strategy for identifying key relationship in the economics of crime.

Siddique (1997) who had studied on “Bongers Theory of Economic Structure and Crime”, analysed the most notable and stimulating contribution to criminology in understanding the relation of crime and economic structure who sought to explain the phenomenon of crime on the basis of the Marxist approach. Born in a religious Dutch family, he developed an antagonism to religion as a reaction to the stuffy atmosphere at home. Without denying the influence of hereditary traits in human behaviour, he emphasized the importance of environmental factors not only in the case of criminals but also in great men. It was due to him that criminology has become a separate field of science in Holland. Through his classic book, *An Introduction to Criminology* and His Doctorate thesis, *Criminality and Economic Conditions*, Bonger had great influence on American and English minds. Bonger insisted that the criminal was a product of the capitalistic system which, instead of promoting altruistic tendencies among members of the society, created selfish tendencies. The system based on ‘capitalistic exchange’ is motivated by profit element. In such a system each member tries to get the maximum from others in return of the minimum from himself. This attitude of the capitalist according to Bonger, affects the attitudes of the proletariat as well. “The oppressed resort to means which they would otherwise scorn the basis of social feeling is reciprocity. As soon as this is trodden underfoot by the ruling class, the social sentiments of the oppressed become weak towards them”. Bonger identifies many evils in the capitalist system which are conducive to the spread of criminal behaviour. Child labour according to Bonger is entirely a capitalistic

phenomenon which is one of the salient features of juvenile delinquency. Long hours of work by workers have a brutalizing effect on them.

Finally, illiteracy among people of lower classes contributes greatly to the commission of crimes. The theory propounded by Bonger no doubt indicates one very important basis of the causes of criminality. He, however, ignores the tangle of inter-relationships among social, cultural, economic, political, religious and other set of factors. According to his theory, the phenomenon of crime should have come to an end, or at least controlled to a very great extent in socialist countries like the U.S.S.R. which is not at all the actual position. According to the study made by the Carans, juvenile delinquency was frequent in all strata of the Soviet society.

The proponents of the Marxist view, however hold that crime cannot be eliminated in socialist societies within a sort period after a new economic order has been introduced. It will need a long time for the “reminants” of criminality to disappear altogether, which can happen only after “the remnants of the bourgeois way of thinking are eventually eliminated”.

There is no doubt, however, that poverty does play an important role in delinquency and the capitalistic system may also contribute to poverty in certain sections of the society and give values which determine success in life purely in terms of money. In India, criminal statistics clearly reveal that there is a direct nexus between poverty and criminal behaviour. Out of the total of 96,144 juvenile offenders about whom data of economic set up was available, 80 per cent were from lower classes. Out of 1,62, 782 juveniles offenders about whom data of economic set up was available, 85 per cent were from lower class families.

Criminal statistics shows the representation of lower groups may not necessarily give the exact relative positions of deviations from different socio-

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economic strata because of differential police action in different situations. The changes of a crime committed by some one from the upper strata going unreported to the police or lack of action by the establishment are higher than in cases of persons from lower economic strata.

The indirect effects of poverty noted by Clifford show by focusing attention on his well known concept of “delinquency area”. These areas are characterized by physical deterioration, high proportion of population or welfare rolls and a high proportion of ethnic and racial minorities. Inadequate housing is one of the most serious problems in such delinquent areas which creates tension between members of the family living in a cramped atmosphere.

Murphy and Coleman (1997) who studied on “Economics of crimes, philosophy of law : An Introduction to jurisprudence” analysed that the economic analysis of crime usually falls in to three categories. The subject matter of the first category is the potential criminal. Here economic analysis involves applying principles of rational choice under uncertainty in order to model criminal behavior. The analysis focus on the extent to which variations in the probability of detection and severity of sanction can induce conduct in conformity to the dictates of the criminal law. The second category is concerned primarily with society’s decision regarding the distribution of resources spent on law enforcement. There is only so much money at a government’s disposal. Some of it goes to national defense, some to public health, social programs, education etc. some of it goes to law enforcement. There are two subcategories here. The first is determining the general level of appropriate expenditures on crime ; the second assumes a given expenditure and is concerned with distributing it optimally. In both the first and second categories of economic analysis of crime, some characterization of conduct as criminal is taken as given. Given a characterization of conduct as criminal, the

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first type of analysis asks how to use economic theory to induce compliance. The second form of analysis asks both-how much should be spent on enforcement generally and how should the funds be optimally distributed. In contrast, the third kind of economic analysis of crime is concerned with giving an economic analysis of the conditions of criminality. The general point is that as long as individuals are assumed to be risk neutral they are concerned only with expected outcomes. On these assumptions rational enforcement would be set equal to the least enforcement cost compatible with the constraint that no fine can exceed the average wealth of the citizen.

Shihadeh and Qusey (1998) correctly point out that the challenge for macro-social research on crime is to identify the macro-social contents that are conducive to crime rather than to reproduce individual-level analogs at a higher level. As a result they view economic deprivation as having profoundly destructive consequences on both the 'Organization and Normative Structure' of communities, consequences that are far more calamitous to the design of social life than economically motivated offenders. Studies of crime in American ghettos where joblessness and poverty are daily realities reveal that the structural impediments such as deleterious labour force conditions can generate milieu effects that are conducive to crime (Shihadeh and Ousey, 1998). In conditions of mass unemployment young males have little hope of finding work and are deprived of the primary means by which men prove their worth. Instead they seek peer support and foster an image based on violence.

Atrik (1998) had analysed in "Policy and Planning in Criminology", that during the last decade there had been an increasing recognition in a number of countries of the cost of crime. The cost could be assessed in terms of the losses and damages to individuals and society-public expenditures for crime prevention and control, and the anxiety generated in the population regarding the prevalence and increase of both violent and property crimes. Concern had

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expanded beyond the fears endangered of ordinary crimes of assault and theft to the serious effects of illegal activities of business and trading enterprises and the corruption of public officials.

It was generally accepted that the main concern in the last quarter of the twentieth century was the link between crime and quality of life and that there was a crucial link between crime and other social problems that demanded urgent attention that required the development of strategies to minimize the negative economic and social impact of crime, and the more equitable distribution of those consequences which could not be avoided. Indeed, it was contended by some that the strategies required might result in the criminal justice system itself playing only a secondary role in the prevention and control of criminality and that major emphasis would have to be placed on sensitizing and utilizing the overall economic and social complex to provide the ingredients of an effective and rational crime prevention and control policy. The cost of crime varied with the structure of crime and with different economic and social systems. There was no doubt that, in its effects, crime distorted national goals and impeded their attainment and that it prevented the optimum use of national resources.

The impact of crime was relatively well perceived at the micro level, the level of the individual or a small segment of society. The indirect costs of crime at the macro level were less clearly perceived and less easily measured, particularly in the developmental context, there was an urgent need for better information on the impact of increases in crime and changes in types of crime. To describe the indirect economic consequences of crime and crime control, one had to address oneself to questions of efficiency and equity of misallocation of scarce resources at both the national and transnational levels, of improper distribution of income both within and between nations,

and of the effect of improper resource allocation and income distribution on development and growth.

It was emphasized that, in the analysis of some of the economic consequences of crime, care should be taken to provide data that would permit estimates to be made of its impact on the development. There should therefore be some means of identifying crimes which have relevance to development. Some attempts should be made to find alternative methods of crime control in such circumstances. The solutions to those kinds of problems were conceptual in nature and called for problem related research to minimize their economic consequences while at the same time supporting the developmental process. The experience of certain countries could be used as an illustration of the substantial economic burden imposed by crime.

Witt and Witte (1998) who had analysed on “Crime imprisonment and female labour on force participation : A time series approach”, studied that rapidly growing prison population in the US has led to an upsurge of interest in discerning the impact of this costly increase on crime rates. Estimates of impact vary. The new estimates of the impact of prisons using different data, specification and estimation technique results at both higher levels of imprisonment and increases in labour force participation of women are related to significantly higher crime rate. The impact of female labour force participation is much larger than the impact of imprisonment.

Findlay (1999) had studied on “Crime Economics”, that with the emergence of ‘global economies’ and recent reflections on the capacity of modern industrialized societies to transform in the face of powerful political change, crime is receiving recognition as a significant commercial determinant. Rapid technological change and associated explosions in communications media have led not only to an erosion of national economic

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boundaries but to a globalization of market opportunities. The challenge facing global society is to advance socio-economic development in a manner which does not necessarily enhance crime while wealth and prosperity remain in the needs of the few, and capital and resource disparity is rarely alleviated through development. Crime will continue to exist within developing economies – as a consequence of such disparity, as well as a reaction to it. Disparity being a consistent feature of contemporary economies, crime and economy are thus inextricable.

Nanci and Daniel (1999) had analysed “Economic conditions, Deterrence and Juvenile Crime : Evidence from Micro Data”. The study tests the economic model of crime deterrence among juveniles using micro data drawn from the National Longitudinal study of adolescent health, wave (In-Home interview N = 16,478 U.S. high – school students). The intent was to analyse the determinants of selling drugs, and of committing assault, robbery, burglary and theft, among youth.

Turner et al. (1999) who attempted a study on “Predictors of Approval of Opening a Casino in Niagara Community” had analysed. The study reports on the findings of a survey prior to the opening of a casino in Niagara Falls, Ontario (N = 1002 adults) on approval of the casino, expectations regarding the impact of the casino, attitudes toward gambling, gambling behaviour, and demographic information. The respondents generally had a positive attitude towards gambling. The expectations of community impact clustered into three factors : negative social consequences (crimes, addiction), negative environmental consequences (litter, noise, traffic) and positive economic consequences (jobs, stores, income). The majority of respondents expected economic benefits from the casino as well as a decrease in the environmental quality of the city. Expectations regarding social problems were mixed with a majority expecting an increase in serious crimes, but only a minority expecting

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an increase in people on welfare. Covariance structure modelling revealed that a positive attitude towards gambling and expecting economic benefits were positively related to approval of the casino, and expecting social problems was negatively related to approval. Given that more than seven in ten respondents supported the opening of the casino, the expected economic benefits coupled with a generally positive attitude towards gambling, apparently outweighed concerns about problems associated with gambling.

Londono and Guerrero (1999) in their study examines the main issues concerning crime and victimization from an economic perspective, combining a review of the main results established in the literature with original research on the causes of crime and the risk factors of victimization.

The study examines the main issues concerning crime and victimization from an economic perspective, combining a review of the main results established in the literature with original research on the causes of crime and the risk factors of victimization, the literature on the causes of crime, which extends from Becker's original contribution to the recent developments that emphasize social interactions. The survey covers both theoretical results and empirical evidence, emphasizing how the interaction between the two has stimulated their development. Finally, crime data describes the main sources of information regarding crimes, victims and offenders and it discusses the relative advantages of crime statistics derived from official sources and from victim and offender surveys.

The objective of this study is to analyse the social and economic determinants of homicide and robbery rates (at a national level) in a world wide sample of countries. It starts with an empirical model in which the main determinants of violent crime rates are economic variables. This basic model includes as explanatory variables the average and distribution of national

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income, the growth rate of output, the average educational attainment of the adult population, and the lagged crime rate (to allow for inertial effects). In turn, the basic model along five dimensions : (1) deterrence factors ; (2) activities related to illegal drugs ; (3) demographic issues ; (4) income and ethnic polarization and (5) social capital.

Buvinic and Morrison (1999) had analysed the concern with crime is well justified given its pernicious effects on economic activity and, more generally, on the quality of life of people who must cope with a reduced sense of personal and proprietary security. Several approaches have been used to measure the social costs of crime, and estimates vary considerably depending on the adopted methodologies and assumptions.

The simplest way is to adopt an accounting perspective and add up all the direct and indirect losses from crime. Lack of appropriate data and disagreements on the specific assumptions about the opportunity costs of the lost resources constitute the main limitations to this type of calculation. The most common categories considered in the accounting of the costs from crime include the amounts spent on policing, courts and prisons, private lost due to murder or crime – related disabilities ; and the health-care costs associated with traumas caused by violence (when they do not result in death or disability). Crime also leads to other indirect costs that are more difficult to quantify. Complete estimates should include the discounted value of stolen property, the under investment that crime causes in the legal sector, the reduced productivity of businesses, reductions in the rates of human and social capital accumulation, the lowering of labour force participation rates, and the intergenerational transmission of violent behaviours.

Glaesar and Edward (1999) had studied since money stolen goods are not lost of society as a whole but are instead transferred from victims to

criminals, it is not obvious that the total value of those goods should be accounted as a social cost. Since the value of stolen property is potentially smaller for the criminals than for the victims, one could argue that only the difference between these two valuations should be taken into consideration as a welfare loss. However, as Glaesar emphasizes, given that the time spent by criminals in illegal rather than legal activities is in fact a social loss and since the value of goods taken should in equilibrium be equal to the opportunity cost of the criminals' time, all property losses should be considered social losses.

Estimates performed in industrialized countries indicate that the cost of shattered lives account for the largest share of all measured crime costs. In Australia, England, France and the United States the value of cost lives represents more than 40 per cent of those costs. In the specific case of women, every year nine million years of healthy lives are lost worldwide as a result of rape and domestic violence. This loss is larger than the corresponding loss due to all types of cancer in women and twice as large as the loss due to motor-vehicle accidents suffered by women.

Londono and Guerrero (1999) studied in the United States, a study using 1992 data estimated that crime caused a loss of \$ 170 billion in the form of suffering and potential years of life lost, while public expenditures on the criminal justice system and private security costs amounted to \$ 90 billion and \$ 65 billion respectively. In Latin America, a recent study conducted at the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) estimates that the social costs of crime, including the value of stolen properties, amount to \$ 168 billion, or 14.2 per cent of the region's GDP.

The largest cost category in this study is that of intangibles, which accounts for half of the estimated costs of crime. This category includes the effects of crime on investment and productivity and the impact on labour and

consumption. One could argue that the very high intangible costs from crime found in Latin America are the result of the region's higher levels of crime, possibly coupled to a non-linearity in the relation between crime and its impact on citizens' welfare. That is, the pernicious effects on the quality of life may in fact accelerate when crime rates cross some threshold level. It is also theoretically plausible that crime produces diminishing welfare effects as its incidence rises. Alternatively, the higher Latin American estimates of so-called intangible costs may stem from methodological differences or from the sensitivity of the results of the quality of the available data.

If one excludes intangibles and the value of stolen goods (about \$ 25 billion dollars), the remaining social costs of crime still amount to 4.9 per cent of Latin America's GDP, with the largest category being the cost of potential lives cost and other health-related costs (1.9 per cent of the region's GDP), followed by expenditures on police and the criminal justice system (1.6 per cent GDP) and the cost of private security (1.4 per cent of GDP). The IDB estimates demonstrate considerable differences across countries. While Mexico stands close to the region's average with crime costs of 4.9 per cent of GDP, crime in El Salvador and Colombia lead to losses of 9.2 and 11.4 per cent of GDP, respectively. At the other end of the spectrum, crime-related costs in Peru and Brazil amount to 2.9 per cent 3.3 per cent of GDP, respectively.

The very high social and economic costs of crime and violence indicate that these problems have become serious obstacles to sustainable social and economic development in many countries around the world. Moreover, the recent worrisome trends in crime rates have created a sense of urgency. Governments and international organizations now face the formidable challenge of designing and implementing policies to prevent and reduce crime

and violence. A necessary first step is to develop a better knowledge of the causes of crime and violence.

Zak (2000) who had analysed “Larceny”, had studied a dynamic general equilibrium model of larceny – or property crime – which in both economic conditions and government policies affect the commission calculus. The model provides a behavioural framework that is used to estimate the effects of government policies on the commission of larceny. The model using the data from cities in Los Angeles Country, the impact of a number of government policies and of economic development on larceny are quantified. The simulations show that longer prison sentences and higher conviction rates for criminals are the most effective methods to reduce larceny ; subsidizing leisure activities, increasing police expenditures and income transfers have little effect on larceny. Using a game-theoretic optimality criterion, all the policies examined are currently overfunded.

Fajnzylber et al. (2000) in their study on “Crime and Victimization : An Economic Perspective”, analysed the incidence of crime and violence that varies widely across nations and regions of the world. Notwithstanding the enormous heterogeneity in the levels of crime and victimization rates, there are signs that over the past decades the problems of crime and violence have worsened considerably throughout the world. Crime rates in industrialized countries have increased by 300 to 400 per cent since the late 1960s. From the early 1980’s to the mid 1990s, the rate of international homicides increased by 50 per cent in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa and by more than 100 per cent in eastern Europe and Central Asia.

The recent upward trend in crime rates has suppressed widespread public concern about issues related to crime and insecurity which in many countries now attract more attention than traditional economic issues such as

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unemployment, inflation and taxes. In the United States, public opinion polls conducted in the mid 1990's reported violent crime as the nation's most serious problem. In England and the Netherlands more than half of the public see crime as the number one problem facing their country while in France 39 per cent place it at the top of citizen's concerns. Similar conclusions can be derived from polls conducted in seventeen Latin American countries in 1996, which describe violence as the region's main social and economic problems.

Luiz (2001) had studied on "Temporal Association, the Dynamics of Crime and their Economic Determinants : A Time Series Econometric Model of South Africa". The study examines the association between various crime series for South Africa and their economic determinants between 1960 and 1993. The study uses Johansen co-integration techniques to establish the importance of income per capita (economic opportunities), police officers per capita, conviction rates and political instability on per capita crime levels. The results caution previous studies that find a close relationship between the level of economic activity and recorded crime. Previous work relied on the Engle-Granger technique assuming a unique co-integrating vector. The results for South Africa indicate that while total offenses are negatively associated with income per capita, disaggregated crime series do not always yield co-integrating vectors.

The post apartheid dispensation in South Africa has been marred by the escalating crime waves that have turned South Africa into one of the worst crime centres in the world. Repeatedly, public opinion polls have shown that the South African public regards crime together with unemployment to be the two most pressing problems facing the country while much has been written on the possible effects that crime may have on investor confidence and hence economic growth ; very little has been said about the reverse, namely the effect that economic performance may have on crime levels. Certainly no

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econometric models have been used in estimating a crime equation in a time series context in South Africa. This study attempts to do just that by employing recent innovations in time series econometrics to explore the determinants of crime in South Africa between 1960 and 1993. It begins by surveying the literature on the relationship between crime and economics, both on an empirical and a theoretical level. Thereafter it proposes a time series crime model and examines the trends in South African crime series.

Daniel (2001) studied on “Measuring the Economic Benefits of Developmental Prevention Programs”. This study examines the economic costs and benefits of crime policy, specifically the economic evaluation of developmental prevention programs. The conclusion that developmental prevention is a cost-effective alternative to criminal sanctions for averting crime events cannot be convincingly sustained. Instead, a more holistic, individual level approach is necessary that values benefits across multiple domains of individual functioning. Analyses that have valued more than crime benefits, by and large, measure financial effects on the public treasury. This is too narrow a focus. Finally, estimates of the costs of crime focus on victim consequences rather than on aggregate social consequences. Although consequences for victims are important, they do not capture the full effects of crime on society. Estimates of the costs of crime should value tangible consequences to non victims and victims alike. Strategies for estimating the economic benefit of achieving a qualitative improvement in an individual’s life chances involve studying the actual decisions that parents make in raising their children, and adopting methods for measuring quality-adjusted life years in the medical domain to value developmental interventions.

Garoupa (2001) observed in “Optimal Law Enforcement when Victims are Rational Players” that the economic analysis of crime usually views a victim as a passive party whose role is limited to suffering harm. This study

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extends the economic theory of law enforcement by modeling victims as an active party in criminal deterrence. First, they may take some precautions to avoid victimization. Second, they may or may not report their victimization. The lack of reporting weakens law enforcement and criminal deterrence by reducing detection rates. This suggests that victims could be encouraged to report by being paid a compensation. Nevertheless, compensating victims certainly reduces precaution. It may be argued that such effect never offsets the gains obtained in terms of criminal detection and apprehension.

Gilbert and Russell (2002) had studied “Globalization of Criminal Justice in the Corporate Context”. Globalization, the rising of an economy outside the paradigm of government by nation-states, has created new opportunities for transnational corporate crime, defined broadly here as avoidable harms inflicted across national borders for purposes of economic gain. The authors reexamine theories of corporate criminal liability in the transnational context and applaud the recent French codification of corporate criminal liability in terms broad enough to encompass the new economic realities. Finally, they examine the inability of current adjudicative to effectively assert jurisdiction over transnational corporations and suggest that the harms associated with toxic waste spills, unethical marketing practices, and other corporate misconduct are more ubiquitous and dangerous than the harms of terrorism and war crimes that have captured the attention of the emerging global civil society.

Cowen (2002) in his study on “Crime and drugs : Economic issues and policy”, analysed that crime, broadly defined, imposes huge costs in the United States each year. These costs include both the damage to property and people from criminal activity and the cost of policies – undertaken by government to prevent and punish criminal activity. Not all these costs can easily be assigned a monetary value. One element of these costs that is

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relatively easy to measure is the cost of administering the criminal justice system, which consists of police, courts and prisons. This system intended to prevent and punish crime, was responsible for expenditures of \$ 120 billion by federal, state and local governments in 1996. Indeed, expenditures for the criminal justice system are an increasingly important item in state government budgets over time. Resources absorbed by the criminal justice system cannot be used for tax relief, education, housing, health care, or any other worthwhile purpose, so it is important that these resources be used wisely. Economics may help us to analyze the effectiveness of our policies to combat crime. A crime is any activity forbidden by law and punishable by criminal penalty. The expenditures on our criminal justice system, which includes police, courts and prisons, have increased greatly in inflation adjusted dollars in the past 20 years. The greatest increase has occurred in the prison system. The appropriate methodology to evaluate crime prevention measures is cost-benefit analysis. A policy should be adopted or kept only if its benefits are greater than its costs. The results of cost benefit studies on our prison expansion are contradictory and inconclusive. Some crimes are victimless because they are the result of consensual transactions between two parties. These crimes are illegal only because society, or a significant group in society, disapproves of them on moral, health, or ethical grounds. Legalizing these victimless crimes arguably may be more efficient than prohibiting them. Both demand and supply would increase, price would decrease atleast slightly and equilibrium quantity would increase. Although use increases, the goods and services involved would be provided legally and earn lower profits, so their provision would be less attractive to organized crime. In these victimless crimes were made legal, we would regulate them in part through taxation.

Josten (2003) conducted a study on "Inequality, Crime and Economic Growth : A Classical Argument for Distributional Equality". This study

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analyses the dynamic general-equilibrium interactions between inequality, crime and economic growth by embedding the rational choice-theoretical approach to criminal behaviour in a heterogeneous-agents endogeneous-growth OLG model. Based on their respective opportunity costs, individuals choose to specialize in either legal or criminal activities. While legal households contribute to aggregate goods supply over time by either working or building human capital, criminals make a living by expropriating legal citizens of part of the latter's income. An increase in inequality lowers the economy's growth rate and possesses negative welfare effects for all agents with endowments equal to or above average and for agents with endowment below average that are born sufficiently far in the future.

Naylor (2003) attempted a study on "Towards a General Theory of Profit-driven Crimes". This essay and review presents a general theoretical model and a clarified terminology by which profit driven crimes can be understood in economic rather than sociological terms. It proposes a typology that shifts the focus from actors to actions in a way that differs from, but is compatible with, the scripts and situational crime approaches. The typology divides profit-driven crime into three categories : predatory, market-based, and commercial. Principal characteristics include : whether property transfers occur by force, free market exchange, or fraud ; whether they involve redistribution of wealth, distribution of income, or redistribution of income ; and whether the optimal response is restitution, forfeiture, or compensation. The approach permits crimes to be better assessed as to their impact on national income and economic welfare levels. In addition, it helps separate the primary offense (the illegal acquisition of criminal proceeds) from secondary ones, such as corruption, violence, tax evasion, and money laundering.

Steven (2004)'s study on "Why Crime Fell in the 1990's : Four Factors that explain the Decline and Six that do not", analysed the decade of the 1990s which saw sustained economic growth. Real GDP per capita grew by almost 30 per cent between 1991 and 2001. The annual unemployment rate fell from 6.8 in 1991 to 4.8 per cent in 2001. The improvements in legitimate labour market opportunities make crime relatively less attractive. This prediction is likely to be more relevant for crimes involving direct financial motivation such as burglary, robbery and auto theft, but less important for homicide, assaults and rape.

Empirical estimates of the impact of macro-economic variables on crime have been generally consistent across studies : Freeman and Richard (1995) surveys earlier research and more recent studies include Machin and Meghir (2000), Gould, Weinberg and Mustard (1997), Donohue and Levitt (2001) and Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001). Controlling for other factors, almost all of these studies report a statistically significant but substantively small relationship between unemployment rates and property crime. Violent crime, how ever, does not vary systematically with the unemployment rate. Studies that have used other measures of macro economic performance like wages of low. Income workers come to similar conclusions. Based on these estimates, the observed two percentage point decline in the U.S. unemployment rate between 1991 and 2001 can explain an estimated two per cent decline in property crime, without any change in violent crime or homicide.

The sharp increase in crime in the 1960s a decade of strong economic growth further corroborated and weak link between macro economics and crime. If the economy has a major impact on crime, the likely channel is not through the direct effect estimated in the studies noted above, but rather, indirectly through state and local government budgets. Two factors that are

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more important in reducing crime are increased spending on police and prisons. To the extent that these budget items are affected by macro economic performance, one would expect to observe a stronger link between the economy and crime than is found in the studies above, which control for criminal justice variables when estimating the link between economic variables and crime.

Crime fell sharply and unexpectedly in the 1990s. Four factors appear to explain the drop in crime. Increased incarceration, more police, the decline of crack and legalized abortion. Other factors often cited as important factors deriving the decline do not appear to have played an important role. The strong economy, changing demographics, innovative policing strategies, gun laws and increased use of capital punishment (Steven, 2004).

Kumar (2004) who had analysed “Relationship of Caste and Crime in Colonial India : A Discourse Analysis”, studied that the discourse of caste, in many instances, cannot be constituted in separation from discourses on several other aspects of the Indian social structure. This study however, seeks to understand a relationship of different order, that between caste and crime which in colonial India came to be linked in socially significant ways. Administrative discourse in colonial India sought to classify castes lower in the hierarchy and aboriginal tribes as criminal tribes and castes. Colonial administrative and metropolitan ideas and practices were thus used to classify certain groups ‘as criminal’. Even as the state specified due to requirements in the classification of such groups they were prompted by broader imperatives, the consolidation of the colonial administrative edifice. What was suppressed in this discourses was that any attempt to see the impact of British rule on the marginalization of several castes and tribes who may have been compelled to take to crime since their own source of livelihood were not available to them any more. Thus the general discourse on caste provided the frame work

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within which the connections between caste and crime were forged and then seen as unique mask of Indian society.

Engelen (2004) had analysed on “Criminal Behaviour : A Real Option Approach with an Application to Restricting Illegal Insider Trading”. He studied that traditionally criminal behaviour is analyzed within an expected utility framework. This study offers an alternative model to analyze criminal behaviour based on real option models. It is shown that all criminal decisions can be analyzed as real options, in a sense that they confer the possibility but not the obligation to commit a crime in the future. The criminal option model is a richer model compared to conventional economic models of crime, because it takes into account four additional variables. As such, the conventional economic analysis of crime is a special case of criminal option models. The criminal option model is then applied to the enforcement of illegal insider trading. Based on the six value-drivers of criminal options, an active management strategy can be developed for the criminal as well as for the legislator.

Ansari (2005) in his analysis on “Law on Mass Crimes and Victims”, states that given the states failure of governance in major communal riots, either due to partisan law enforcement or inefficiency, a central law under the provision of ‘internal disturbance’ in Article 355 holding the state government responsible for maintaining communal peace, is required. The state should be liable to dismissal under Article 356 if the rioting continues for, say, more than five days resulting in the loss of more than, say, 100 lives. There is also a strong case for a separate law on the protection and compensation for victims of crime and violence.

Coomaraswamy (2005) in her “Human security and gender violence”, analyses how all countries comprising the south Asian region have responded

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in some measure to the challenges posed by violence against women in the region. However, what remains a matter of concern is the fact that apart from India, none of the other south Asian countries have adopted domestic violence legislation or made the necessary changes to anti-trafficking legislation progress to ensure security and a world without violence for women. Violence against women, as borne out by research from around the world, can be effectively combated if a healthy partnership prevails between women's groups and the state apparatus.

The historically unequal power relations between men and women have manifested in a variety of ways. As the first report of the UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women states, "the system of male domination has historical roots and its functions and manifestations change over time. The oppression of women is therefore a question of politics, requiring an analysis of the institutions of state and society, the conditioning and socialization of individuals, and the nature of economic and social exploitation". Economic and social exploitation of women and their labour also contributes to violence against women. Women are often employed as bonded labourer and as low paid labourer in many economic enterprises around the world ; as migrant workers they face enormous hardship. The refusal to recognize women's economic independence and empowerment is one of the main reasons for violence against women, accentuating thereby, their vulnerability and abuse.

Newspaper pages in South Asia are full of tales of domestic violence. In 2002, 450 honour killings were reported in Pakistan, 15,000 young brides are burnt to death every year in India, and 10 women a week are subject to acid attacks in Bangladesh (OXFAM, 2004). Violence by intimate family members is one of South Asia's darkest legacies. Forty per cent of all sexual abuse cases in India are about incest. In a survey on violence against women

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in India, 94 per cent of the cases involved an offender who was a member of the family (Naved et al., 2004).

The violence against women in South Asia often begins before birth. It is estimated that 50 million women are missing in India either through sex selective abortions, female infanticide or female neglect. So much so that the sex ratio in certain states of India is very disturbing. There are 79.3 girls for every 100 males in the Punjab and 87.8 girls for every 100 males in Gujarat (OXFAM, 2004 : 10).

Domestic violence rates in South Asia does vary from community to community and depends on the questions asked. A survey of 1,842 women in Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu in India presented a rate of 40 per cent of women interviewed stating they were victims of wife beating. In Pakistan, a survey of 1,000 women indicated that 55 per cent in the urban areas and 35 per cent in the rural areas stated that they were victims of domestic violence. In Sri Lanka, one survey put the figure at 60 per cent, another at 32 per cent (UNIFEM, 2004 : 10).

Porter and Steven (2005) in his analysis on “Steven D. Levitt : 2003 John Bates Clark Medalist”, states the theoretical and empirical analysis of criminal activity has a long and distinguished history within the field of economics. In his careful survey on this subjects, observes that Adam Smith, William Paley and Zeremy Bentham all wrote about the factors that lead to criminal activity and tried to understand the factors that determine the level of illegal activity.

Steve’s contribution to our understanding of the economics of crime consists of a collection of careful empirical studies that tackle central questions about the determinants of criminal behavior. These studies often address long-standing difficulties in the assignment of casual patterns. Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Steve's work has catalyzed an empirical renaissance in the economic analysis of crime. One strand of Steve's work has focused on how public policies affect criminal activity. This research has advanced long-standing debates about the roles of incapacitation and deterrence. A second has explored the social and economic factors that lead individuals to engage in crime. A third strand research has analysed the determinants of criminal behavior and the presence of law-breaking in non-standard environments.

The impact of crime prevention efforts, such as government spending on prisons and police and private spending on security systems is a subject of long running empirical controversy. Many studies have explored this issue, but most have faced a fundamental empirical difficulty. The crime rate is affected by law enforcement conditions, but it may also affect those conditions. If the crime rate in an area is high, police may maintain a greater presence there than in intrinsically safer areas, and private security outlays may be higher in the high-crime area than in other places. For this reason, a simple-minded regression in which law enforcement activity is treated as a determinant of the crime rate may show a misleading positive correlation.

Hutchinson and Yates (2007) in their study on "Crime on the Court : A correction", make an important contribution to the literature on the economics of both sports and crime. Utilizing a quasi experiment in the Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC) basket ball tournament, they find that an increase in the number of referees is associated with a large and statistically significant decrease in the number of fouls called. Here fouls committed are analogous to crimes, fouls called to arrests, and referees to police. An increase in the number of police presumably leads to an increase in the probability of detection ; if the crime rate remains constant, an increase in arrests could be expected. The fact that arrests actually decrease suggests that players respond rationally to the increase in the probability of detection by decreasing

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the crime rate. This is a strong evidence in favour of the so-called deterrent effect. McCormick and Tollison's results, however, are entirely due to data error. In fact, the increase in the number of referees is not associated with a change in the number of fouls called. After re-examining McCormick and Tollison's data, the study found that approximately half of the observations for their main dependent variable – number of fouls called were incorrect. Rebounds from box scores were inadvertently entered as fouls. These two statistics appear next to each other in McCormick and Tollison's data source. McCormick and Tollison report that the average number of fouls per game is 52.2, but the correct number is 38.0. Correcting McCormick and Tollison's error reveals that the increase in the number of referees is not associated with a change in the number of fouls called or the score of the game. Viewed in this light, the ACC results are now more consistent with those found in a similar quasi experiment from the National Hockey League.

2.3 STUDIES RELATING TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY

Warner and Lunt (1941) had studied on "Socio-Economic Status and Crime Rates", where they analysed the social class system which operates as a ranking device that has great influence on the social experiences of the individual. Each person is assigned a status at birth based on the status of his family, his place of residence, his nativity, and his race. In an open class system such as ours, his status can be changed through personal achievement as evaluated on the basis of relative wealth, occupation, talent, formal education or membership in groups with power. Attached to his class status are norms which he learns through socialization within his family and other intimate groups. As a motivation for crime, poverty is a relative matter. The millionaire down to his last swimming pool may feel under privileged, while another man deems himself successful if he is able to purchase a

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battered automobile. The crux of the concept of relative deprivation is that the given individual (or group) considers himself under privileged when he compares his lot with some desired standard.

Sutherland (1949), in his analysis, stated positively, that persons of the upper socio-economic class engage in much criminal behaviour ; that this criminal behaviour differs from the criminal behaviour of the lower socio-economic class principally in the administrative procedures which are used in dealing with the offenders ; and that variations in administrative procedures are not significant from the point of view of causation of crime.

These violations of law by persons in the upper socio economic class are, for convenience, called “White Collar Crimes”. This concept is not intended to be definitive, but merely to call attention to crimes which are not ordinarily included within the scope of criminology. White collar crime may be defined approximately as a crime committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of his occupation. Consequently, it excludes many crimes of the upper class, such as most of their cases of murder, adultery, and intoxication, since these are not customarily a part of their occupational procedures. Also, it excludes the confidence games of wealthy members of the underworld, since they are not persons of respectability and high social status.

The less critical attitude of government toward businessmen than toward persons of lower socio-economic status is the result of several relationships.

- (a) Persons in government are, by and large, culturally homogenous with persons in business, both being in the upper strata of American Society.

- (b) Many persons in government are members of families which have other members in business. Almost every important person in business has many close personal friends in government.
- (c) Many persons in government were previously connected with business firms as executives, attorneys, directors, or people in other capacities. Many persons in government retain their business connections.
- (d) Many persons in government hope to secure employment in business firms when their government work is terminated. Thus the initial cultural homogeneity, the close personal relationships, and the power relationships protect businessmen against critical definitions by government.

Lander's (1954) study of delinquency in Baltimore concludes that socio economic area is not the variable associated with delinquency but, rather, the percentage of homes occupied by the owner and the percentage of nonwhites. He concluded that anomic, or normlessness, was the sociological explanation of the rates. He found that delinquency is still predominantly a lower class male phenomenon, related to transiency, poor housing, and economic indexes.

More recently the subculture theories have tried to explain higher rates of juvenile delinquency among lower class males. These attempt to point out distinguishing characteristics of the lower class milieu which might explain the higher rates of official delinquency.

Cohen (1955) his studies demonstrated that delinquent and criminal behaviours are not limited to the lower economic classes. In comparing the classes, Albert Cohen guessed that "conceivably" a greater proportion of the

delinquencies of the working class children, as compared to those of upper-class children, is not reported.

Ohlin (1964) his studies have found that among lower class juveniles, offenses are more characteristic of a criminal pattern compared to the petty types committed by middle class juveniles. His study, however, found among boys who did not live in lower class areas fighting gangs with characteristics similar to what is traditionally thought of as lower class gangs. And another study found middle class gangs with behaviour patterns and police contacts similar to those from the lower class.

Empey and Erickson (1966) found less delinquency among the unofficial delinquents as compared to the official delinquents, the difference was not statistically significant. They did, however, find differences in the kind of delinquency. Low status juveniles were disproportionately high on offences of driving without a license, stealing articles of over \$ 50, auto theft, skipping school, using narcotics, defying parents, and fighting and assault. Middle status juveniles were "more inclined to activities of a destructive and serious quality", while upper status juveniles more frequently committed the offense of defying parents.

Reckless's (1967) speculation that both the upper and lower classes have high risks of crime compared with middle class is based on two assumptions. First, the upper classes are exposed to opportunities for evasions of taxes, misuse of professional knowledge and skills, and other examples of "white-collar crimes". Second, the middle-class subculture, to an important degree, insulates it against activities usually treated crimes.

Nyle and Short (1967) in his studies of reported delinquency indicate little or no difference in the delinquency of those processed officially and those not processed. Two separate studies of reported behaviour found no

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significant relationship between the incidence of juvenile delinquency and socio economic status.

Nye et al. (1967) concludes that the conflict between the findings of the subculture theorists who argue that socio economic status is a relevant variable in juvenile delinquency – and the investigators of reported behaviour who argue that it is not – may be due to the different types of communities from which they draw their samples. Studies of subcultures are usually conducted in large cities, while those of reported behaviour are conducted in suburban or small towns. And another study found that “several single measures of socio economic status and delinquency are not highly correlated in rural areas and in small towns and cities”.

Becker (1968) states that in early stages of his work on crime, he was puzzled by why theft is socially harmful, since it appears merely to redistribute resources, usually from wealthier to poorer individuals. He resolved the puzzle by pointing out that criminals spend on weapons and on the value of the time in planning and carrying out their crimes, and that such spending is socially unproductive – it is what is now called “rent seeking”, because it does not create wealth, only forcibly redistributes it. Becker approximated the social cost of theft by the dollars stolen since rational criminals would be willing to spend up to that amount on their crimes. He should have added the resources spent by potential victims protecting themselves against crime.

One reason why the economic approach to crime became so influential is that the same analytic apparatus can be used to study enforcement of all laws, including minimum wage legislation, clean air acts insider trader and other violations of security laws, and income tax evasions. Since few laws are self-enforcing they require expenditure on conviction and punishment to deter violators. The US Sentencing Commission has explicitly used the economic

analysis of crime to develop rules to be followed by judges in punishing violators of federal statutes.

McNown and Singell (1974) had assessed "A Factor Analysis of the Socio-Economic Structure of Riot and Crime Prone Cities". The major purpose of this study is to investigate whether individual attacks against property and the recent urban riots, arise out of a similar set of socio-economic conditions. The study proceeds by first briefly reviewing the theoretical and empirical literature on the causes of crime and collective violence. This literature is then drawn upon to construct 24 independent variables which are measures of income, employment and educational opportunities, population characteristics and socio-political conditions. The statistical analysis in the second part of the study employed a sample of 129 large standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. 64 of which experienced one or more incidents of racial violence between 1965 and 1968 and 65 of which were non-riot SMSA's. From the 24 variables, seven factors were extracted by the minimum residual method and orthogonally rotated by the Kaiser varimax technique. These seven factors were then used as independent variables in both regression and discriminate analysis which riot intensity (measured by property and economic loss) and property crime rates were used as independent variables. The study concludes that criminal behaviour derives from fundamentally different causes than does riot activity.

Ehrlich (1975) explains empirical assessments of the effects on crime rates of prison terms, conviction rates, unemployment levels, income inequality and other variables have become more numerous and more accurate. The greatest controversies surround the question of whether capital punishment deters murders, a controversy that arouses much emotion but is far from being resolved.

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Koshal and Koshan (1975) had analysed “Crimes and Socio-Economic Environments”. The purpose of this note is to study the relationship between crimes and the socio-economic environment in the metropolitan areas of the United States. In this study we define total crime rate per 100,000 population as a linear function of (i) per capita personal income, (ii) the unemployment rate, (iii) the migration rate, (iv) racial imbalance, (v) climate and (vi) males as a percentage of total population. Our statistical results confirm the hypothesis that social and economic conditions cause crime.

Sue (1976) in his analysis on “Crime and Criminology”, denotes that traditionally official statistics have indicated that more crime and delinquency exists among the lower than the upper or middle classes. These figures have been “mapped” ecologically to show that the heavy concentration of crime and delinquency, and many social problems occur in socially and economically deprived areas of the city. Based on Burgess’s (1952) concentric circle theory of city growth, such studies indicate that the “zone of transition”. The physically deteriorated zone just outside the business district of the central city – consistently has the highest rates of crime and delinquency rates. People who live in the area are not only economically deprived, but they also lack many of the social and cultural opportunities of the middle and upper classes.

Votey and Phillips (1976) had studied “Minimizing the Social Cost of Drug Abuse : An Economic Analysis of Alternatives for Policy”. The use of heroin, with its concomitant social problems, is facilitated by an illicit market process which functions similarly to economic markets in general. The analysis of this process, incorporated in a model embodying the interacting relationships of crime generation and control, permits evaluation of three fundamentally different strategies for social control. These are controlling supply through law enforcement and other strategies, controlling demand by

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detaining addicts, or reducing illicit market activity by introducing an effective substitute for the services of that market. When all the social costs of addiction are taken into account and when minimizing the total of those costs is taken to be the objective, the authors conclude that the best solution will lie with the establishment of a drug maintenance program. Properly administered, such a program would undermine the illicit market by reducing demand. Furthermore, it can be expected to reduce levels of drug related crimes and to moderate factors encouraging addiction.

Chambliss (1977) had assessed, "Crime, Law and Social Change", studied by seeking to understand crime through the vision implied by the normative paradigm focus upon too narrow a set of phenomenon : namely the ideological structure of social systems or individual personalities. To include the very least of the political and economic history of that collection of activities which are generally defined by law as criminal. The historical development and political economy of opium and heroin from its introduction by European capitalists into China and southeast Asia down to its current place in the political economy of the United States has been explored in an effort to demonstrate the utility of refocusing energies towards a macro-sociological perspective.

Oyebanji (1982) who had studied "Economic Development and the Geography of Crime : An Empirical Analysis", examines criminality as one of the second order consequences of development which the society has been struggling off for so long. In the study area, Kwara State of Nigeria, positive associations between development and criminality have begun to manifest themselves. The highest positive associations are between criminality and urbanization, telephone and motor vehicles respectively, while the lowest associations are with industrialization, electricity and education. In order to reduce criminality without holding down development in the state, various

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suggestions have been made. Central measures include more equitable distribution of criminality, strengthening of the police force and free mobilization of policemen from high crime areas to low crime areas. Long term measures include improving the socio-economic well being of the general populace with special reference to the provision of modern industries, education, electricity, water and roads to rural dwellers and thereby curbing the wave of rural-urban migration and its attendant social ills. This should be accompanied by unqualified deep-rooted revolution in the monstrously unjust socio-economic system currently operate, for afterall, rightly observed “crime is a surface expression of discontents which lie deeply embedded in the social system”.

Toary (1998) had analysed in “The hand book of crime and punishment”, that while many citizens, policy makers, politicians, and academics assume that economic conditions derive crime rates, evidence of this relationship has proved elusive. As a result, there is a large disconnect between theory and empirical evidence on this point for theory building, the notion that crime is a function of economic opportunity has great intuitive appeal. Economic theorists, for example have long assumed that individuals allocate their time between legal work and crime depending on the relative returns to each activity. Advocates of employment – based solutions to the crime problem also rely on such a causal notion. Nonetheless, there has been surprisingly little convincing evidence to support this belief.

Evidence of a connection between the economy and crime has implications for macro level policy and for micro level interventions. If a booming economy yields crime reductions, this is an additional argument for pro-growth macro economic policy. If improved earning potential keeps individuals in the legal sector and out of illegal activity, training programs and subsidized employment are recommended. Further, an understanding of the

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relationship between economic conditions and criminal behaviour may help with our understanding of criminal behaviour more generally.

Much of the existing research has been of a very general nature. But in order to use economics to “solve” the crime problem, a very particular knowledge about how people respond to incentives should be gained. Ultimately, this requires a great deal of differentiation among crime types and among different populations. Moreover, it is necessary to understand the connection between the economy and crime at three levels : economy-wide, for communities, and for individual.

Terance (1999) had analysed “Links Between Rural Development and Crime”. This study uses an interdisciplinary ‘approach to identify socio economic determinants of crime that are pertinent in non metropolitan context. Data (1977-1995) on 1,706 countries were obtained from the U.S. uniform crime reports. Degree of country urbanization appeared to have a strong effect on crime. Crime rates were higher in countries with a low percentage of owner occupied housing, perhaps indicative of less local rootedness and higher rates of in and out. Migration, service sectors (e.g., recreation, amusements) rather than traditional sectors (e.g., mining, manufacturing) aggravated crime.

The effect of economic conditions varied per capita income, total employment growth and the unemployment rate were positively associated with crime ; poverty and a greater reliance on transfer of payments were negatively linked with crime. The remaining results were mixed positively related to crime rates were interstate highways ; high percentages of black, Hispanic, native American and older residents ; communities in the western united states ; and greater spending on law enforcement. Finally, countries with higher probabilities of arrest, perhaps because of more effective law

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enforcement procedures had lower crime rates. Suggestions are offered for the development of industrial targeting approaches to crime prevention.

Machin and Mejhiri's (2000) analysis on "Crime and Economic Incentives", state that in the United Kingdom crime increased rapidly through the 1970's and 1980's, reaching record levels by the start of the 1990's becoming an important public policy issue. The increase was far greater than that experienced in the rest of Europe. Moreover, property crime rose very rapidly in the United Kingdom through 1970's, 80's and early 90's. Indeed, a recent United States Bureau of Justice Statistics study states the level of property crime to be higher in 1996 in England and Wales than in the United States. At the same time, and in contrast to the rest of Europe, wage inequality, reached record high at the start of the 1990's. Central to these increase has been the rapidly deteriorating labour market position of less skilled workers in the United Kingdom at the bottom end of the wage distribution. Simple economic models predict that declining labour market opportunities are likely to alter the initiatives for individuals to participate in legitimate or illegitimate (criminal) activities. By examining the extent to which rising crime is related to the worsening labour market position of less skilled workers using area level data from England and Wales from the mid 1970s to the mid 1990s.

Because the social and economic costs associated with high crime rates are potentially enormous, this issue has probably not been examined in enough detail, particularly in the United Kingdom there are existing findings that sometimes point to significant correlations between crime and unemployment but the link with changes in actual labour market opportunities (e.g. measured in terms of wages) has been much less explored. This is true despite the fact that increases in crime have been given a lot of attention by several different social science disciplines over the years.

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Tas (2001) had analysed “Ethnic Minorities, Social Integration and Crime” discusses various dimensions of the social integration of minorities into society. The Netherlands is taken as an example, although research from other countries (such as the US and Sweden) is also taken into consideration. Useful concepts in this regard include the level to which these groups have social, informative and cultural capital that can help them to integrate into the dominant society. The second part considers the theoretical links between integration and criminal behaviour. The author assumes that the fundamental causal processes that lead to the development of criminality and other negative behaviour are independent of country of origin, ethnic group or the country of residence. In other words – these processes, as they emerge in social control theory, have a universal character. In the second place, she assumes that differences in crime between ethnic groups are linked to group differences in socio-economic integration in the host country and in culture-related variables. Furthermore, there are also differences in the criminality of allochthonous youth within ethnic groups. These are similarly assumed to be linked to differences in commitment to social institutions such as family and school and to differences in accepting specific Western norms and values.

Lochner and Moretti (2004) estimates the effect of education on participation in criminal activity using changes in state compulsory schooling laws overtime to account for the endogeneity of schooling decisions. Using Census and FBI data, the study find that schooling significantly reduces the probability of incarceration and arrest. NLSY data indicate that our results are caused by changes in criminal behaviour and not differences in the probability of arrest or incarceration conditional on crime. The result shows that the social savings from the crime reduction associated with high school graduation (for men) is about 14 – 16 per cent of the private return. Economists interested in the benefits of schooling have traditionally focused on the private return to

education. However, researchers have recently started to investigate whether schooling generates benefits beyond the private returns received by individuals. Crime is a negative externality with enormous social costs. Given the large social costs of crime, even small reductions in crime associated with education may be economically important. There are many theoretical reasons to expect that education reduces crime.

By raising earnings, education raises the opportunity cost of crime and the cost of time spent in prison. Education may also make individuals less impatient or more risk averse, further reducing the propensity to commit crimes. To empirically explore the importance of the relationship between schooling and criminal participation, this study uses three data sources : individual-level data from the census on incarceration, state-level data on arrests from the uniform crime reports, and self-report data on crime and incarceration from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. All these data sources produce similar conclusions : schooling significantly reduces criminal activity. This finding is robust to different identification strategies and measures of criminal activity. The estimated effect of schooling on imprisonment is consistent with its estimated effect on both arrests and self-reported crime. Given the consistency of our findings, the study concludes that the estimated effects of education on crime cannot be easily explained away by unobserved characteristics of criminals, unobserved state policies that affect both crime and schooling, or educational differences in the conditional probability of arrest and imprisonment given crime.

Saridakis (2004) had analysed “Violent Crime in the United States of America : A Time-Series Analysis Between 1960-2000”. The study empirically assesses the effects of socio-economic and demographic variables on violent crime in the United States. Using national level time series data over the period 1960-2000, an unrestricted vector autoregression (VAR) model was

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estimated for overall violent crime, murder, rape and assault. The results indicate that there is no long-run relationship among the examined variables, but significant short-run relationships hold. Imprisonment growth, income inequality, alcohol consumption, and racial composition of the male youth population are shown to influence the short-run behaviour of violent crime.

Huck and Kosfeld (2007) who had analysed in their study “The dynamics of neighbourhood watch and norm enforcement”, proposed a dynamic model of neighbourhood watch schemes while the state chooses punishment levels ; apprehension of criminals depends on the watchfulness of citizens. On contrary to standard intuition, crime levels can increase in punishments. This is because neighbourhood watch schemes can fall victim to their own success if recruitment of new members is driven by fear of crime – a finding that is in line with the empirical literature. The study discussed the policy implications of this result and show how it extends to the more general problem of norm enforcement among interacting citizens.

Punishment does not serve, or serves only incidentally, to correct the guilty person or to scare off any possible imitators. Its real function is to maintain inviolate the cohesion of society by sustaining the common consciousness in all its vigour. ‘It’s an unfortunate fact that when a neighbourhood crime crisis goes away, so does enthusiasm for neighbourhood watch. Work to keep your watch group a vital force for community well-being’.

The dynamics of neighbourhood watch programmes and how public policy (by setting fines for criminal behavior) can desire the rise and fall of such criminal activity. Surprisingly, the study analysed that increasing punishment can have adverse consequences. If the survival of neighbourhood watch programmes depends on successful recruiting, deterrence can be too

effective. As crime rates fall, recruitment for neighbourhood watch programmes can become harder and ultimately, programmes might become victims of their own success. Once programmes have dissolved, crime rates can and will pick up again. This suggests that optimal policy might aim at a tolerable low crime rate rather than total prevention of crime.

2.4 STUDIES RELATING TO ECONOMIC OFFENCES

In India economic offences as a concept first gained currency through the discourses of Kaldor (1955) on Indian public finance. Economic offences, however, are not confined only to surreptitious deals in international trade, and these may consist of tax evasion, black marketing, speculation in currency, illegal share transactions, unlawful ghost investments, and such other acts of omission or commission.

Smuggling, however, is concerned with economic offences which have a direct or indirect bearing on a country's international balance of payments, and are perpetrated through jumping or cornering the law on trade and commerce between India and any other country. The principal aspects of such economic offences rest in the multi-faceted activities lumped together as smuggling. Related to smuggling, and arising out of it, are such offences as international speculation in bullion, species, gold, jewellery, etc. or in the shape of opening and operating of shadow or numbered accounts in foreign banks, or in arranging and perpetuating trade channels with a view to evading the statutory and conventional laws on public finance of the home or foreign country, and all the while generally working contrary to the national development programmes. All these are known as smuggling of one sort or another.

Ray (1977) in his analysis on "Profiteering Curve", states that there are different types of manipulators, all working with a common objective, Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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profiteering and operating through the media of price-jumping or stock-racketing. In the different tiers or stages, operators, who directly or indirectly participate, work in tandem or even unison. The study reckons with two aspects of such an analysis of the black market. The organizational and the financial structures of the black market which are different only with respect to their functional attributes, but are otherwise coextensive and interdependent.

The organizational structure of the black market can be discussed as follows :

1. Cornering, hoarding, silos, cold storages and hidden godowns. Retail and wholesale black market in commodities, particularly elastic and near-elastic, consumable and building materials.
2. Black market in production, spurious commodities, adulteration, fakes and imitations, jumping of standards, false packaging and labelling, rackets in supply, rackets in exports and imports as also substitution.
3. Scarcity manipulations and manoeuvres during famines.
4. Illegitimate speculation, gambling, stock market rackets, foreign-exchange rackets, permits, licenses and fake trade deals, ghost transactions in lands, hundis, shares, properties and investments.
5. Tax evasion
6. Smuggling and International trade market.

Smuggling as an economic offence is today one of the major maladies leading to an atrophy of the economy of many countries. What is most saddening is that it affects both exports and imports which are not accounted in international trade and which, therefore, leads to income loss to the official

economy and gain for the parallel economy. In the developing countries this is a growing manifestation. In fact, in the Indian subcontinent smuggling in food grains and other necessities flows from India to the neighbouring countries, whereas luxurious goods and industrial products are smuggled across the neighbouring countries from different corners of the world. By and large, India has not been able to arrest the flow of smuggling either way in a substantial manner.

Hellman (1980) had studied on 'Organized crime' and felt that economic analysis should be useful in defining the structure of organized crime. Thomas Schelling, an economist who served on the crime commission's task force on organized crime, equates organized crime with "large-scale continuing firms with the internal organization of a large enterprise" which makes a conscious effort to control or monopolize the market. The most useful way to view the problem of organized crime is in the context of illegal markets and illegal enterprises. Organized crime is a group of large-scale enterprises operating within illegal markets to maximize profits. A distinction should be drawn between organized crime and the "underworld" economy of which it is a part.

Many unorganized criminal business (e.g. robbery) operate within a highly organized economic framework that economy has a labour market and recruitment system, a marketing and distribution system, a communications system, a financial network, and a diplomatic system. For the underworld economy to be organized, is it necessary for a large firm or cartel to assume a leadership role? Perhaps for the underworld economy to run smoothly it is necessary to have certain activities centralized in a large firm – say, the diplomatic activities, or financial relations with the "upper world". Paul Rubin argues that organized crime is "a criminal firm whose function is the selling of goods and services to other criminal firms. The kinds of goods and services

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which organized crime might provide other firms in the underworld economy include capital, violence and police non-enforcement, which is accomplished through bribery. Organized crime may also provide specialized services, depending on the market.

While Harris (1983) who had studied on “Polity and economy of the underworld”, used the expression in relation to the underworld of economic offences. In conjunction with black money, smuggling and the black market as extremely potent socio-economic forces, the parallel economy based on a barrage of economic offences has today become a major hurdle bedeviling the polity and the economy.

The objectives with which the research was conducted and the treatise was written can be briefly enumerated as follows :

1. To unravel, by investigations and analyses, the depth, structure and organization of the network of economic offences, their links with the subterranean economy, spread over smuggling and the black market, their modus-operandi, and to also assess their social, political and economic repercussions on the economy and the society. In order to get to the roots of the phenomenon, allied pursuits and manoeuvres like fraud, misfinance, profiteering, adulteration and corruption in public life had also to be similarly probed and uncovered. It has also been considered necessary to broadly discover the linkage of the underworld of the economic offences with socio-political forces of crime and espionage.
2. To make an appraisal, in this context, of the price, spiral, inflation and money market, share market, stock exchange and the investment profile, with a focus on the Indian economy, but in the background of the third world, and to isolate in the course of such an appraisal the

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subterranean force of the black market, black money and the multiple economic offences.

3. To examine the different remedial strategies so far evolved and discussed in economic theory and practice in India and abroad, and to make an appraisal of their effectiveness in the free market.
4. To filter the measures best suited for the developing countries and to recommend, in the background of the overall analysis, further remedial strategies to combat the forces of the black market, black money and allied economic offences in the environment of the third world.

Even though the format of the study on polity and economy of the underworld is largely based on Indian empirical situations and some random instances from a few other developing countries, the conclusions and strategies should be largely applicable to the third world as a whole and in varying degrees to developed economies like the United States and France as well as developing economies like Indonesia and Nigeria. That apart, whenever the opportunity permitted, the phenomena of economic offences in such countries have also been probed, dissected, analyzed and commented upon.

Lombardo and Robert (1995) had analysed on “organized crime IV : the Russian connection” and contend that social, economic and historical influences have set the stage for the emergence and continued success of Russian organized crime. Louise I. Shelley describes the criminalization of industry privatization in the former Soviet union by the former communist party elite and organized criminal groups. Kelly et al. formulate the theoretical framework for understanding the dependency between the liberal democratic system now being introduced in Russia and its current mafiya activity. J. Michael Waller and Victor J Yasmann identify law enforcement agencies, Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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security organs and intelligence services as institutional parts of the Russian organized crime problem, not only because of their cooptation and penetration by criminal elements, but also because of the lack of a legal bureaucratic culture.

Rufus et al. (1996), in a review explore the history of “African Americans in U.S. organized crime” and analysed that although organised crime has thrived in urban black ghettos since the 1920s, two turning points have increased the prominence of contemporary African-American organised crime. First, the Vietnam war exposed many black soldiers to the heroin markets of Asia, thus enabling organized crime groups to circumvent the Mafia and buy direct from Asian suppliers. Second, the entry of cocaine via Latin America encouraged crack trade that, in turn, transformed ghetto street gangs into drug trafficking organizations. The growth of organized crime groups appears to parallel the rise of African – American political consciousness and the awakening of social militancy.

Susan Rose – Ackerman (1997) in his analysis on the evolving of economic literature on corruption as also in major international socio-economic conferences, integrity and corruption have taken an important slot in recent times. This indicates how vital it is to analyze the fast spreading malaise of corruption in both the polity and the economy, and to devise and enforce a fairly effective remedial strategy. Corruption in public life is a disease which saps the vital of not only the polity, but also the economy. Corruption, in the sense, in this study, is socio-economic corruption in public life, and does not cover acts involving moral turpitude, but those which involve economic turpitude, and are normally perpetrated by a public servant in office or in collusion with him.

Parvesh (1998) had analysed “Current trends in crime and criminology”, where he studied that economic crime and its control and prevention continue to represent a pressingly problematic field and a topic of current interest in our society. The reasons for the special sensitivity towards, and the increase in awareness of, the dangers posed by economic crimes are to be found in the extent of damage suspected, in the potential for abuse, in the involvement of members of the middle and higher classes as well as in the presumption of wide victimization, particularly at times and in economic systems that are characterized by extensive opportunities for abuse through the existence of a large number of trustees of alien property must reckon with greater attention on the part of organs of social control so that dangers and disappointments are held within limits.

This study on the market for illegal goods and the case of drugs considers the costs of reducing consumption of a good by making its production illegal and punishing apprehended illegal producers. The study used illegal drugs as a prominent example. It shows that the more inelastic either demand for or supply of a good is, the greater the increase in social cost from further reducing its production by greater enforcement efforts. So, optimal public expenditures on apprehension and conviction of illegal suppliers depend not only on the difference between the social and private values from consumption but also on these elasticities when demand and supply are not too elastic, it does not pay to enforce any prohibition unless the social value is negative. It shows that a monetary tax could cause a greater reduction in output and increase in price than optimal enforcement against the same good would if it were illegal, even though some producers may go underground to avoid a monetary tax. When enforcement is costly, excise taxes and quantity restrictions are not equivalent.

Findlay (1999) concludes that it is now accepted that the globalization of the market has introduced more and new forms of opportunity for criminals. Globalisation has given those interested in fraud, for instance, the opportunity to act on an international level by taking advantage of the lack of regulations in the commercial and financial markets of some countries. They use the latest technologies to provide themselves with links between criminals all over the world without concrete need for physical contact. An example is the case of International fraud that was detected by the Italian police in collaboration with investigative forces from other countries. The operation, called "Ice trap", led to the arrest of six people and seizures in many Italian cities, and one arrest by the Swiss people. Investigation started with a communication by unilever international, a British commercial holding, claiming that hackers were spying on the activities of many of its firms by entering the computer system of its Italian affiliate through the "sprintet" and the "Itapac" nets. These computer nets were also used as a way of communication between Italian criminals and their European and North American counterparts. The members of the organization also used the bulletin board system on the internet to exchange messages and plan their illicit schemes. Credit cards, pins and passwords were illegally gained from the electronic databases and used for virtual transactions unknown to the legitimate owners of the credit cards. It demonstrates how criminal organizations can easily build international connections for the planning and the perpetration of crimes, with the use of new technical know-how and equipment. This Italian fraud case underlines the reality that economic criminals are getting organized around information exchange like never before, and reveals how computers help in the evolution of their enterprise. New and flexible forms of criminal organizations for economic crime are taking shape in the criminal arena. Today economic crime is characterized by the constant interaction between legal and illegal activities. The presence of figures that do not belong to the typical criminal scene makes

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it complicated to recognize the borderline between the legal and illegal. In those criminal commercial contexts in which information plays a relevant role, it is also extremely difficult to distinguish between economic crime and traditional organized crime. They increasingly have features in common. The distinction is becoming less viable.

Jordan and David (1999) had analysed “Drug politics : dirty money and democracies” and examine how narcotics trafficking, corruption and organized crime have become intertwined with the post-cold war international environment. Data are derived from secondary sources, as well as from the author’s experience as U.S. Ambassador to Peru and consultant to various government security organizations.

Governments and banks are deeply involved in, as well as dependent upon, the drug trade. In turn, the drug trade is dependent upon state cooperation and compliance. The accelerating globalization process allows wealthy elites to operate outside the boundaries of political accountability. Organized crime develops under such political protection, thereby becoming multi-ethnic and forging transnational alliances. Many national and international financial systems depend on cash from money laundering, and some governments are involved in protecting criminal cartels. Thus, the political, social, and financial impact of the international drug culture threatens democratic stability and the international political environment.

The U.S. war on drugs is being fought on an incorrect premise. Effective resistance to drug trafficking must come from a new internationalism that enlists a network of state institutions in different countries to combat regime corruption, money laundering, and criminal cartels ; a core strategy of demand reduction that emphasizes decreasing both hard-core and casual

users of addictive drugs ; and the protection of children and families from drug propaganda that is supported by a powerful liberalization legalization lobby.

Bovenkerk et al. (1999) who had studied “Organised crime in Netherlands”, investigate the nature, seriousness and scale of organized crime in the Netherlands. Data were obtained in 1995 from police documents and interviews with law enforcement exports. Organized crime was defined as what ensues when groups primarily focused on illegal profits systematically commit crimes that adversely affect society and are capable of effectively shielding their activities, in particular, by being willing to use physical violence or eliminate individuals by way of corruption. Organized crime in the Netherlands was still mainly confined to the traditional illegal supply of certain goods and services, drugs, arms and prostitutes, and to conducting financial and economic frauds. No criminal groups at either a national or local level had gained control of legitimate sectors of the economy by taking over crucial businesses or trade unions.

Albanese and Jay (1999) who had studied “Casino gambling and white collar crime : An examination of empirical evidence”, investigate the link between casino gambling and the commission of white collar crimes. Trends in embezzlement, forgery and fraud are examined before and after the introduction of casino gambling in nine of the largest casinos. In addition, city-by-city trends were compared to national trends in these crimes over the last decade. Data sources include : arrest statistics compiled for 1988-1996 by the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation’s Crime reporting unit ; a content analysis of articles published in USA today over a 10 year period ; and interview with convicted embezzlers.

Ernesto and Franscesca (1999) in “European money trails”, describe the different “money trails” or routes used by organized crime groups in

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Europe to concern the origins of the proceeds from criminal activities. Data were obtained from interviews with experts in each country, from police and court files, and from secondary sources. Criminals benefit from open markets and money laundering reflects the evolution of criminal organization from individuals to more sophisticated forms. This phenomenon is the dark side of the economic and social development of modern societies. The increasing complexity of criminal organizations is a mirror image of the modern economy and its related social complexity. The main policy implication is to meet the money laundering challenge with even more policy integration among the nations of Europe.

James and Robert (1999), had studied on the “Globalization of organized crime, the courtesan state, and the corruption of civil society”, a review that examines the linkages between globalization and organized crime, using eastern Asia and southern Africa as the main examples. The state’s autonomy is being reduced by numerous legal and illegal cross-border flows. A neoliberal global consensus in favour of deregulation has further reduced state autonomy. Consequently, there are vast areas of activities not regulated by national or international law. Criminal organizations have stepped into the breach wrought by these globalizing tendencies. Although some types of crime remain localized, increasingly organized crime groups are driven by efforts to exploit the growth mechanisms of globalization.

Transitional organized crime groups operate both above and below the state. They capitalize on tendencies of borderlessness and deregulation. They also offer incentives to the marginalized segments of the population that are trying to cope with the adjustment costs of globalization. Countries are put in the role of courtesan states submitting to powerful interests in the global political economy. In an attempt to move the national economy to higher levels of competitiveness, they are reducing expenditure in the social sector,

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thereby de-linking economic reform and social policy. Global organized crime nests in this void. In the global division of labour and power, some countries have become crime-exporting states. Civil society may play a role as a pressure point for greater accountability. But a large segment of civil society, comprising the realm of organizational activity between the individual and the state, is itself undemocratic.

Vittal (2000) concludes that it is the financial integrity which people have in mind when they talk about corruption. The world bank defines corruption as 'the use of public office for private profit? Of course, corruption is like two hands clapping, which involves the official done and the political leadership, and not so much on the supply side of corruption which involves the trade and business. The study confines only to the issue of corruption in the financial and economic sense or the use of public office for private profit.

Nicola and Scartezzini's (2000) "When Economic Crime becomes organized : the role of information technologies : A Case study" is based on the idea that economic crime is increasingly committed on an organized basis so that the boundary between economic crime and organized crime is disintegrating. The essential assumption of the study is that information technology is one of the main factors influencing this process of organization in economic crime. Economic criminals need information technology in order to manage essential and valuable information. The likely consequence of the use of these new technologies is a modification in the way criminals behave and organize. To develop this idea better, this comment looks at a famous and recent Italian case of computer crime : operation 'Ice Trap'.

Friedman and Robert (2000), in their journalistic study on "Red Mafiya : how Russian mob has invaded America", assert that, in the past decade, Russian organized crime has become the world's fastest-growing criminal

threat to global stability and safety in Europe, North America and Asia. The Russian Mafiya now directs worldwide trafficking in prostitutes, heroin and missiles. The black-market corruption of the Brezhnev era proved the perfect breeding ground for organized crime. Beginning in the 1970s, Soviet emigres quickly established themselves as a major criminal force in New York, Las Vegas and elsewhere. After the break-up of the Soviet Union, the Russian mob quickly became the dominant power in Russia. The Mafiya has spread to every corner of the U.S. and infiltrated its banks and brokerage firms, but U.S. Law enforcement is only now waking up to this enormous problem.

Pudney's (2003) study on "the Road to Ruin? Investigates the routes by which young people develop patterns of drug using and offending behaviour", the Survey data are used to assess the gate way effect the tendency for soft drug use to lead to subsequent hard drug use and criminal activity. The study argues that apparently strong gateway effects may be due to an observable personal characteristic which produces a spurious association between different forms of problem behaviour. After correcting statistically these confounding factors, gateway effects appear small. This casts doubt on the view that a more relaxed policy stance on soft drugs will lead to a hard drug epidemic. The growth in illicit drug use and related crime constitutes one of the most important social developments of the post-war world. Currently available estimates must be treated with extreme caution, but by any standards the UK market for illegal drugs is large.

Asok (2004) had analysed "Black money and its impact on Indian economy". He studied that corruption continues to be a strong source of black money. There should be coordinated effort and stringent legal measures to combat black money in view of its serious impact on the economy. The future of any civilized society is dependent on the quality of money. A large amount of unaccounted money, income and wealth is in circulation in our economy.

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Corruption continues to be a strong source of black money. India rated at 69 out of 90 countries in the corruption perception index by transparency international for the year 2000. Black money also traces its origin to the indomitable urge people have to avoid their tax liabilities. There should be coordinated effort and stringent legal measures to combat black money in view of its serious impact on the economy. In this study, the focus will be on issues related with black money in India. Further, it envisages magnitude of black money, causes of black money in India. Moreover, it analyses effect of black money in Indian economy and provides remedial measures for the same. An estimate given by various economists in a study reveals that there is a growing quantity of black money relative to GNP as well as in absolute terms. The IMF staff survey on the unaccounted sector of the economy has estimated black money in India was at 50 per cent of Gross National Product (GNP) which was Rs.1,45,141 crores in 1982-83 at current prices. On this computation, India's unaccounted sector is of the order of Rs.72,000 crores. Wanchoo committee estimated that black money was Rs.1800 crores in 1978-79. According to Dr.Saraj, B. Gupta, black money was 50 per cent of GDP in 1987-88. It is also stated that the annual rate of growth of black money is higher than the annual growth rate of GDP. There are several factors responsible for the generation of black money in India. Defects in the tax structure have been responsible for the existence of black money to a large extent. The strategy for removal of black money from the economy needs some measures. Black money is also called the parallel economy because in geometry parallel lines do not meet whereas black money intersects with practically all sectors of our Indian economy. The government should come up with stringent laws to curb the flow of black money in the country.

2.5 OTHER RELATED STUDIES

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Meyer et al. (1998) had analysed “Webs of Smoke : Smugglers, Wartards, Spies”. The study describes the modern International drug trafficking industry and related law enforcement efforts. Data were obtained from archival records and secondary sources in the U.S., China, Japan and Europe. All players in the drug business – dealers, buyers, politicians and bureaucrats – are flexible and opportunistic. The drug trade exists to serve market demand and to make money for drug traffickers. In turn, the drug traffickers are business entrepreneurs who, over the years, have sought the help of political figures to resolve specific problems related to supply, delivery, finance and contract enforcement. Because drug trafficking is a business, any strategy to disable the drug trade should concentrate on its commercial weaknesses.

Johnson et al. (1999) had assessed “What Drug Dealers tell us about their Costs of doing Business”. The study examines the costs of and profits from drug dealing business in New York city, NY. Interviews were conducted with low-level drug dealers. Since the monetary costs of distributing drugs are modest, the proportion of sales revenue retained by these sellers is a meaningful indicator of their earnings. There were four distinct types of sellers with systematic differences across types in the proportion of sales revenue retained. Entrepreneurs who owned the drugs they sold retained the largest share (about 50 per cent). Independent consignment sellers retained less (about 25 per cent). Consignment sellers who operated within fixed selling locations or “spots” retained still less (10 per cent) and the sellers who were paid hourly to sell from spots retained the smallest proportion (3 per cent). The differences may have significant implications for the relative ability of enforcement against spots and enforcement against sellers operating outside of spots to drive up drug prices and suppress drug use.

Henry and Frank (1999) who had studied “State Drug Control Spending and Illicit Drug Participation” analysed the effect of U.S. state criminal justice expenditures and state public health expenditures on deterring illicit drug use. The empirical model is based on demand and supply model of drug markets. The effect of a given expenditure on criminal justice or public health programs is dependent on the magnitude of the resulting shifts in the two functions and the demand price elasticity. A reduced form of the demand and supply model is also estimated.

The data were obtained from the 1990 and 1991 National Household Surveys on Drug Abuse (NHSDA). Data on state and local spending for drug.

- related criminal justice programs and drug
- related public health programs were merged with the NHSDA.

Regression results indicated that drug control spending reduced drug use. However, for marijuana users the marginal cost of drug control exceeded the social benefits of drug control. This may not be the case for users of other illicit drugs. Spending for drug enforcement by police and drug treatment were found most effective in deterring drug use. However, spending for correctional facilities was never significant, which suggests that a more efficient method of reducing drug use might be to reduce spending on correctional facilities and increase spending on treatment.

CHAPTER – III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**”, is discussed under the following headings :

- 3.1 Selection of the Topic
- 3.2 Locale of the Study Area
- 3.3 Selection of the Sample
- 3.4 Period of Study
- 3.5 Sources of Data
- 3.6 Concepts Used in the Study
- 3.7 Tools of Analysis
- 3.8 Limitations of the Study

3.1 SELECTION OF THE TOPIC

In a standard literature on economic development there is frequently a noticeable reluctance to consider the economics of crime as a separate problem of importance of its own. There is a need for gender classification. In India crimes committed by women and men are fast increasing and the main cause for committing crime seems to be poverty. Economic reasons seem to be the motivating force for female and male to commit crime. So a study on

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the “Economics of Crime : A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Convicted Female and Male Criminality in Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu” seems to be appropriate to analyse with the relevant data.

3.2 LOCALE OF THE STUDY AREA

Data regarding female and male criminality was collected from the Special Prisons for Women at Vellore and from Central Prison at Salem located in Tamil Nadu. This area was selected because the investigator has more accessibility to the area.

3.3 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

Regarding female and male prisoners, 120 convicted female offenders and 200 convicted male offenders were selected for the study based on convenience sampling method.

3.4 PERIOD OF STUDY

The primary data was collected during the period 2005 – 2006. Secondary data sources are collected from 1990 – 2005.

3.5 SOURCES OF DATA

The study relies on both primary and secondary sources of data to realize its objectives. The primary data was collected from the convicted prisoners on the basis of structured, pre-tested questionnaire through personal interviews (Appendix – I). Secondary data sources of Central and State Governments such as Economic Offences Data for India, Female and Male Crime Data for Tamil Nadu was mainly taken from the publications of

- (1) National Crime Records Bureau
- (2) Latest Crime Statistical Publication

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(3) State Level Crime in India

The secondary data was collected for a period of 15 years (1990 to 2005), for the state of Tamil Nadu.

3.6 CONCEPTS USED IN THE STUDY

(i) Money Laundering

Money laundering is defined in the “International Guide to Money Laundering : Law and Practice” as “the criminal process where by the proceeds from crime are hidden and transformed by attempts to integrate them into the financial system in order to give them the appearance of legitimate funds”.

(ii) Homicidal Offences

The term homicide refers the international, accidental or justifiable killing of a human being by the human being.

(iii) Immoral Traffic

The term immoral traffic refers that procuring, inducing or taking person for the sake of prostitution.

(iv) Prohibition

The term prohibition refers to a law by which the manufacture, transportation, import, export and sale of alcoholic beverages is restricted or illegal.

(v) Smuggling

Smuggling refers to import or export without paying lawful customs charges or duties. To bring in or take out illicitly or by stealth (or) secretly importing prohibited goods or goods on which duty is due.

(vi) Tax-Evasion

An illegal practice whereby an individual intentionally avoids paying their true tax liability. Anyone caught evading taxes is generally subject to criminal charges and substantial penalties.

3.7 TOOLS OF ANALYSIS

In order to analyse the data on the basis of the objectives of the study, the collected data has been analysed using, suitable statistical techniques such as

(i) Chi-square Analysis

In order to examine the association between the socio-economic factors across the various categories of offences, chi-square test was used. The variables selected for the analysis were age, marital status, education, occupation and family income, type of housing and economic contribution of spouse.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

O_i - Observed frequency

E_i - Expected frequency

with $r-1 \times c-1$ degrees of freedom.

(ii) Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis is a multivariate statistical technique which allows to study the differences between two or more groups of objects or individuals with respect to several variables simultaneously. In the present study, discriminant analysis was used to differentiate whether the selected socio-economic factors and motivating factors for crime can significantly differentiate the two groups. The first group comprises of the respondents in homicidal offences. The second group includes other offences. The factors included were age, marital status, educational qualification, family income, reasons for committing the crime and duration of sentence.

(iii) Analysis of Variance Technique

Analysis of variance technique was used to examine the mean scores of different population between groups and within groups. The statistical inference is that $TSS = ESS + RSS$, which decomposed to total sum of squares (TSS) into two components, explained sum of squares (ESS) and residual sum of squares (RSS). To study these components in the present study, analysis of variance was applied.

(iv) Push Factors

The push factors were estimated to find out the economic and non-economic factors for committing the crime by female and male convicts.

(v) Trend Analysis

Trend analysis was used to find out the trend values for selected economic offences such as smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft for the period of 1990 – 2005 by substituting the values of 't' in the estimated growth equation.

(vi) Logit Model

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To analyse the motivating factors for the female and male criminality to indulge in criminal activity logit expression was used.

The underlying equation of the logit model was :

$$P_i = E(y = \frac{1}{X_i}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_1 + \beta_j X_i)}}$$

which had the cumulative logistic distribution function as

$$P_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z_i}}$$

In its estimable form, the equation in terms of the log of the odds ratio became

$$L_{ij} = \ln \left(\frac{P_i}{1 - P_i} \right) = Z_i = \beta_0 + \beta_j X_i$$

Since the study is based on individual data sets obtained through survey, the maximum likelihood estimation procedure was used to fit the model (Gujarati, 1995).

The rate of change in the probability in the logit model was given by

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial X_i} = \beta_i P_i (1 - P_i)$$

where β_j is the co-efficient of j^{th} regressor. P_i was evaluated at the mean level.

The advantage in the logit model was that it guaranteed the estimated probability in the 0 to 1 range and ensured that these probabilities were

non-linearly related to the explanatory variables. That is the probability tended to taper off as the values of explanatory variables approached their limits.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- Only smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft could be analysed because of the lack of accessibility to the data pertaining to other economic offences.
- The secondary data regarding the female and male criminality was analysed from 1990 to 2005. The continuous data was available only for the period 1995 to 2005.
- The study analysed the socio-economic conditions of the convicted female and male prisoners only from Special Prison for Women at Vellore and Central Prison for Men at Salem. The findings may or may not be generalized.

CHAPTER – IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME – A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**” are presented and discussed under the following headings :

- 4.1 Crime and its Classification
- 4.2 Number of Persons Arrested by Sex-wise under IPC Crimes in Tamil Nadu
- 4.3 Details of Persons Arrested by Sex-wise under IPC Crimes in Tamil Nadu
- 4.4 Trends in Economic Offences (Smuggling, Tax-Evasion, Money-Laundering, Cultural Object Theft) in India
- 4.5 Socio-Economic Profile of the Offenders (Convicted Female and Male Prisoners)
 - 4.5.1 Family Background and Classification of Crime of Convicted Prisoners
 - 4.5.2 Age
 - 4.5.3 Marital Status
 - 4.5.4 Caste
 - 4.5.5 Education
 - 4.5.6 Reasons given by the School Drop Outs
 - 4.5.7 Residential Background
 - 4.5.8 Economic Status and Occupation
 - 4.5.9 Family Income
 - 4.5.10 Family size

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- 4.5.11 Type of Housing
- 4.5.12 Perception of Economic Sufficiency
- 4.5.13 Economic Contribution of Spouse
- 4.6 Crime History
 - 4.6.1 Duration of Sentence
 - 4.6.2 Recidivism Imprisoned
 - 4.6.3 Role in Crime
 - 4.6.4 Motive for Committing Crime
 - 4.6.5 Respondents' Awareness about the Punishment and Interest in Committing the Crime Again
 - 4.6.6 Living Conditions Inside the Prison
 - 4.6.7 Rehabilitation Measures for Convicted Prisoners in Tamil Nadu

4.1 CRIME AND ITS CLASSIFICATION

Crime has been described as a negative and pervasive effect of development or as a consequence of development that is disorderly or unbalanced. The two dominant explanations of crime in developing countries have been modernization and dependency (or under development) theory.

Crime and modernization theory analyses the effect of structural changes in society. The theory is based on a synthesis of many national and comparative studies that have focused on crime patterns in developed and developing capitalist countries, and in socialist countries. The premise – that social, cultural and economic development inevitably causes increase in criminal behavior was used to analyse crime patterns in Europe during the 18th and 19th centuries, and is now being applied to developing countries in the 20th century.

Crime of one type that affects people personally include crimes like theft, robbery, assault, rape and murder. This form of crime is called direct, because it involves a direct relation between offender and victim. A special form of direct crime is official crime, violence enacted by representatives of the state.

Official crime coincides with what are usually called “Human right violations”. The fact that imprisonment, physical and psychological abuse, torture and murder are practised by the state does not mean that they are legal. All human rights violations are against international law and are almost always, against the laws of nations where they are committed. Yet without a functional and independent judicial system, those who are responsible for official crime can act with impunity.

As opposed to direct crime, indirect crime does not involve a direct relation between offender and victim. Instead it victimizes the state and as such, society as a whole. Examples are offenses such as tax evasion, money laundering or the abuse of public funds. Indirect crime may be committed not only by individuals, but also by organizations. When committed by legal organizations it is called corporate. When perpetrated by illegal organizations organized crime.

The growing sophistication in the commission of various economic crimes along with its complexities, calls for an urgent need for adoption of multi-pronged strategies by the police and the law enforcement agencies to tackle the menace. Economic offences constitute a distinct class, mainly due to the fact that they have special modus operandi. In most of these cases any individual person is not the victim. Instead, it is the state or society as a whole which suffers economic loss due to such activity. Such activities are continued

without legality, some times by taking advantage of the deficiencies of the existing legal provisions.

The economic offences cause significant damage to the general economy of the country thus adversely affecting the growth and development of the nation.

TABLE – IV
ECONOMIC OFFENCES

S.No.	Economic Crimes	Acts of Legislation	Enforcement Authorities
1.	Tax Evasion	Income Tax Act	Central Board of Direct Taxes
2.	Illicit Trafficking the Contraband Goods (Smuggling)	Customs Act 1962, COFEPOSA, 1974	Collectors of Customs
3.	Evasion of Excise Duty	Central Excise and Salt Act, 1944	Collectors of Central Excise
4.	Cultural Objects Theft	Antiquity and Art Treasurers Act, 1972	Police / CBI
5.	Money Laundering	Foreign Exchange Regulations Act, 1973	Director of Enforcement
6.	Foreign Contribution Manipulations	Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 1976	Police / CBI
7.	Land Hijacking / Real Estate Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
8.	Trade in Human Body Parts	Transplantation of Human Organs Act,	Police / CBI

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		1994	
9.	Illicit Drug Trafficking	Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances Act, 1985 and PIT NDPS Act, 1988	NCB / Police / CBI
10.	Fraudulent Bankruptcy	Banking Regulation Act, 1949	CBI
11.	Corruption and Bribery of Public Servants	Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988	State Vigilance Bureau X / CBI
12.	Bank Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
13.	Insurance Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
14.	Racketeering in Employment	IPC	Police / CBI
S.No.	Economic Crimes	Acts of Legislation	Enforcement Authorities
15.	Illegal Foreign Trade	Import and Export (Control) Act, 1947	Directorate General of Foreign Trade / CBI
16.	Racketeering in False Travel Documents	Passport Act, 1920 / IPC	Police / CBI
17.	Credit Cards Fraud	IPC	Police / CBI
18.	Terrorist Activities	Terrorist and Disruptive Activities	Police / CBI
19.	Illicit Trafficking in Arms	Arms Act, 1959	Police / CBI
20.	Illicit Trafficking in Explosives	Explosives Act, 1884 and Explosive Substance Act, 1908	Police / CBI
21.	Theft of Intellectual Property	Copy Right Act, 1957 (Amendments 1984 and 1994)	Police / CBI
22.	Computer Crime / Software Piracy	Copy Right Act, 1957	Police / CBI

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23.	Stock Manipulations	IPC	Police / CBI
24.	Company Frauds (Contraband)	Compact Act, 1956 MRTP Act, 1968	Civil in nature

Source : National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, 2005.

The economic offences may be either cognizable or non-cognizable in nature. Economic offences form a separate category of crimes under criminal offences. They are often referred to as white / blue collar crimes. Indulgence by technocrats, highly qualified persons, well to do businessmen, corporate persons, etc. in various scams and frauds facilitated by the technological advancements, is often seen. In economic offences not only individuals get victimised with pecuniary loss but, such offences often damage the national economy and defence. The offences, for example, smuggling of narcotic substances, counterfeiting of currency, financial scams, frauds etc. evoke serious concern about their impact on the nation's security and governance.

4.2 NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU

The Table – V and Figure – 1 gives crime sex-wise breakup of arrested persons under the IPC crimes from the year 1990 to 2005.

TABLE – V
NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER
IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU

Year	Number of persons arrested				
	Females	Percentage	Males	Percentage	Total
1990	35478	4.14	821736	95.96	857214
1995	75708	3.75	1943445	96.25	2019154
1996	79378	4.12	1846037	95.88	1925415

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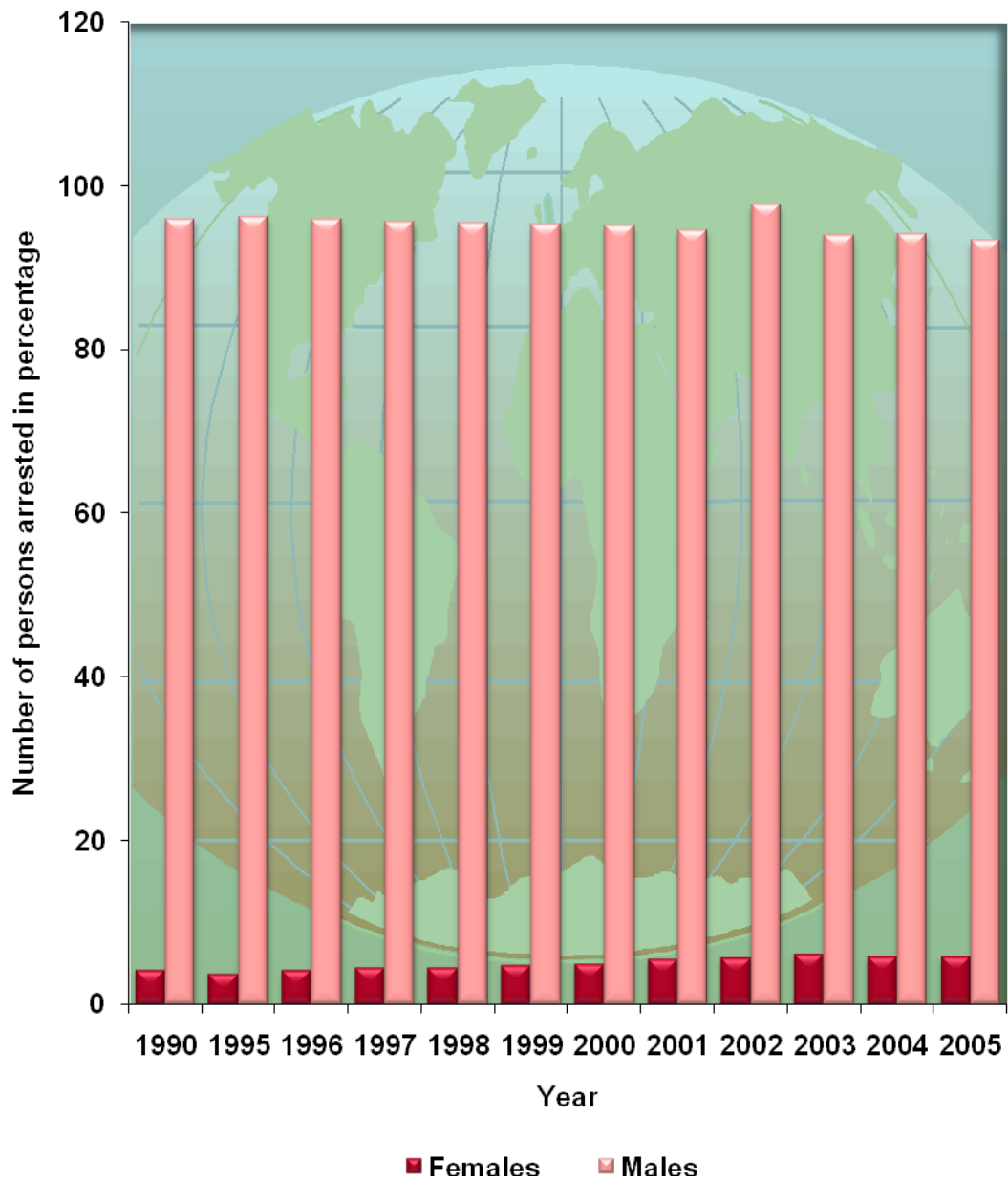
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1997	84448	4.41	1830095	95.59	1916343
1998	87248	4.46	1867795	95.54	1954863
1999	88957	4.71	1799909	95.29	1888866
2000	96453	4.85	1891123	95.15	1985099
2001	144608	5.4	2526932	94.60	2671540
2002	146308	5.6	2550235	97.69	2610668
2003	151675	6.0	2359217	94.00	2510892
2004	153969	5.8	2506941	94.20	2660910
2005	151309	5.8	2470238	93.33	2621547

Source : Crime in India, Ministry of Home Affairs.

In Tamil Nadu the number of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crimes from 1990 to 2005 is shown in Table – V. The table reveals that the total number of persons arrested in the year 1990 was 857214, in this female constituted 4.14 per cent and male constituted 95.96 per cent. In the year 2005, the total number of persons arrested was 2621547. The female constituted 5.8 per cent and male constituted 93.33 per cent. Between the years 1990 to 2005, the highest number of persons were arrested in the year 2001 (2671540). In this female constituted 5.4 per cent and male constituted

FIGURE – 1
NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER
IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU



94.6 per cent. Regarding female criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2003, was six per cent and among the male criminality Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2002, constituted 97.69 per cent.

The table shows that the percentage of female criminality has increased from 3.75 per cent in 1995 to six per cent in 2003. Contrary to this, the percentage of male criminality has declined from 96.25 per cent in 1995 to 94 per cent in 2003. Regarding the number of persons arrested between 1990 to 2005 female criminality shows an increasing trend and male criminality shows a declining trend.

4.3 DETAILS OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU

Men and women resort to crime for a number of purposes. The Table – VI gives details of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crime in Tamil Nadu for the period 1990 to 2005. Crimes can be classified as the economic and non-economic crimes. Even some of the non-economic crimes are done to gain something financially out of the crime. The table shows that the heads of crimes are classified into murder, culpable homicide, rape, kidnapping and abduction, dacoity, robbery, burglary, theft, riots, criminal breach of trust, cheating, counterfeiting and miscellaneous.

From the year 2001 to 2005 the data includes crimes like arson, hurt, dowry death, molestation, sexual harassment, cruelty by husband and relatives, importation of girls, causing death by negligence, other IPC crimes and total cognizable crimes under IPC. The following Table – VI shows details of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crimes in Tamil Nadu for the period 1990 to 2005.

TABLE – VI
DETAILS OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN
TAMIL NADU FOR THE PERIOD 1990 – 2005
(a) 1990 – 1995

Heads of Crime	1990				1995			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	973	1.81	52713	98.19	2926	3.53	79862	96.46
Culpabale Homicide	92	8.04	1052	91.96	403	4.99	7660	95.00
Rape	69	6.63	972	93.37	274	1.45	18574	98.55
Kidnapping and Abduction	75	0.98	7543	99.01	1255	4.65	25742	95.35
Dacoity	32	0.34	9346	99.66	297	1.16	25319	98.84
Robbery	236	3.38	6746	96.62	168	0.58	28877	99.42
Burglary	532	7.06	7002	92.94	1267	1.67	74802	98.33
Theft	1320	5.63	22134	94.37	4237	2.33	177051	97.67
Riots	14042	8.45	152160	91.55	22112	4.31	490380	95.69
Criminal Breach of Trust	123	2.51	4780	97.49	270	1.82	14537	98.18
Cheating	192	2.01	9346	97.99	806	2.90	26920	97.09
Counterfeiting	9	2.04	431	97.95	7	0.81	861	99.19
Miscellaneous	17783	3.15	547511	96.85	41687	4.11	972860	95.89
Total	35478	4.14	821736	95.96	75708	3.75	1943445	96.25

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(b) 1996 – 1997

Heads of Crime	1996				1997			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	3168	3.92	77590	96.08	3473	4.36	76151	95.64
Culpabale Homicide	332	4.12	7725	95.88	237	2.88	7983	97.12
Rape	287	1.46	19336	98.54	317	1.58	19731	98.41
Kidnapping and Abduction	2770	10.02	24881	89.98	1500	5.40	26271	94.59
Dacoity	96	0.38	24546	99.61	1902	0.41	24560	99.58
Robbery	177	0.61	28898	99.39	132	0.45	28706	99.54
Burglary	1187	1.57	74232	98.43	1141	1.69	66016	98.30
Theft	4424	2.46	175134	97.54	4193	2.52	162516	97.48
Riots	23242	4.85	455925	95.15	24696	5.39	433138	94.61
Criminal Breach of Trust	271	1.71	15584	98.29	321	2.27	13801	97.72

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Cheating	952	3.06	30146	96.93	958	3.27	28337	96.72
Counterfeiting	12	1.67	705	98.33	17	1.75	954	98.24
Miscellaneous	42460	4.45	911335	95.54	47361	4.78	941931	95.21
Total	79378	4.12	1846037	95.88	84448	4.41	1830095	95.59

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(c) 1998 – 2000

Heads of Crime	1998				1999				2000			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	3444	4.25	77649	95.75	3492	4.77	73842	96.54	3573	4.31	79356	95.69
Culpabale Homicide	258	3.45	7208	96.54	186	2.58	7018	97.42	339	3.91	8326	96.09
Rape	335	1.72	19143	98.28	448	2.21	19865	97.79	541	2.43	21736	97.57
Kidnapping and Abduction	1522	4.99	28998	95.01	1595	5.25	28788	94.75	1677	5.52	28686	94.48
Dacoity	200	0.79	25021	99.21	91	0.39	23230	99.61	123	0.49	24811	99.51
Robbery	155	0.49	31638	99.51	153	0.51	29562	99.49	165	0.51	31968	99.49
Burglary	1022	1.41	71353	98.59	989	1.41	69200	98.59	1152	1.59	71273	98.41
Theft	4405	2.64	162723	97.36	4332	2.54	166028	97.46	4872	2.92	162176	97.08
Riots	23076	5.26	415894	94.74	21393	5.39	375673	94.61	22841	5.00	433626	94.99
Criminal Breach of Trust	426	2.82	14693	97.18	422	2.76	14845	97.24	443	2.87	14999	97.13
Cheating	1185	3.66	31213	96.34	1222	3.49	33724	96.50	1876	5.09	34996	94.91
Counterfeiting	11	0.67	1638	99.33	51	3.24	1521	96.76	62	3.45	1734	96.55
Miscellaneous	51029	4.96	980624	95.04	54583	5.39	956613	94.60	56312	5.45	977436	94.55

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Total	87248	4.46	1867795	95.54	88957	4.71	1799909	95.29	96453	4.85	1891123	95.15
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Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(d) 2001

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3434	4.6	71888	95.4	75322
2.	Attempt to commit murder	1995	2.6	75844	97.4	77839
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	123	1.9	6472	98.1	6595
4.	Rape	495	2.4	19951	97.6	20446
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0	0	0	0
	(ii) Other rape	495	2.4	19951	97.6	20446
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1506	4.9	29379	95.1	30885
	(i) Of women and girls	1214	6.8	16605	93.2	17819
	(ii) Of others	292	2.2	12774	97.8	13066
6.	Dacoity	107	0.4	24396	99.6	24503
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	28	0.4	7402	99.6	7430
8.	Robbery	128	0.4	29395	99.6	29523
9.	Burglary	1039	1.6	65857	98.4	66896
10.	Theft	4250	2.6	157964	97.4	162214
	(i) Auto theft	151	0.5	30082	99.5	30233
	(ii) Other theft	4099	3.1	127882	96.9	131981
11.	Riots	20826	5.2	377540	94.8	398366
12.	Criminal breach of trust	422	2.7	15229	97.3	15651
13.	Cheating	1484	3.5	41303	96.5	42787

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14.	Counterfeiting	41	2.1	1939	97.9	1980
15.	Arson	269	2.0	13465	98.0	13734
16.	Hurt	30506	6.2	458080	93.8	488586
17.	Dowry death	4473	21.9	15908	78.1	20381
18.	Molestation	511	1.1	41733	98.9	42244
19.	Sexual harassment	140	1.1	12299	98.9	12439
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	25921	23.7	83546	76.3	109467
21.	Importation of girls	14	6.4	206	93.6	220
22.	Causing death by negligence	426	4.8	52280	95.2	52706
23.	Other IPC crimes	46470	4.8	924856	95.2	971326
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	144608	5.4	2526932	94.6	2671540

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(e) 2002

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3589	4.8	71438	95.2	75027
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2225	2.9	75587	97.1	77812
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	142	2.0	6925	98.0	7067
4.	Rape	456	2.1	20780	97.9	21236
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0	0	0	0
	(ii) Other rape	456	2.1	20780	97.9	21236
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1753	5.7	28975	94.3	30728
	(i) Of women and girls	1354	7.4	16867	92.6	18221
	(ii) Of others	399	3.2	12108	96.8	12507
6.	Dacoity	174	0.7	23303	99.3	23477
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	2	0	8061	100.0	8063
8.	Robbery	140	0.5	27437	99.5	27577
9.	Burglary	1200	1.9	63478	98.1	64678
10.	Theft	4951	3.0	158524	97.0	163475
	(i) Auto theft	229	0.8	30227	99.2	30456

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	(ii) Other theft	4722	3.5	128297	96.5	133019
11.	Riots	19422	5.2	355577	94.8	374999
12.	Criminal breach of trust	478	3.1	15033	96.9	15511
13.	Cheating	1786	3.9	43890	96.1	45676
14.	Counterfeiting	69	3.0	2197	97.0	2266
15.	Arson	315	1.7	17902	98.3	18217
16.	Hurt	30910	6.4	451234	93.6	482144
17.	Dowry death	4325	23.6	14021	76.4	18346
18.	Molestation	668	1.2	42493	98.8	43161
19.	Sexual harassment	158	1.2	12540	98.8	12698
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	25484	22.6	87472	77.4	112956
21.	Importation of girls	12	11.9	89	88.1	101
22.	Causing death by negligence	165	0.3	57386	99.7	57551
23.	Other IPC crimes	47884	4.7	965893	95.3	1013777
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	146308	5.4	2550235	94.6	2696543

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(f) 2003

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3501	5.3	62495	94.7	65996
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2469	3.9	61393	96.1	63862
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	162	2.1	7546	97.9	7708
4.	Rape	495	2.5	19499	97.5	19994
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
	(ii) Other rape	495	2.5	19499	97.5	19994
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1450	5.5	25091	94.5	26541
	(i) Of women and girls	1116	7.1	14527	92.9	15643
	(ii) Of others	334	3.1	10564	96.9	10898
6.	Dacoity	102	0.5	18740	99.5	18842
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	14	0.1	10148	99.9	10162

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8.	Robbery	184	0.7	26152	99.3	26336
9.	Burglary	1090	1.8	60307	98.2	61397
10.	Theft	5280	3.3	154238	96.7	159518
	(i) Auto theft	76	0.2	32118	99.8	32194
	(ii) Other theft	5204	4.1	122120	95.9	127324
11.	Riots	17884	5.5	306120	94.5	324004
12.	Criminal breach of trust	504	3.3	14651	96.7	15155
13.	Cheating	2074	4.6	42799	95.4	44873
14.	Counterfeiting	43	1.8	2283	98.2	2326
15.	Arson	250	2.1	11892	97.9	12142
16.	Hurt	32591	6.9	437862	93.1	470453
17.	Dowry death	3861	23.2	12775	76.8	16636
18.	Molestation	834	2.0	41610	98.0	42444
19.	Sexual harassment	214	1.4	15137	98.6	15351
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	26465	23.9	84158	76.1	110623
21.	Importation of girls	3	5.5	52	94.5	55
22.	Causing death by negligence	279	0.5	53036	99.5	53315
23.	Other IPC crimes	51926	5.5	891233	94.5	943159
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	151675	6.0	2359217	94.0	2510892

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(g) 2004

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3475	5.2	62740	94.8	66215
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2236	3.3	65536	96.7	67772
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	159	2.2	7071	97.8	7230
4.	Rape	525	2.3	21964	97.7	22489
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
	(ii) Other rape	525	2.3	21963	97.7	22488
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1685	5.7	29419	94.6	31104

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	(i) Of women and girls	1373	7.1	17877	92.9	19250
	(ii) Of others	312	2.6	11542	97.4	11854
6.	Dacoity	146	0.7	19905	99.3	20051
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	12	0.1	9866	99.9	9878
8.	Robbery	160	0.6	27530	99.4	27690
9.	Burglary	971	1.5	63484	98.5	64455
10.	Theft	4769	2.6	181236	97.4	186005
	(i) Auto theft	75	0.2	37401	99.8	37476
	(ii) Other theft	4694	3.2	143835	96.8	148529
11.	Riots	15768	4.7	318771	95.3	334539
12.	Criminal breach of trust	478	3.1	15080	96.9	15558
13.	Cheating	2351	4.8	46152	95.2	48503
14.	Counterfeiting	80	3.3	2361	96.7	2441
15.	Arson	283	2.4	11645	97.6	11928
16.	Hurt	32220	6.6	256922	93.4	489142
17.	Dowry death	4147	22.9	13972	77.1	18119
18.	Molestation	843	1.9	42736	98.1	43579
19.	Sexual harassment	255	2.0	12516	98.0	12771
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	27832	22.1	97825	77.9	125651
21.	Importation of girls	3	4.4	65	95.6	68
22.	Causing death by negligence	556	0.9	61093	99.1	61649
23.	Other IPC crimes	55015	5.8	939052	94.5	994067
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	153969	5.8	2506941	94.2	2660910

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(h) 2005

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3684	5.6	61958	94.38	65642
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2091	3.2	62635	96.8	64726
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	151	2.2	6675	97.8	6826

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4.	Rape	572	2.5	22640	97.5	23212
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
	(ii) Other rape	572	2.5	22637	97.5	23209
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1757	5.5	30033	94.5	31790
	(i) Of women and girls	1369	7.1	17957	92.9	19326
	(ii) Of others	388	3.1	12076	96.9	12464
6.	Dacoity	202	1.0	19414	99.0	19616
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	17	0.2	11029	99.8	11046
8.	Robbery	1380	2.1	65642	97.9	67022
9.	Burglary	156	0.6	27834	99.4	27990
10.	Theft	6110	2.9	202560	97.1	208670
	(i) Auto theft	108	0.2	43334	99.8	43442
	(ii) Other theft	6002	3.6	159226	96.4	165228
11.	Riots	15882	4.9	304991	95.1	320873
12.	Criminal breach of trust	534	3.4	15278	96.6	15812
13.	Cheating	2445	4.9	47415	95.1	49860
14.	Counterfeiting	54	2.1	2553	97.9	2607
15.	Arson	315	2.7	11366	97.3	11681
16.	Hurt	29180	6.3	435829	93.7	465009
17.	Dowry death	3848	22.4	13325	77.6	17173
18.	Molestation	719	1.7	42705	98.3	43434
19.	Sexual harassment	154	1.2	13038	98.8	13192
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	28745	22.5	98815	77.5	127560
21.	Importation of girls	22	10.4	190	89.6	212
22.	Causing death by negligence	258	0.4	62726	99.6	62984
23.	Other IPC crimes	53174	5.5	911587	94.5	964761
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	151309	5.8	2470238	94.2	2621547

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

In case of murder a comparison of female and male offenders percentage in the year 1990 reveals that while female constituted 1.81 per cent and male constituted 98.19 per cent. In the year 2000, the female

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percentage has increased to 4.31 per cent while male percentage had decreased to 95.69 per cent. In case of culpable homicide in the year 1990, 8.04 per cent were female offenders and 91.96 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders percentage was decreased to 3.91 per cent and the male offenders percentage was increased to 96.09 per cent. In case of rape in the year 1990, the female offenders constituted 6.63 per cent and the male offenders constituted 93.37 per cent. In the year 2000, the female offenders were decreased to 2.43 per cent and the male offenders were increased to 97.57 per cent. In case of rape the majority of the offenders were men, while a minimum percentage of females helped the men in this crime.

In the year 1990, 0.98 per cent of the female offenders and 99.01 per cent of the male offenders involved in kidnapping and abduction. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 5.52 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 94.48 per cent. In case of dacoity in the year 1990, 0.34 per cent were female offenders and 99.66 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female percentage has increased to 0.49 per cent and the male percentage has decreased to 99.51 per cent. In case of robbery in the year 1990, 3.38 per cent were female offenders and 96.62 per cent were male offenders. In 2000, the female offenders has fallen to 0.51 per cent and the male offenders had increased to 99.49 per cent.

In case of burglary in the year 1990, 7.06 per cent were female offenders and 92.94 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has decreased to 1.59 per cent and the male offenders was increased to 98.41 per cent. In case of theft in the year 1990, 5.63 per cent were female offenders and 94.37 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders were decreased to 2.92 per cent and the male offenders has increased to 97.08 per cent.

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In case of riots in the year 1990, 8.45 per cent were female offenders and 91.55 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has decreased to five per cent and male offenders increased to 94.99 per cent. In case of criminal breach of trust in the year 1990, 2.51 per cent were female offenders and 97.49 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 2.87 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 97.13 per cent.

In case of cheating in the year 1990, 2.01 per cent were female offenders and 97.99 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 5.09 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 94.91 per cent. In case of counterfeiting in the year 1990, 2.04 per cent were female offenders and 97.95 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 3.45 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 96.55 per cent.

In case of miscellaneous offences like arson, hurt, dowry death, molestation, sexual harassment, cruelty by husband and relatives, importation of girls, causing death by negligence, other IPC crimes and total cognizable crimes under IPC in the year 1990 shows 3.15 per cent were female offenders and 96.85 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders had increased to 5.45 per cent and the male offenders had fallen to 94.55 per cent.

While comparing 2001 to 2005 with regard to murder in the year 2001, 4.6 per cent were female offenders and 95.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders were increased to 5.6 per cent and the male offenders were decreased to 94.38 per cent. In case of attempt to commit murder in the year 2001, 2.6 per cent were female offenders and 97.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders has

increased to 3.2 per cent and the male offenders also increased to 96.8 per cent.

In case of culpable homicide in the year 2001, 1.9 per cent were female offenders and 98.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.2 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.8 per cent. In case of rape in the year 2001, 2.4 per cent were female offenders and 97.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.5 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.5 per cent. In case of kidnapping and abduction in the year 2001, 4.9 per cent were female offenders and 95.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders had increased to 5.5 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 94.5 per cent. In case of dacoity in the year 2001, 0.4 per cent were female offenders and 99.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders increased to one per cent and the male offenders had decreased to 99 per cent.

In case of robbery in the year 2001, 0.4 per cent were female offenders and 99.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders has increased to 2.1 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 97.9 per cent. In case of burglary in the year 2001, 1.6 per cent were female offenders and 98.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has decreased to 0.6 per cent and male offenders had increased to 99.4 per cent. In committing theft in the year 2001, 2.6 per cent were female offenders and 97.4 per cent in male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.9 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.1 per cent. In case of riots, in the year 2001, 5.2 per cent were female offenders and 94.8 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has decreased to 4.9 per cent and male offenders increased to 95.1 per cent.

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In case of criminal breach of trust in the year 2001, 2.7 per cent were female offenders and 97.3 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders had increased to 3.4 per cent and male offenders decreased 96.6 per cent. In case of cheating, in the year 2001, 3.5 per cent were female offenders and 96.5 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 4.9 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 95.1 per cent. In case of counterfeiting in the year 2001, 2.1 per cent female offenders and 97.9 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders and male offenders remains the same 2.1 per cent and 97.9 per cent. In case of arson, female offenders constitutes two per cent and male offenders constitutes 98 per cent. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.7 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.3 per cent.

In case of hurt in the year 2001, 6.2 per cent were female offenders and 93.8 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 6.3 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 93.7 per cent. In case of dowry death in the year 2001, 21.9 per cent were female offenders and 78.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 22.4 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 77.6 per cent. In case of molestation in the year 2001, 1.1 per cent were female offenders and 98.9 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 1.7 per cent and male offenders decreased to 98.3 per cent. In case of sexual harassment in the year 2001, 1.1 per cent were female offenders and 98.9 per cent were male offenders in the year 2005, female offenders has increased 1.2 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 98.8 per cent.

In case of cruelty by husband and relatives in the year 2001, 23.7 per cent were female offenders and 76.3 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders decreased to 22.5 per cent and male offenders

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increased to 77.5 per cent. In case of importation of girls in 2001, 6.4 per cent were female offenders and 93.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 10.4 per cent and male offenders decreased to 89.6 per cent.

In case of causing death by negligence in the year 2001, 4.8 per cent were female offenders and 95.2 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders decreased to 0.4 per cent and the male offenders increased to 99.6 per cent. In case of other IPC crimes in the year 2001, 4.8 per cent were female offenders and 95.2 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 5.5 per cent and male offenders decreased to 94.5 per cent. In case of total cognizable crimes under IPC in the year 2001, 5.4 per cent were female offenders and 94.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 5.8 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 94.2 per cent.

4.4 TRENDS IN ECONOMIC OFFENCES (SMUGGLING, TAX-EVASION, MONEY LAUNDERING, CULTURAL OBJECT THEFT) IN INDIA

Economic crime, smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft are no new phenomena in our societies. These activities have developed over a long period of time. What is new is that they have now grown to an extent such that they pose real risks to economic and social stability at regional, national and international level, with possibly serious political consequences in less consolidated states and democracies.

The world's major economics continue to liberalise their economics. Far reaching economic reforms are taking place in former socialist societies and profound transformations from closed to open economics are under way, resulting in ever greater economic globalization. The global liberalization includes spectacular growth of capital markets and previously unencountered

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freedom of, and capacity for, money transfers and capital movements. In such conditions economic crime, including organized economic crime have been able to grow with alarming speed, often ignoring borders and spanning continents in ways reminiscent of that other world wide phenomenon, the multinational enterprise.

Table – VII shows the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft).

TABLE – VII
TRENDS IN ECONOMIC OFFENCES (SMUGGLING, TAX-EVASION, MONEY LAUNDERING
AND CULTURAL OBJECT THEFT) IN INDIA

Economic offences Year	Smuggling				Tax-evasion				Money laundering				Cultural object theft			
	Total number of seizures	Chain growth	Value in crores	Chain growth	Number of searches conducted	Chain growth	Assets seized in crores	Chain growth	Number of searches	Chain growth	Values in crores	Chain growth	Property stolen	Chain growth	Value recovered	Chain growth
1990	67613	-	720.00		5474		227.85		2114		1389		739		272.9	
1991	60173	-11.00	774.90	7.63	3468	-36.65	179.85	-21.07	2319	9.70	1482	6.70	1470	98.91	177.6	-34.92
1992	59270	-1.50	502.10	-35.20	4777	37.75	384.02	113.52	1215	-47.61	738	-50.20	964	-34.42	145.2	-18.24
1993	52963	-10.64	389.00	-22.53	5026	5.21	396.46	3.24	1234	1.56	843	14.23	1208	25.31	272.9	87.95
1994	49997	-5.60	535.20	37.58	4830	-3.90	381.43	-3.79	1540	24.80	1046	24.08	1483	22.76	124.6	-54.34
1995	55947	11.90	1062.00	98.43	4612	-4.51	458.14	20.11	1175	-23.70	832	-20.46	3759	153.47	98.5	-20.94
1996	49580	-11.38	553.40	-47.89	4299	-6.79	405.63	-11.46	1164	-0.94	868	4.33	2870	-23.64	133.4	35.43
1997	48993	-1.18	983.90	77.79	3653	-15.03	306.85	-24.35	1238	6.36	946	8.99	1677	-41.57	168.5	26.31
1998	39906	-18.55	1274.40	29.53	5746	57.30	300.54	-2.06	544	-56.06	361	-61.84	2600	55.04	464.8	175.84
1999	40066	0.40	436.40	-65.76	5469	-4.82	384.18	27.83	387	-28.86	299	-17.17	1460	-43.84	103.6	-77.71
2000	39178	-2.22	698.50	60.06	5321	-2.71	512.36	33.36	330	-14.73	262	-12.37	3139	115	173.9	67.85
2001	38998	-0.46	1019.70	45.98	4358	-18.10	344.34	-32.79	295	-10.61	207	-20.99	1913	-39.05	445.6	156.23
2002	38298	-1.79	369.25	-63.79	-	-	-	-	417	41.36	393	89.86	967	-49.45	102.5	-76.99
2003	50872	32.83	618.35	67.46	2492	-42.82	213.37	-38.04	242	-41.97	175	-55.47	2213	128.85	360.1	251.31
2004	44478	-12.57	1053.58	70.39	2377	-4.61	202.28	-5.20	78	-67.77	56	-68.00	2913	31.63	368	2.19

2005	323	-99.27	220.32	-79.09	3364	41.52	351.70	73.87	146	87.18	106	89.29	1012	27.37	310.6	2.03
CV	32.55		43.21		24.52		28.92		77.62		72.63		46.62	250.67	47.79	276.74
Cgr	-12.79		-1.46		-3.01		0.17		-17.86		-16.81		-11.06		-2.81	

Source : National Crime Records Bureau (2005).

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During the period of study, in the average number of seizure under smuggling was 46040, while the amount of seizure in value terms was Rs.700.69 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed greater variations (43.21 per cent) when compared to number of seizures (32.55 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of seizures and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth excepting in the years 1995, 1999 and 2003 which showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend almost in all periods excepting 1994, 1997, 2000 and 2003. However the chain growth exhibited positive trend. Taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of seizures and value of seizures were negative (-12.79 per cent and -1.46 per cent respectively).

The seizure by income tax department, during the period of study the average number of searches was 5379, while the amount of asset seized in value terms was Rs.317.9 crores. The co-efficient of variations indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed greater variations (28.92 per cent) when compared to number of searches (24.52 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of searches and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth excepting the years during 1992, 1993, 1998 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend almost in all periods excepting 1992, 1993, 1995, 1999, 2000 and 2005. However the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of the study. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches

conducted was negative, – 3.01 per cent and value of assets seized was positive 0.17 per cent.

In money laundering the average number of searches conducted was 902, while the amount of seizure in value terms was Rs.625.19 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed less variations (72.63 per cent) when compared to number of searches (77.62 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of searches and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. The growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth 1991, 1993, 1994, 1997, 2002 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend in almost all periods. However, the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of searches and value of seizures was negative, – 17.86 per cent and – 16.81 per cent respectively.

In cultural object stolen and recovered, the average number of property stolen was 1958, while the property recovered was in value terms Rs.596.07 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the property recovered in value terms showed less variations (47.79 per cent) when compared to the property stolen (46.62 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of property stolen and property recovered was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in property recovered in value terms was in general positive. The chain growth excepting the years 1991, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2003, 2004 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly the property recovered in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend in almost all periods excepting 1993, 1996, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2004 and 2005. However, the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of

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the study, the average compound rate of growth for the property stolen and property recovered in value terms was negative, – 11.06 per cent and – 2.81 per cent respectively.

4.5 SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE OFFENDERS (CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE PRISONERS)

4.5.1 Family Background and Classification of Crime of Convicted Prisoners

The life and the attitude of an individual depends on the life which he lives with his community environment and is a powerful force which shapes his destiny. The socio-economic conditions of an individual influence his behaviour in the community. The investigator would like to analyse the socio-economic profile of the offenders in order to estimate how they effected their criminal activity. An attempt is made to understand the socio-economic, familial characteristics as well as the criminal history of the offenders. Information pertaining to variables such as family, work experience and perception have been elicited with the aid of an interview schedule. The purpose in examining such characteristics has been to identify whether there is a profile in terms of socio-economic and familial factors that can be typically associated with this group of men and women convicts. For authenticity, convicted offenders whose criminality is indisputable have been chosen as the samples for the study within the convicted groups too. The emphasis has been, as much as possible, on the more serious offender who has been awarded a long-term sentence. The primary data was collected from the Special Prison for Women at Vellore and Central Prison for Men at Salem.

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Figures 2 and 3 show the entrance of the Special Prison for Women at Vellore, and Central Prison for Men at Salem respectively.

When examining the offenders a fundamental distinction based on nature of offences was necessary. This is essential because, though the offenders apparently appear homogenous, they are basically different due to the nature of the crime committed. The women prisoners were classified as homicidal offenders, property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders. The men prisoners were classified as homicidal

FIGURE – 2
ENTRANCE OF THE SPECIAL PRISON FOR WOMEN AT VELLORE



FIGURE – 3
ENTRANCE OF THE CENTRAL PRISON FOR MEN AT SALEM



offenders, property offenders, prohibition offenders and theft offenders. Similar characteristics for the entire group may be there but basic differences between the categories cannot be overlooked. In case of female offenders, the comparison of a homicidal offender and an immoral traffic offender, will bring out the fundamental variations in the nature of offence, the circumstantial differences in the commission of crime, the period of sentencing and so on. In recognition of these differences, the respondents have been categorized on the basis of crime types for the purpose of bringing out the inherent background variations of each group.

The Table – VIII and Figure – 4 shows the classification of convicted prisoners.

TABLE – VIII
CLASSIFICATION OF CONVICTED PRISONERS

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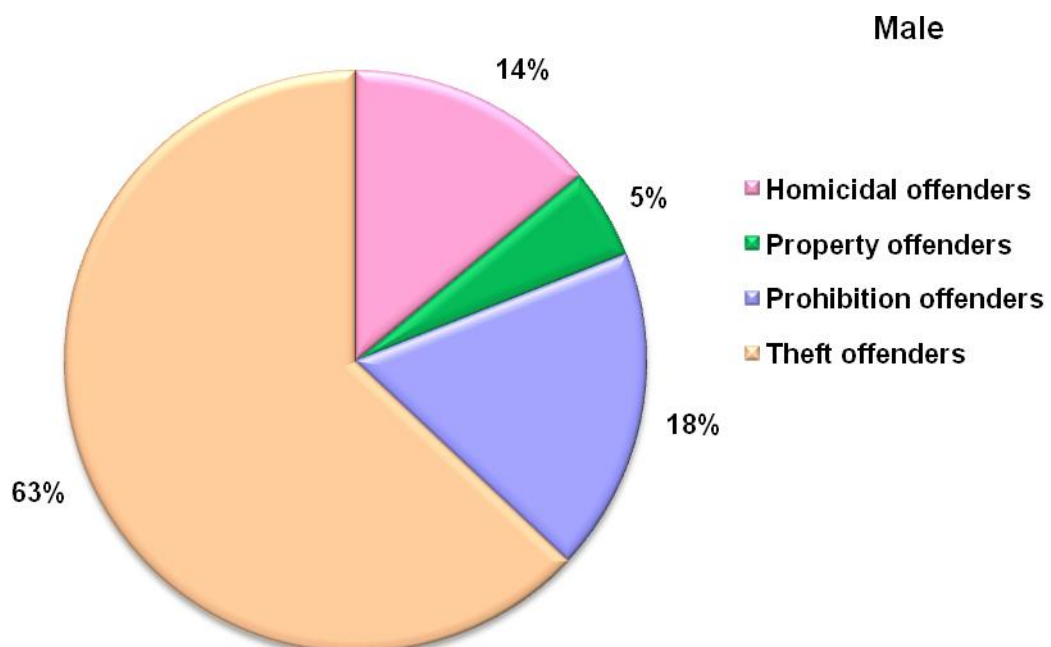
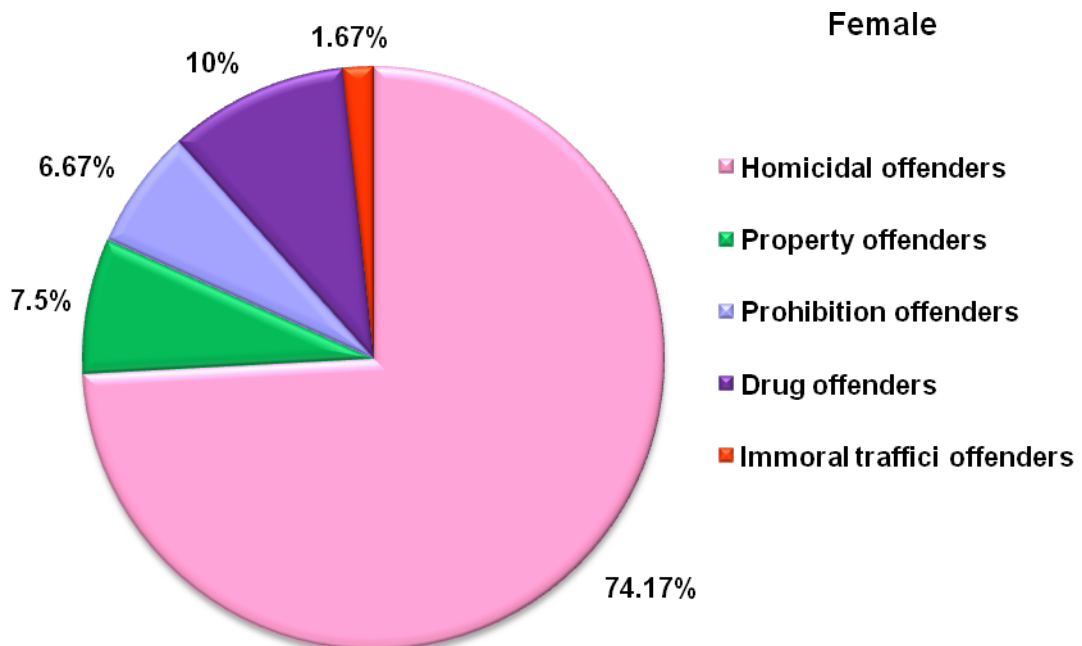
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Types of crime committed	Number of convicted prisoners				Total	
	Female		Male			
Homicidal offenders	89 (74.17)	(76.07)	28 (14.00)	(23.93)	117 (36.56)	(100.00)
Property offenders	9 (7.50)	(47.37)	10 (5.00)	(52.63)	19 (5.94)	(100.00)
Prohibition offenders	8 (6.67)	(18.18)	36 (18.00)	(81.82)	44 (13.75)	(100.00)
Drug offenders	12 (10.00)	(100.00)	-	-	12 (3.75)	(100.00)
Immoral traffic offenders	2 (1.67)	(100.00)	-	-	2 (0.62)	(100.00)
Theft offenders	-		126 (63.00)	(100.00)	126 (39.37)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.5)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320	

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – VIII, shows that from the 120 female convicted prisoners, a majority of 74.17 per cent comes under the category of homicidal offenders,

FIGURE – 4
CLASSIFICATION OF CONVICTED PRISONERS



10 per cent were drug offenders, 7.5 per cent were property offenders, 6.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and only 1.67 per cent of the female convicted prisoners committed immoral traffic offence. None of the female convicts committed theft offence. From the 200 male prisoners, a majority of them (63 per cent) of convicted come under the category of theft offence, 18 per cent of the male convicts were prohibition offenders and 14 per cent of the male convicted prisoners comes under the category of homicidal offenders. Only five per cent were property offenders. None of the convicted male prisoners involved in drug and immoral traffic offences. From 117 homicidal offenders, 76.07 per cent were female offenders and 23.93 per cent were male offenders. Among the 19 property offenders, 47.37 per cent were female offenders and 52.63 per cent were male offenders. Among the 44 prohibition offenders, 18.18 per cent were female offenders and 81.82 per cent were male offenders. Among the 12 drug offenders, 100 per cent were female offenders. Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were female offenders and among the 126 theft offenders, 100 per cent were male offenders.

Comparatively, among the 117 homicidal offenders, 89 were female offenders and 28 were male offenders. This shows homicidal offenders were very common among female convicts. Regarding property offenders, prohibition offenders and theft offenders, male offenders are more in the sample. Only female offenders committed drug offences and immoral traffic offences.

4.5.2 Age

The age of the offender is recorded by the police routinely at the time of arrest. Usually the nature of crime committed by the offenders depends upon the age at which it was committed.

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Table – IX and Figure – 5 shows the age distribution of female respondents by the type of crime.

TABLE – IX
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME

Age distribution	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
20 – 25	3 (60.00) (3.37)	2 (40.00) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	5 (100.00) (4.17)
25 – 30	11 (84.61) (12.36)	2 (15.38) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
30 – 35	17 (85.00) (19.10)	1 (5.00) (11.11)	0 (0.00)	2 (10.00) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	20 (100.00) (16.67)
35 – 40	14 (70.00) (15.73)	0 (0.00)	2 (10.00) (25.00)	4 (20.00) (33.33)	0 (0.00)	20 (100.00) (16.67)
40 – 45	9 (60.00) (10.11)	2 (13.33) (22.22)	2 (13.33) (25.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (13.33) (100.00)	15 (100.00) (12.05)
45 – 50	10 (83.33) (11.24)	0 (0.00)	2 (16.67) (25.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	12 (100.00) (10.00)
50 – 55	3 (60.00) (3.37)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (40.00) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	5 (100.00) (4.17)
55 – 60	7 (77.78) (7.87)	2 (22.22) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	9 (100.00) (7.5)
60 – 65	9 (69.23) (10.11)	0 (0.00)	2 (15.38) (25.00)	2 (15.38) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
65 – 70	4 (66.67) (4.49)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (33.33) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
70 – 75	0 (0.00) (10.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (100.00) (0.00)
75 – 80	2 (100.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (100.00) (1.67)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

Usually the age of the prisoners is taken into account to decide the prison in which they will be imprisoned. For the offenders who are below and above 12 years, juvenile home is the place where they are kept. The offenders between 12 and 18 years are kept in juvenile prisons constructed

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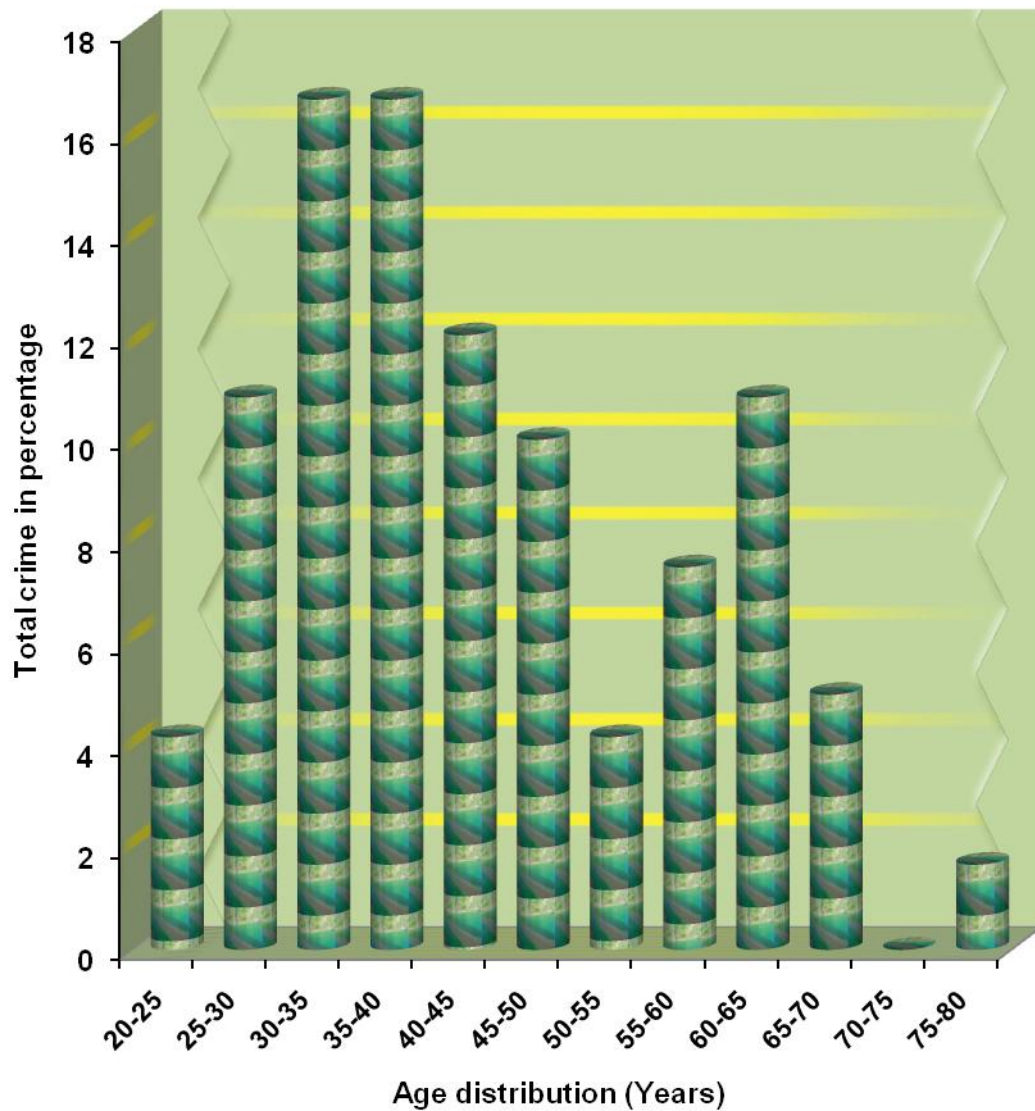
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for the purpose so as to give them proper education to reform themselves. The offenders above 18 years only are kept in the central prison.

It is observed from the Table – IX, that among the 89 female homicidal offenders, only 3.37 per cent were in the age group of 20-25 years and

FIGURE – 5
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME



68.54 per cent of the female homicidal offenders belonged to the age category of 25-50 years. The remaining 28.09 per cent of the female

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homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 50-80 years. And no female in the age group of 70-75 years were involved in the homicidal offences.

Among the nine female property offenders, 55.55 per cent belonged to the age group of 20-35 years and 22.22 per cent belonged to 40-45 years and 55-60 years. None of the female property offenders belonged to the age group of 35-40 years or 45-55 years or 60-80 years.

From the eight female prohibition offenders, majority of the 75 per cent belonged to the age category of 35-50 years and the remaining 25 per cent were in the age group of 60-65 years. From the 12 female drug offenders, 50 per cent of the respondents belonged to the age group of 30-45 years, 16.67 per cent of the female respondents were in the age group of 50-55 years and 33.34 per cent of the female drug offenders belonged to the age group of 60-70 years. From two female immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were from 40-45 years.

From the five female offenders involved in the age group of 20-25 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders and 40 per cent were property offenders. None of them were prohibition offenders, drug offenders or immoral traffic offenders. From the 13 female offenders in the age group of 25-30 years, 84.61 per cent were homicidal offenders and 15.38 per cent were property offenders. None of them in the age group of 25-30 years were prohibition offenders, drug offenders or immoral traffic offenders.

From 20 female offenders in the age group of 30-35 years, 85 per cent were homicidal offenders, five per cent were property offenders and 10 per cent were drug offenders. None of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders belonged to the age group of 30-35 years. Among the 20 female offenders in the age group of 35-40 years, 70 per cent were homicidal offenders ; 10 per cent were prohibition offenders and 20 per cent were drug

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offenders. None of the property and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 35-40 years. Among the 15 female offenders in the age group of 40-45 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders, 13.33 per cent were property offenders, 13.33 per cent were prohibition offenders, and 13.33 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the drug offenders were in the age group of 40-45 years.

Among the 12 female offenders of 45-50 years, 83.33 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 16.67 per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the property offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 45-50 years. From the five female offenders in the age group of 50-55 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 40 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 50-55 years.

Among the nine female offenders from 55-60 years, 77.78 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 22.22 per cent were property offenders. None of the prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 55-60 years. Among the 13 female offenders in the age group of 60-65 years, 69.23 per cent were homicidal offenders, 15.38 per cent were prohibition offenders and 15.38 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 60-65 years. Among the six female offenders in the age group of 65-70 years, 66.67 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 33.33 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders in the age group of 60-70 years.

Among the female offenders, none of the offenders were involved in any offence in the age group of 70-75 years. From two female offenders in the age group of 75-80 years, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 75-80 years. From the 120 convicted female offenders, 4.17 per cent belonged to the age category of 20-25 years, 66.22 per cent of the female offenders belonged to 25-50 years and 27.5 per cent of the female offenders belonged to the age group of 50-70 years. Only 1.67 per cent belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. None of the female offenders committed the crime in the age group of 70-75 years.

This shows that majority of the female prisoners between 25 and 50 years of age commit crimes. As they grow older, they did not want to involve in the risk of arrest.

The analysis of variance for testing the mean age of the female offenders is shown in Table – X.

TABLE – X
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN AGE OF THE
FEMALE OFFENDERS

Group	Age of the offenders		F Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	42.112	13.7357	0.1732
Other offenders	43.1935	13.2901	

Source : Prison Survey.

The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower age group when compared to

other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

Table – XI and Figure – 6 shows the age distribution of male respondents by the type of crime.

TABLE – XI
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME

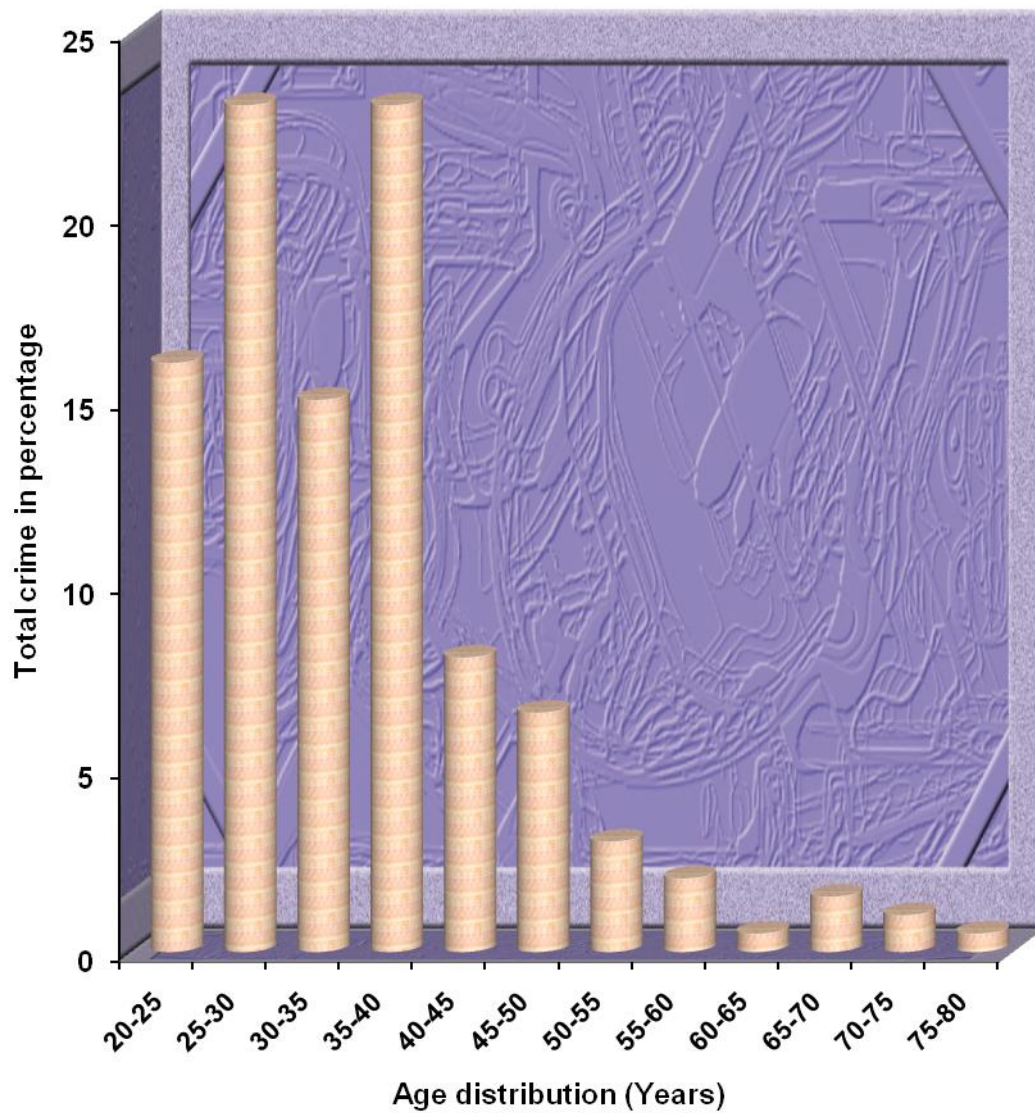
Age distribution (years)	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
20 – 25	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (8.33)	(9.37)	29 (18.25)	(90.63)	32 (16.00)	(100.00)
25 – 30	8 (28.57)	(17.39)	1 (10.00)	(2.17)	9 (25.00)	(19.56)	28 (22.22)	(60.87)	46 (23.00)	(100.00)
30 – 35	7 (25.00)	(23.33)	2 (20.00)	(6.67)	5 (13.89)	(16.67)	16 (12.70)	(53.33)	30 (15.00)	(100.00)
35 – 40	7 (25.00)	(15.22)	4 (40.00)	(8.69)	9 (25.00)	(19.56)	26 (20.63)	(56.52)	46 (23.00)	(100.00)
40 – 45	1 (3.57)	(6.25)	1 (10.00)	(6.25)	2 (5.56)	(12.50)	12 (9.52)	(75.00)	16 (8.00)	(100.00)
45 – 50	2 (7.14)	(15.38)	1 (10.00)	(7.69)	5 (13.89)	(38.46)	5 (3.97)	(38.46)	13 (6.50)	(100.00)
50 – 55	2 (7.14)	(33.33)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (8.33)	(50.00)	1 (0.79)	(1.67)	6 (3.00)	(100.00)
55 – 60	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	4 (3.17)	(100.00)	4 (2.00)	(100.00)
60 – 65	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(100.00)	1 (0.5)	(100.00)
65 – 70	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (2.38)	(100.00)	3 (1.5)	(100.00)
70 – 75	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (10.00)	(50.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(50.00)	2 (1.0)	(100.00)

75 – 80	1 (100.00) (3.57)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	1 (100.00) (0.5)
Total	28 (14.00) (100.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XI, reveals that among the 28 male homicidal offenders, none of them belonged to the age category of 20-25 years and 96.42 per cent of the male homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 25-55 years. Only 3.57 per cent of the male homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. None of the male homicidal offenders were in the age group of 55-75 years. Among the 10 male property offenders, none of the male

FIGURE – 6
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME



property offenders belonged to the age group of 20-25 years and 90 per cent of the male property offenders were in the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 10 per cent of the male property offenders belonged to 70-75 years. None of the male property offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years.

Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 8.33 per cent were in the age group of 20-25 years and 91.67 per cent of the male prohibition offenders were in the age group of 25-60 years. None of the male prohibition offenders belonged to 55-80 years. Among the 126 male theft offenders, 18.25 per cent of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 20-25 years, 69.04 per cent of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 25-50 years and 7.92 per cent of the male theft offenders were in the age group of 50-75 years. None of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years.

Among the 32 male offenders in the age group of 20-25 years, 90.63 per cent were theft offenders and the remaining 9.37 per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the homicidal and property offenders involved were in the age group of 20-25 years. From the 46 male offenders in the age group of 25-30 years, 17.39 per cent were homicidal offenders, 2.17 per cent were property offenders, 19.56 per cent were prohibition offenders and 60.87 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 30 male offenders in the age group of 30-35 years, 23.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.67 per cent were property offenders, 16.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and 53.33 per cent were theft offenders.

From the 46 male offenders in the age group of 35-40 years, 15.22 per cent were homicidal offenders, 8.69 per cent were property offenders, 19.56 per cent were prohibition offenders and 56.52 per cent were theft offenders.

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Among the 16 male offenders in the age group of 40-45 years, 6.25 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.25 per cent were property offenders, 12.5 per cent were prohibition offenders and 75 per cent were theft offenders. From the 13 male offenders in the age group of 45-50 years, 15.38 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.69 per cent were property offenders, 38.46 per cent were prohibition offenders and 38.46 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the six male offenders in the age group of 50-55 years, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 50 per cent were prohibition offenders and 1.67 per cent were theft offenders. None of the male property offenders belonged to the age group of 50-55 years. From four male offenders in the age group of 55-60 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of the homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders belonged to the age group of 55-60 years. From the only one male offender in the age group of 60-65 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of them belonged to homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders in the age group of 60-65 years.

Among the three male offenders in the age group of 65-70 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of them were homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders in the age group of 65-70 years. From the two male offenders in the age group of 70-75 years, 50 per cent were property offenders and the remaining 50 per cent were theft offenders. None of the homicidal and prohibition offenders were belonged to the age group of 70-75 years. From the one male offender in the age group of 75-80 years, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property, prohibition and theft offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. From the 200 male offenders, 16 per cent belonged to 20-25 years and 75.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 8.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 50-80 years.

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The following Table – XII shows analysis of variance for testing the mean age of the male offenders.

TABLE – XII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN AGE
OF THE MALE OFFENDERS

Group	Age of the offenders		'F' Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	36.0357	10.4580	1.2521
Other offenders	33.5988	10.7277	

The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a higher age group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant differences in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

A comparative analysis of the age at which the offender committed the crime indicates that 66.22 per cent of the female offenders and 75.5 per cent of the male offenders committed crime in the age group of 25-50 years. This shows that both women and men commit crime only when they are young. As they advance in their age they seem to hesitate to indulge in crime. These results more or less confirm the findings of the Central Bureau of Correctional Services in India (Government of India, 1972 : 42) which found that majority of the convictions are in the age group of 21-50 years both among the female (72 per cent) and male (67 per cent) offenders. This disproves the hypothesis, that there is no association between the age group of the female offenders

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and their nature of offence and the male offenders and their nature of offence, because in the sample crimes are committed mainly between age groups of 25-50 years.

4.5.3 Marital Status

In the highly traditional society women and men derive their status primarily from their husbands and wives and the number of children they have. Therefore their marital status has much to do with their sense of stability. Women who are unmarried, married, widowed, separated or divorced are inevitably marginalized in a society, where their primary identity is that of a wife and mother. The marital status of the respondents is therefore of relevance and interest to the present study. The Table – XIII and Figure – 7 shows the marital status of the female respondents.

TABLE – XIII
DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS

Marital status	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Unmarried	3 (50.00) (3.37)	3 (50.00) (33.33)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
Married	68 (74.72) (76.40)	6 (6.59) (66.67)	6 (6.59) (75.00)	9 (9.89) (75.00)	2 (2.19) (100.00)	91 (100.00) (75.83)
Widowed	13 (81.25) (14.61)	0 (0.00)	2 (12.5) (25.00)	1 (6.25) (8.33)	0 (0.00)	16 (100.00) (13.33)
Separated	4 (100.00) (4.49)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)
Divorced	1 (33.33) (1.12)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (66.67) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	3 (100.00) (2.5)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

It is evident from the Table – XIII, that the marital status of the female offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident 75.83 per

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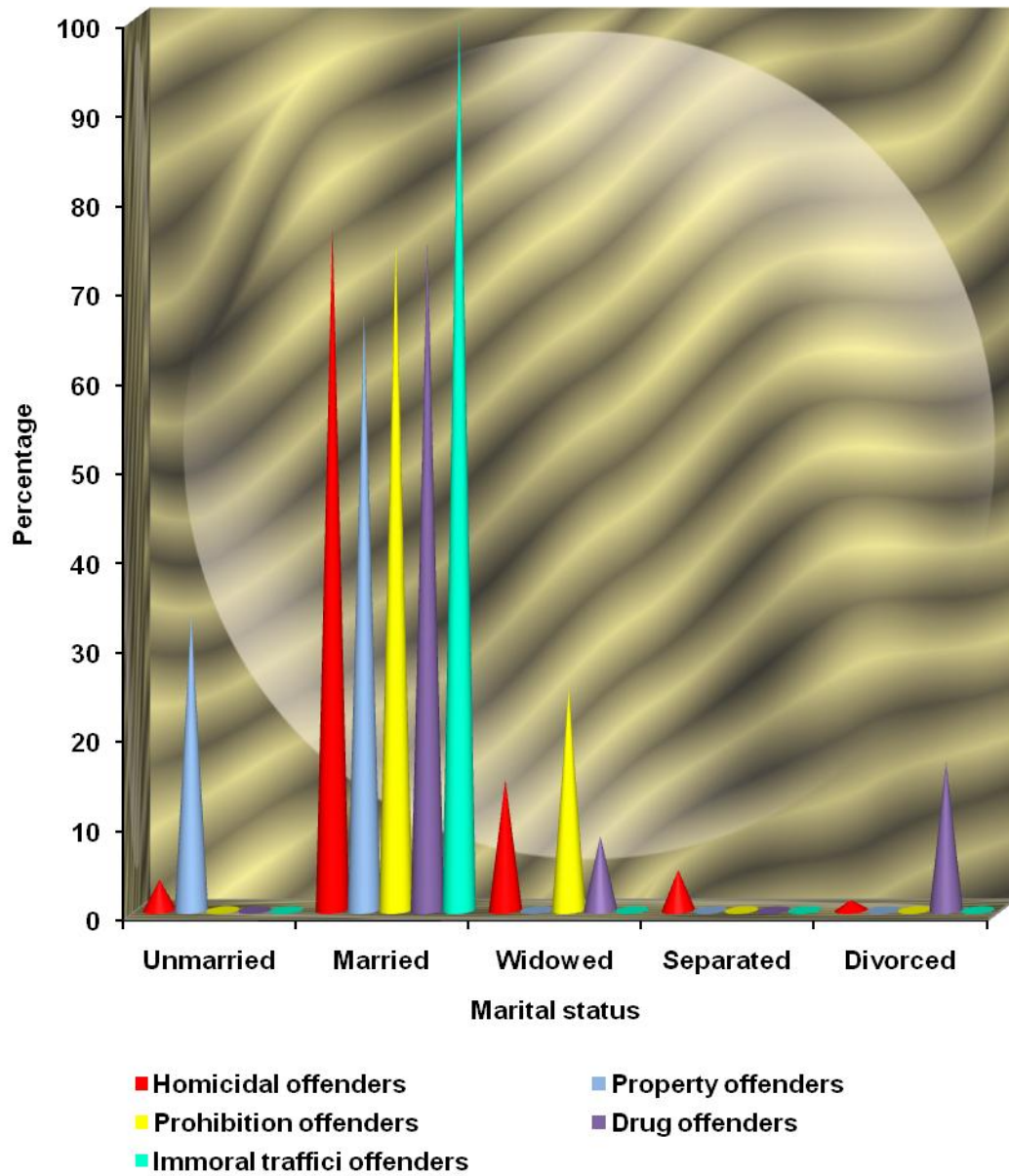
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cent of the female offenders were married, among the rest 13.33 per cent were widowed, 3.33 per cent were separated, five per cent were unmarried and the remaining 2.5 per cent were divorced. Among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 3.37 per cent were unmarried, 76.4 per cent were married, 14.61 per cent were widowed, 4.49 per cent were separated and only 1.12 per cent were divorced.

From the nine female property offenders, 33.33 per cent were unmarried and 66.67 per cent were married. None of the female property offenders were widowed, separated or divorced. Among the eight prohibition offenders, 75 per cent were married and the remaining 25 per cent were

FIGURE – 7
DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS



widowed. None of the female prohibition offenders were unmarried, separated or divorced. Among the 12 female drug offenders, 75 per cent were married, 8.33 per cent were widowed and 16.67 per cent were divorced. None of the female drug offenders were unmarried or separated. From the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were married. None of the female immoral traffic offenders were unmarried, widowed, separated or divorced.

From the six unmarried female offenders, 50 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 50 per cent were property offenders. None of the female unmarried offenders involved themselves in prohibition offence, drug offence or immoral traffic offence. Among the 91 female married offenders, 74.72 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.59 per cent were property offenders, 6.59 per cent were prohibition offenders, 9.89 per cent were drug offenders and 2.19 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. From the 16 widowed female offenders, 81.25 per cent were homicidal offenders, 12.5 per cent were prohibition offenders, 6.25 per cent were drug offenders, and none of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were widowed. Among four separated female offenders, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the separated female offenders were involved in property, prohibition, drug or immoral traffic offence.

From the three divorced female offenders, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders and 66.67 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property, prohibition or immoral traffic offenders were divorced. This proves that married females commit crime more than the females belonging to other category. Marriage by itself cannot guarantee stability or protection from crime. Many sociological enquiries (Prasad, 1982 ; Nagla, 1982 and Rani, 1983), suggest that it is the married women who are more vulnerable to crime,

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than their unmarried counterparts because they have to cope with highly stressful family situations.

The marital status of the male respondents is given in Table – XIV and Figure – 8.

TABLE – XIV
DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS

Marital status	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
Unmarried	3	(4.54)	4	(6.06)	15	(22.73)	44	(66.67)	66	(100.00)
	(10.71)		(40.00)		(41.67)		(34.92)		(33.00)	
Married	25	(18.66)	6	(4.48)	21	(15.67)	82	(61.19)	134	(100.00)
	(89.29)		(60.00)		(58.33)		(65.19)		(67.00)	
Total	28	(14.00)	10	(5.00)	36	(18.00)	126	(63.00)	200	
	(100.00)		(100.00)		(100.00)		(100.00)			

Source : Prison Survey.

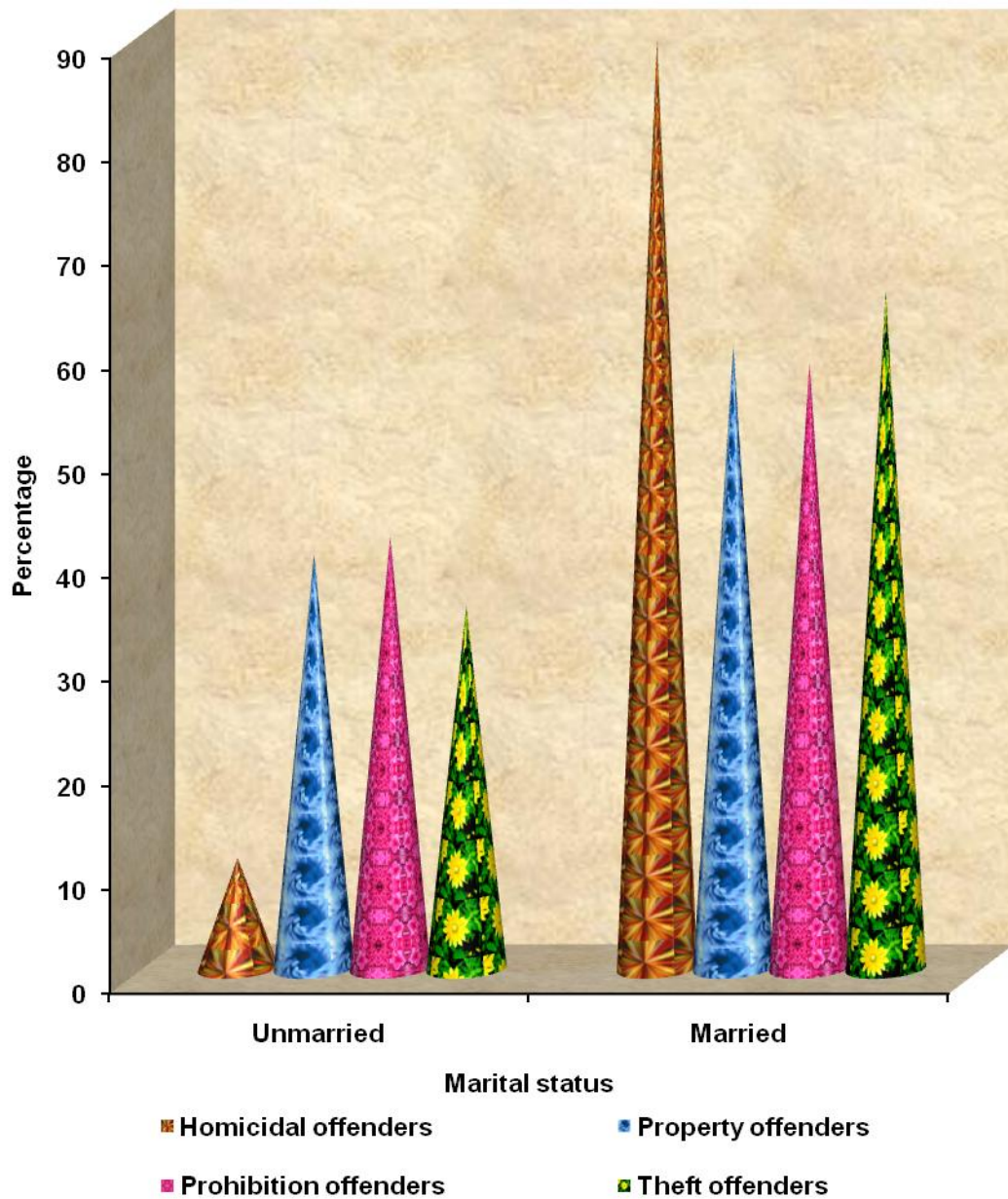
The Table – XIV shows that the marital status of male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident, 67 per cent of the offenders were married and the remaining 33 per cent remain unmarried.

Among the 28 homicidal male offenders, 89.29 per cent were married and the remaining 10.71 per cent were unmarried. From the 10 property offenders, 60 per cent were married and the 40 per cent were unmarried. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 58.33 per cent were married and the remaining 41.67 per cent were unmarried. From the 126 theft offenders, 65.19 per cent were married and 34.92 per cent remain unmarried.

From the 66 unmarried male offenders, 4.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.06 per cent were property offenders, 22.73 per cent were prohibition offenders and 66.67 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the 134 married male offenders, 18.66 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.48 per cent were property offenders, 15.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and 61.19 per cent were the theft offenders. Even among the men prisoners, it was the married prisoners who were involved in more crimes than the unmarried prisoners. Comparatively, the committance of crime is more among married women and men than the unmarried.

FIGURE – 8
DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS



4.5.4 Caste

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In India, caste is an important indicator of a person's social status. Economic status is another factor which is universally correlated with official measures of crime. The poor are known to be arrested as well as convicted in large numbers when compared to the affluent not only because of selective processing, but also due to their intertwined low economic and social status, which can serve as inducers of criminality. In the sample, majority of the convicts belonged to backward castes.

Table – XV and Figure – 9 shows the distribution of the offenders' population by caste.

TABLE – XV
DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENDERS POPULATION BY CASTE

Caste	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Ritually high caste	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	2 (1.00)	(100.00)	2 (0.62)	(100.00)
Upper peasant caste	4 (13.33)	(13.33)	26 (13.00)	(86.67)	30 (9.37)	(100.00)
Backward caste	63 (52.50)	(38.41)	101 (50.50)	(61.59)	164 (51.25)	(100.00)
Scheduled caste	44 (36.67)	(40.74)	64 (32.00)	(59.25)	108 (33.75)	(100.00)
Scheduled tribe	1 (0.83)	(20.00)	4 (2.00)	(80.00)	5 (1.56)	(100.00)
Miscellaneous	8 (6.67)	(72.72)	3 (1.50)	(27.27)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.50)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320 (100.00)	

Source : Prison Survey.

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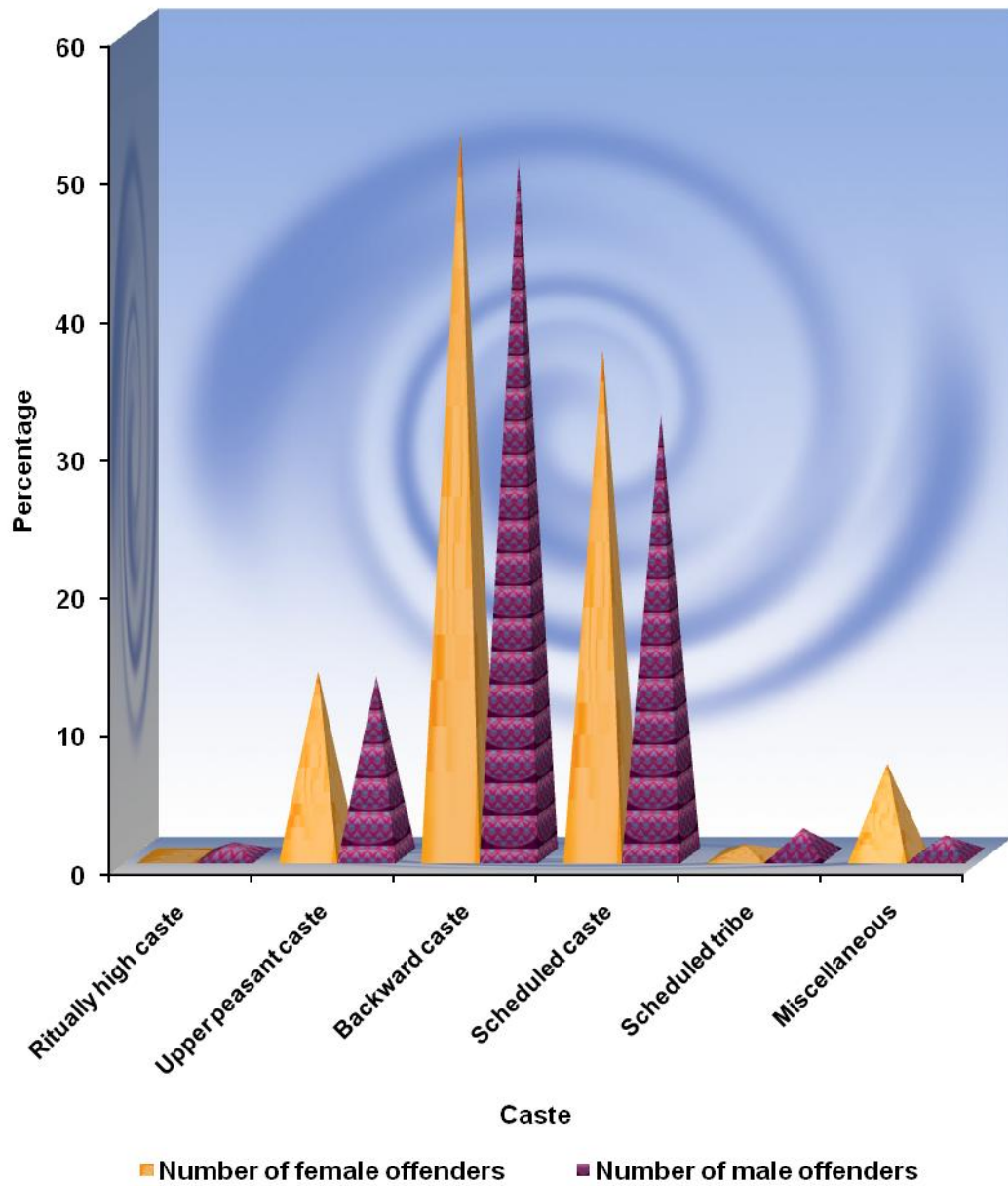
FIGURE – 9
DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENDERS POPULATION BY CASTE

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From the Table – XV, the distribution of offenders population shows a high representation of the backward castes, 52.5 per cent of the female population and 50.5 per cent of the male population respectively.

Among the 120 female offenders, 13.33 per cent belonged to upper peasant caste, 36.67 per cent belonged to scheduled caste, 0.83 per cent belonged to scheduled tribe and the remaining 6.67 per cent were belonged to miscellaneous category. None of the female offenders belonged to ritually high caste.

Among the male offenders the same trend is visualized, 50.5 per cent of the male offenders belonged to backward caste, 32 per cent belonged to scheduled caste, two per cent belonged schedule tribe and 13 per cent belonged to upper peasant caste. Only one per cent of the male offenders belonged to ritually high caste and 1.5 per cent belonged to miscellaneous castes. As in a class stratification, the class system in India creates a chasm between groups where the upper castes can and do victimize the backward castes. Misuse of law and judicial processes against the backward castes lead to backward caste women and men to go against law and commit crime.

4.5.5 Education

The importance of education for opening new horizons and linking people to the larger society hardly needs to be stressed. At the individual level, the person's ability and capacity to cope with life and enhanced education instill a sense of self-worth and adequacy in the person. Though illiteracy cannot be linked to criminality, the ability of education to act as a mitigating factor to cope with adverse circumstances as well as to foresee consequences of action cannot be underestimated.

The Table – XVI and Figure – 10 shows the educational level of female respondents.

TABLE – XVI
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS

Educational level	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Illiterate	51 (73.91) (57.30)	5 (7.25) (55.56)	4 (5.79) (50.00)	9 (13.04) (75.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	69 (100.00) (57.5)
Primary	14 (82.35) (15.73)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (11.76) (25.00)	1 (5.88) (8.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	17 (100.00) (14.17)
Middle	18 (81.81) (20.22)	2 (9.09) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (9.09) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	22 (100.00) (18.33)
High	4 (50.00) (4.49)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (25.00) (25.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (25.00) (100.00)	8 (100.00) (6.67)
College	2 (50.00) (2.25)	2 (50.00) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XVI, reveals that in the 120 female offenders, 69 females were illiterates. This constitutes 57.5 per cent. Among the 69 female offenders, 73.91 per cent committed homicidal offences, 7.25 per cent committed property offences, 5.79 per cent committed prohibition offences and 13.04 per cent committed drug offences. Among the 17 female offenders, studied up to primary level, among them 82.35 per cent committed homicidal offences, 11.76 per cent committed prohibition offences and 5.88 per cent committed drug offences. None of them committed either property offences and immoral traffic offences. Among the 22 female offenders (18.33 per cent) of the total studied upto middle level. Among them 81.81 per cent were in homicidal offences, 9.09 per cent were property offenders, 9.09 per cent committed drug offences and they did not commit prohibition offences and

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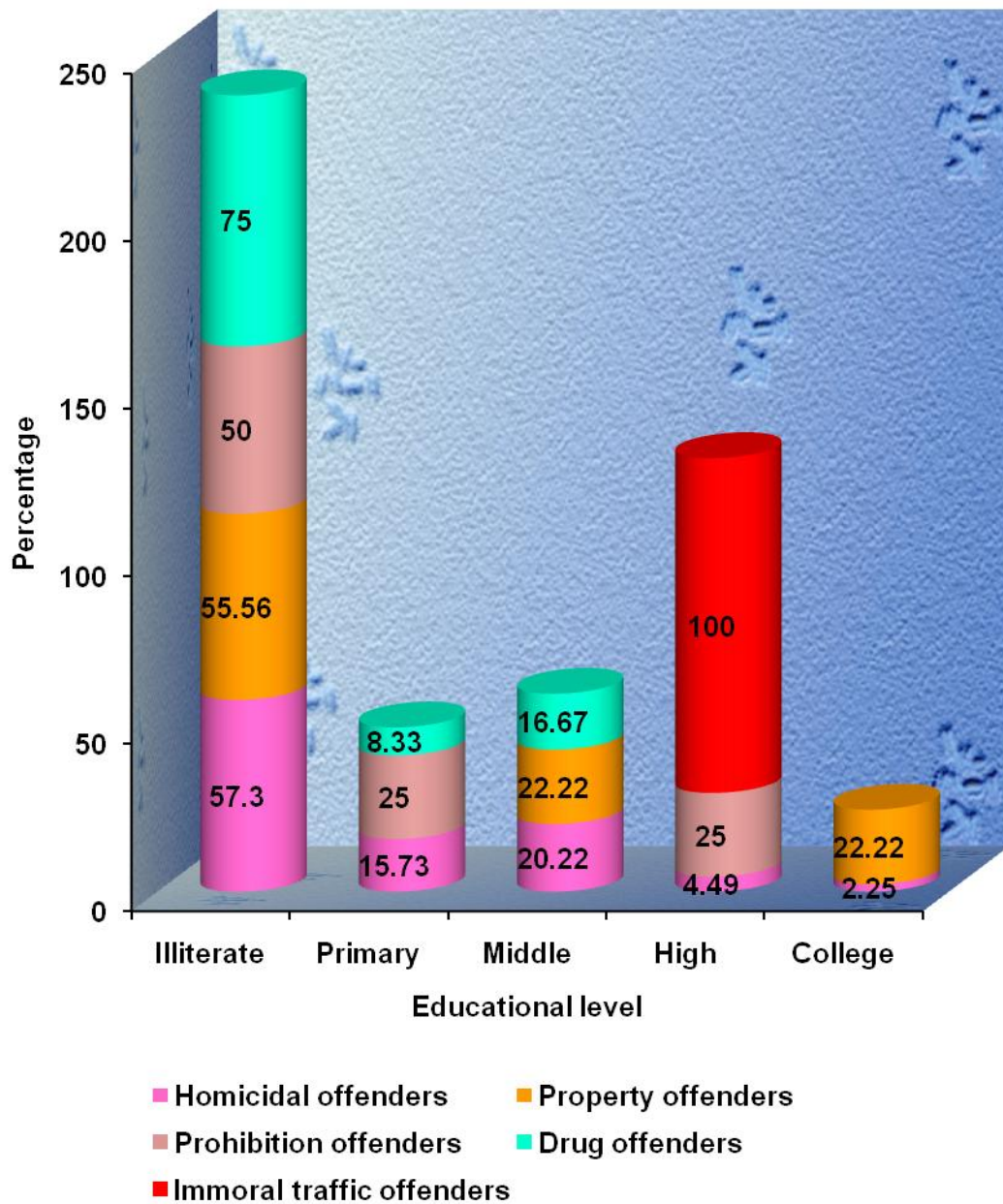
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immoral traffic offences. Eight female offenders studied upto high school level (6.67 per cent). Among them 50 per cent were homicidal offenders, 25 per cent committed prohibition offences and 25 per cent were in immoral traffic offences. This category did not commit property offences and drug offences. One important observation is that only in this category two female offenders committed immoral traffic offences. Four female offenders were college

FIGURE – 10
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS



educated among them 50 per cent committed homicidal offences and the other 50 per cent committed property offences. They did not commit other offences. In the total 120 female offenders, homicidal offenders form the majority (74.17 per cent) and only 1.67 per cent committed immoral traffic offences. Illiteracy combined with inadequate knowledge about the consequences of their act encouraged the female offenders to commit crimes.

The Table – XVII and Figure – 11 shows the educational level of male respondents.

TABLE – XVII
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MALE RESPONDENTS

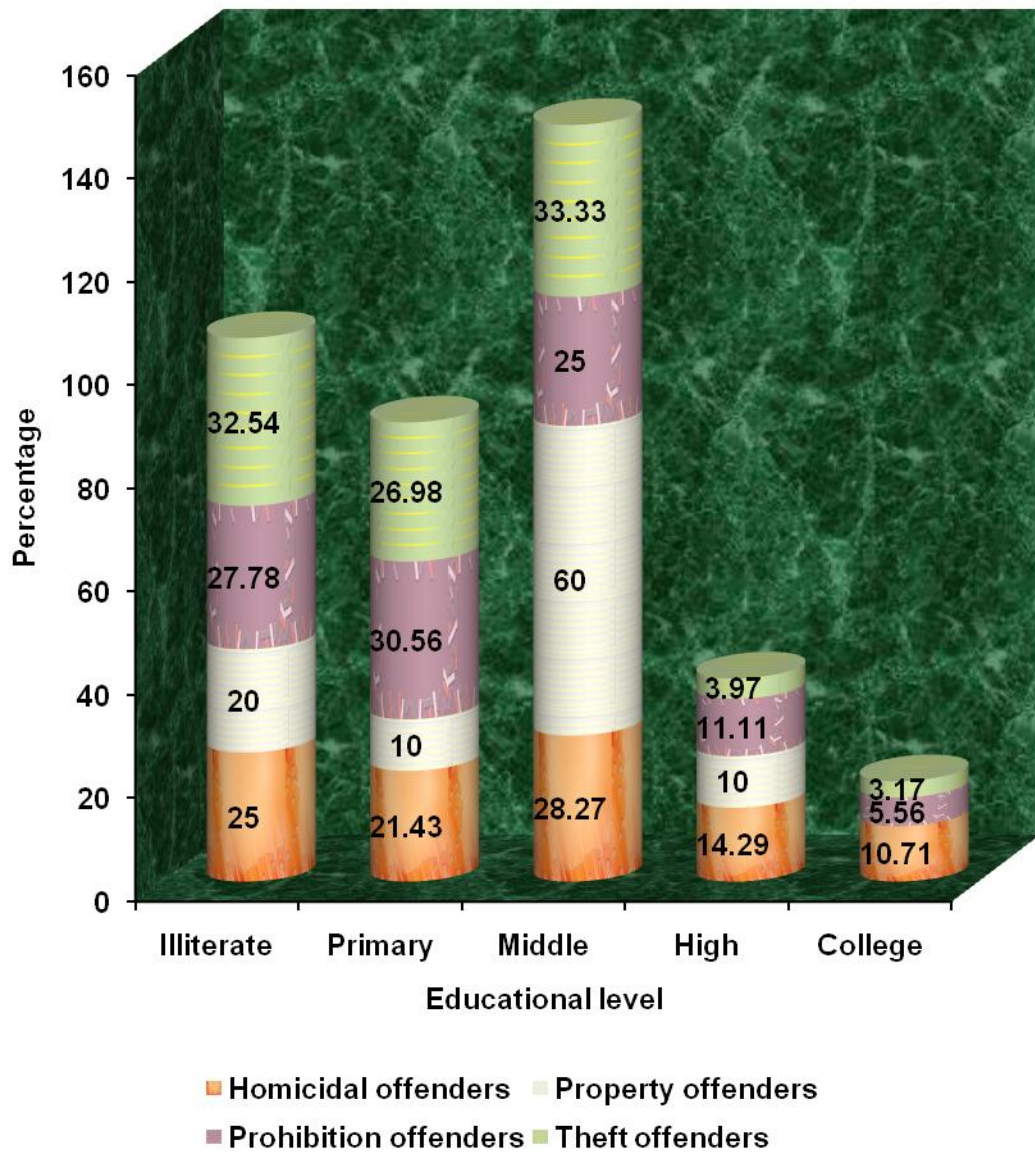
Educational level	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
Illiterate	7 (25.00)	(11.67)	2 (20.00)	(3.33)	10 (27.78)	(16.67)	41 (32.54)	(68.33)	60 (30.00)	(100.00)
Primary	6 (21.43)	(11.54)	1 (10.00)	(1.92)	11 (30.56)	(21.15)	34 (26.98)	(65.38)	52 (26.00)	(100.00)
Middle	8 (28.27)	(12.31)	6 (60.00)	(9.23)	9 (25.00)	(13.85)	42 (33.33)	(64.61)	65 (32.50)	(100.00)
High	4 (14.29)	(28.57)	1 (10.00)	(7.14)	4 (11.11)	(28.57)	5 (3.97)	(35.71)	14 (7.00)	(100.00)
College	3 (10.71)	(33.33)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	2 (5.56)	(22.22)	4 (3.17)	(44.44)	9 (4.50)	(100.00)
Total	28 (100.00)	(14.00)	10 (100.00)	(5.00)	36 (100.00)	(18.00)	126 (100.00)	(63.00)	200	

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – XVII, it is seen that majority 70 per cent of the male offenders were literates, only remaining 30 per cent of the offenders were illiterates. It shows entirely different results from the female population. Among the 60 illiterate male offenders (30 per cent), 11.67 per cent were homicidal offenders, 3.33 per cent were property offenders, 16.67 per cent

were prohibition offenders and 68.33 per cent were theft offenders. Among 52 male offenders (26 per cent) studied upto primary level, 11.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 1.92 per cent were property offenders, 21.15 per cent

FIGURE – 11
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MALE RESPONDENTS



were prohibition offenders and 65.38 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 65 male offenders (32.5 per cent) studied upto middle level, 12.31 per cent were homicidal offenders, 9.23 per cent were property offenders, 13.85 per cent were prohibition offenders and 64.61 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 14 male offenders (7 per cent) studied upto high school level, among them 28.57 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.14 per cent were property offenders, 28.57 per cent were prohibition offenders and 35.71 per cent were theft offenders. Among the nine male offenders (4.5 per cent) were educated upto college level, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 22.22 per cent were prohibition offenders and 44.44 per cent were theft offenders. None of the college educated male offenders committed the property offence.

Comparatively, female illiterates committed more crimes than men. Among men, the offenders who were educated upto primary and middle level committed more crimes. It supports the findings of Freeman (1991), (1986), Ehrlich (1975) and Witte and Tauchen (1994), which states that the criminal tend to be less educated and from poorer background than non criminals. Majority of them are illiterates and the persons with higher educational levels have lower incidence of crime mainly because higher average levels of education may be associated with less under reporting of crimes. Higher educational level with wealthier background allows the offenders to escape from the law even if they commit the crime.

4.5.6 Reasons given by the School Drop Outs

Education is supposed to inculcate values among men and women. Since majority of the convicts were illiterates, efforts are taken to find out the reason for their dropping out from the school. The greatest number of respondents attributed it to financial constraints followed by assisting parents

at home, their own lack of interest, distance to school, puberty, early marriage, undertaking some training and no answer.

Table – XVIII and Figure – 12 shows the respondents' reasons for dropping out of school.

TABLE – XVIII
REASONS FOR SCHOOL DROP OUT FOR RESPONDENTS

Reasons	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Financial constraints	34 (28.33)	(64.15)	19 (9.5)	(35.85)	53 (16.56)	(100.00)
To assist parents	24 (20.00)	(61.53)	63 (31.5)	(38.46)	87 (27.18)	(100.00)
Respondents lack of interest	20 (16.67)	(44.44)	25 (12.5)	(55.56)	45 (14.06)	(100.00)
Parents lack of interest	12 (10.00)	(44.44)	15 (7.5)	(55.56)	27 (8.44)	(100.00)
Distance to school	12 (10.00)	(41.38)	17 (8.5)	(58.62)	29 (9.06)	(100.00)
Puberty	10 (8.33)	(100.00)	-	-	10 (3.12)	(100.00)
Early marriage	7 (5.83)	(100.00)	-	-	7 (2.19)	(100.00)
To undertake some training	-		29 (14.5)	(100.00)	29 (9.06)	(100.00)
No answer	1 (0.83)	(3.03)	32 (16.0)	(96.97)	33 (10.31)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.50)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320 (100.00)	

Source : Prison Survey.

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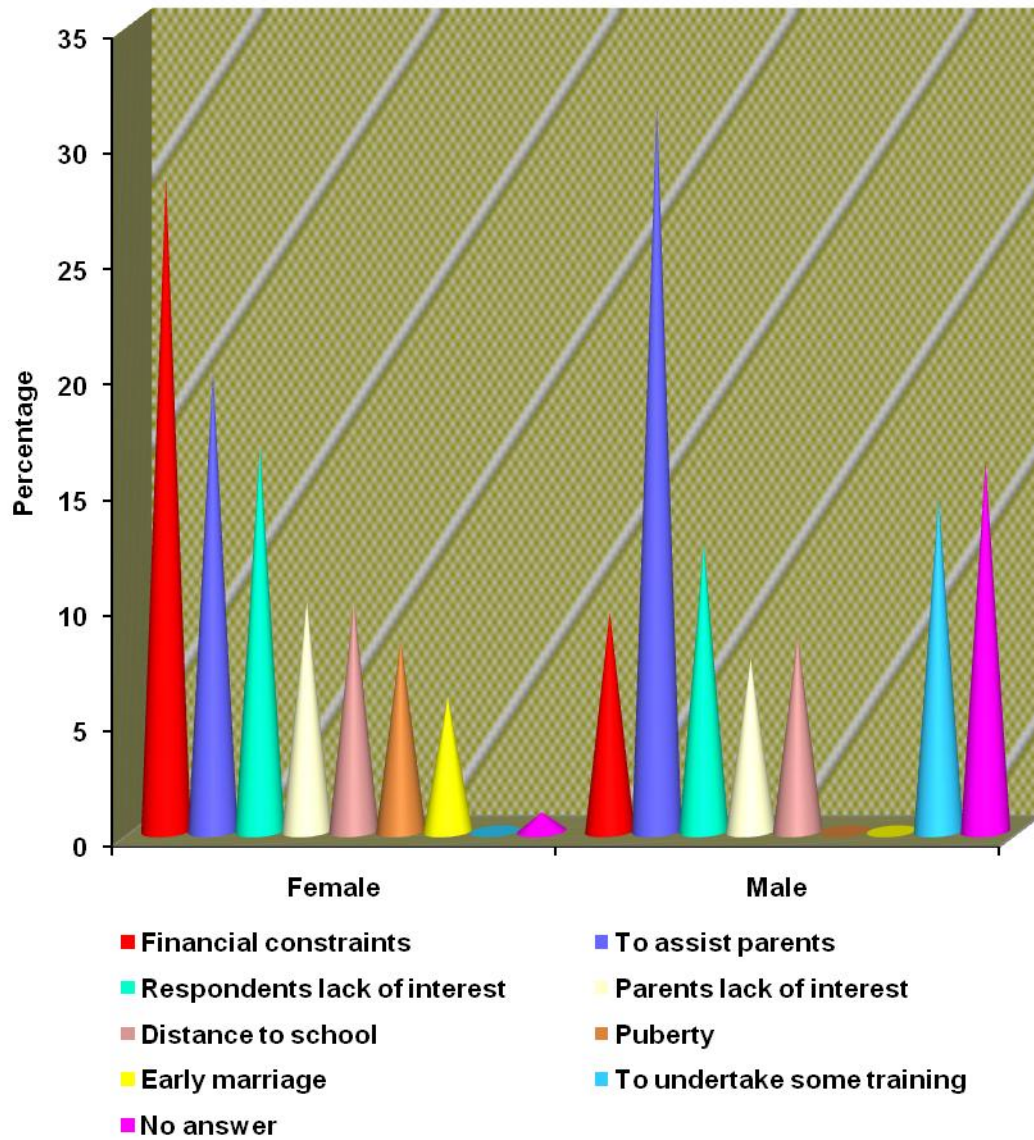
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Table – XVIII shows that, among the 53 respondents (16.56 per cent), 64.15 per cent of the female respondents and 35.85 per cent of the male respondents had dropped out from the school due to financial constraints, though free-education plan is implemented, students required financial help for books, dress, food and transport. The second important reason from the

FIGURE – 12

REASONS FOR SCHOOL DROP OUT FOR RESPONDENTS



drop outs was to assist parents, among 87 respondents (27.18 per cent), 61.53 per cent were female offenders and 38.46 per cent were male offenders. From the 45 respondents (14.06 per cent), 44.44 per cent of the female respondents and 55.56 per cent of the male respondents did not had interest in education. Among the 27 respondents (8.44 per cent), the parents of 44.44 per cent of the female respondents and 55.56 per cent of the male respondents did not take interest to send them to school.

Among the 29 respondents (9.06 per cent), 41.38 per cent of the female respondents and 58.62 per cent of the male respondents were denied school education due to the distance, because they have to travel a long distance to reach the school. Among 10 female respondents (3.12 per cent), 100 per cent of the female respondents dropped out because of the attainment of puberty. Among the seven female respondents (2.19 per cent), 100 per cent were denied school education due to early marriage.

Among the 29 male respondents (9.06 per cent), 100 per cent dropped out of school to undertake some training. From the 33 respondents (10.31 per cent), 3.03 per cent of the female respondents and 96.97 per cent of the male respondents did not give any reason for their dropping out of school.

From the 120 female offenders, 28.33 per cent of the respondents were denied school education due to financial constraints, 20 per cent dropped out of their schools to assist parents, 16.67 per cent were not interested in education and 10 per cent of the respondents' parents were not interested in education. Being girl child 10 per cent of the female respondents were denied school education due to longer distance. The rest of the reasons mentioned by female offenders were attainment of puberty (8.33 per cent), early marriage (5.83 per cent) and (0.83 per cent) of the female respondents did not give any reason for dropping out of school.

Among the 200 male respondents, 9.5 per cent were denied their education in schools due to financial constraints, 31.5 per cent dropped out to assist parents and 12.6 per cent of the male respondents were not interested in studies. Parents of the 7.5 per cent of the male respondents had no interest in education, 8.5 per cent of the male respondents were denied their education in schools because they have to travel a long distance, 14.5 per cent of the respondents denied their schools to undertake some training and 16 per cent of the respondents did not mention any reason for their dropping out.

Lack of proper guidance through education may be one of the reasons for committing crime. Education is denied for girl child particularly among the lower poor community. This is in confirmation with the findings of Patel (1982) which states that assisting parents at home is especially significant for girl children because certain gender specific household jobs like caring for younger children, carrying water, fetching fire wood and cowdung, cleaning cattle shed, making dung cakes, chaffing, pounding, picking stones from grains, kitchen gardening, household poultry, sewing, etc. are usually entrusted to girls in many rural Indian households.

Comparatively, female offenders were denied education due to financial constraints, and assisting the parents is the major cause of school drop outs by the male offenders.

4.5.7 Residential Background

The residential background of the respondents is relevant to an understanding of female and male criminal behavior because of the distinct differences in the way of life in a city and village. Consequently, there are differences in the opportunities available and restraints imposed on women

and men, for deviant and non-deviant activities. Table – XIX and Figure – 13 shows residential background of female respondents.

TABLE – XIX
RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS

Area	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Rural	34 (75.56) (38.20)	3 (6.67) (33.33)	4 (8.89) (50.00)	2 (4.44) (16.67)	2 (4.44) (100.00)	45 (100.00) (37.50)
Semi-urban	26 (74.28) (29.21)	2 (5.71) (22.22)	4 (11.43) (50.00)	3 (8.57) (25.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	35 (100.00) (29.17)
Urban	29 (72.50) (32.58)	4 (10.00) (44.44)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (17.50) (58.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	40 (100.00) (33.33)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

The data reveals that, from the 120 female offenders, 37.5 per cent resided in rural and 33.33 per cent in urban areas. Only 29.17 per cent respondents came from semi-urban area. Among the 45 female respondents resided in rural area, 75.56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.67 per cent were property offenders, 8.89 per cent were prohibition offenders, 4.44 per cent were drug offenders and 4.44 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. From the 35 female respondents from semi-urban area, 74.28 per cent were homicidal offenders, 5.71 per cent were property offenders, 11.43 per cent were prohibition offenders, 8.57 per cent were drug offenders and none of the immoral traffic offenders from semi-urban areas. Among the 40 female respondents from urban areas, 72.5 per cent were homicidal offenders, 10 per cent were property offenders, 17.5 per cent were drug offenders and none of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders from urban areas.

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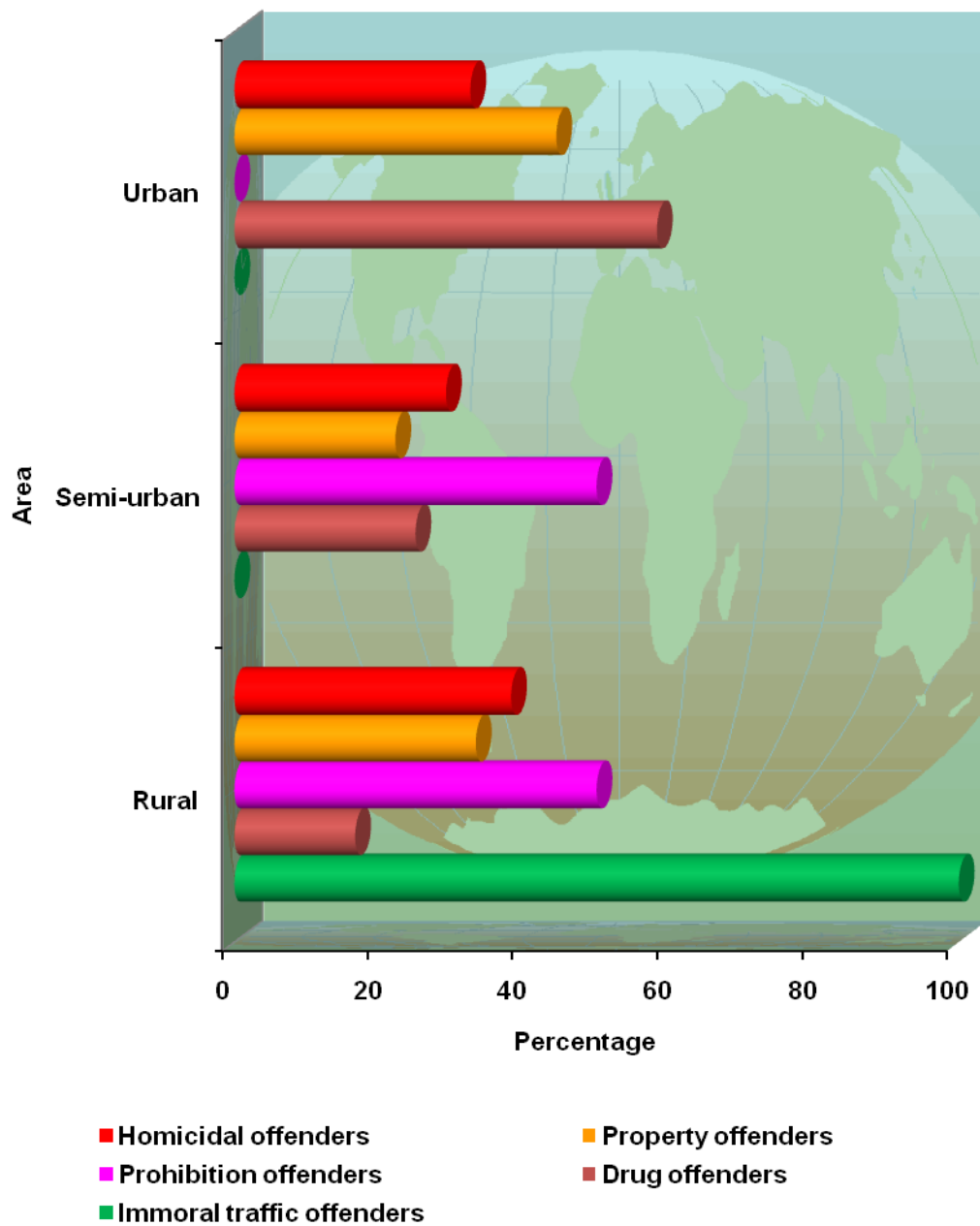
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Among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 38.2 per cent resided in rural areas, 29.21 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 32.58 per cent belonged to urban areas. Among nine female property offenders, 33.33 per cent belonged to rural areas, 22.22 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 44.44 per cent belonged to urban areas. Among eight prohibition offenders, 50 per cent from rural areas and the remaining 50 per cent were from semi-urban areas. None of the female prohibition offenders from urban areas.

FIGURE – 13
RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS



Among 12 drug offenders, 16.67 per cent were from rural areas, 25 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 58.33 per cent were from urban areas. Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent resided in rural areas. This reveals that the type of crime committed is influenced by the area and the surroundings in which the offenders lived.

The predominance of homicidal offenders among rural women is probably due to the limited socio-cultural and economic options available to women in rural communities where compulsions to live within prescribed boundaries including repressive family situations are quite high. In contrast economic offences seem to flourish in urban and semi urban areas where anonymity as well as opportunities for commission of crime are greater, while social stigma and risk of apprehension are comparatively less.

Table – XX and Figure – 14 shows residential background of the male respondents.

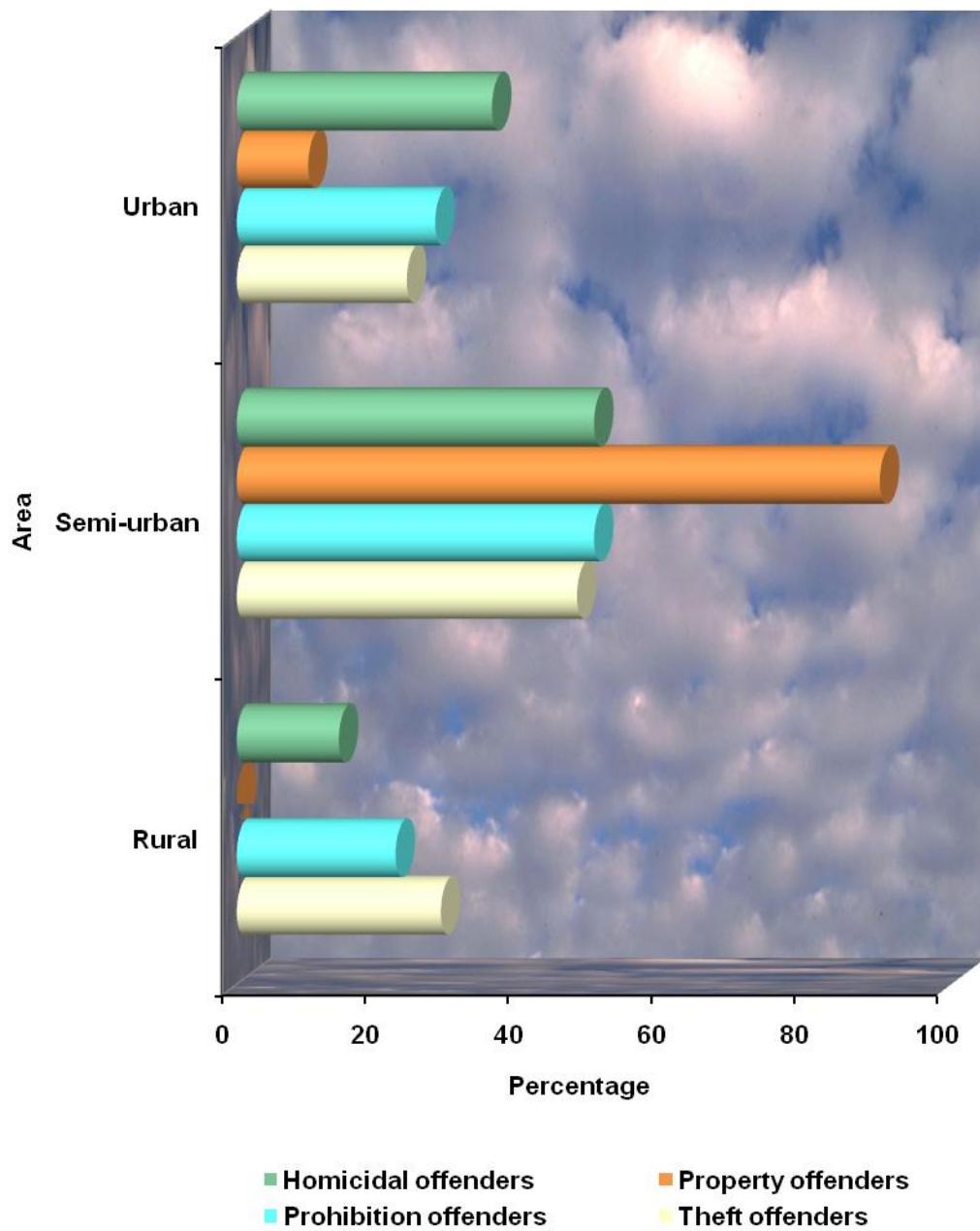
TABLE – XX
RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF MALE RESPONDENTS

Area	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Rural	4 (8.33) (14.29)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	8 (16.67) (22.22)	36 (75.00) (28.57)	48 (100.00) (24.00)
Semi-urban	14 (13.86) (50.00)	9 (8.91) (90.00)	18 (17.82) (50.00)	60 (59.40) (47.62)	101 (100.00) (50.50)
Urban	10 (19.61) (35.71)	1 (1.96) (10.00)	10 (19.61) (27.78)	30 (58.82) (23.81)	51 (100.00) (25.50)
Total	28 (14.00) (100.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – XX, among the 200 male respondents, 24 per cent were resided in rural areas, 50.5 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas, and 25.5 per cent resided in urban areas.

FIGURE – 14
RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF MALE RESPONDENTS



Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 14.29 per cent resided in rural areas, 50 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 35.71 per cent resided in urban areas. Among the 10 property offenders, 90 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and the remaining 10 per cent resided in urban areas. None of the property offenders resided in rural areas. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 22.22 per cent resided in rural areas, 50 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 27.78 per cent resided in urban areas.

Among the 126 theft offenders, 28.57 per cent resided in rural areas, 47.62 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 23.81 per cent belonged to urban areas.

Among the 48 male respondents, 8.33 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 16.67 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 75 per cent of the theft offenders resided in rural areas. None of the property offenders belonged to rural areas. Among the 101 male respondents, 13.86 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 8.91 per cent of the property offenders, 17.82 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 59.4 per cent of the theft offenders resided in semi-urban areas.

Among the 51 male respondents, 19.61 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 1.96 per cent of the property offenders, 19.61 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 58.82 per cent were theft offenders. This reflects the fact that the residential background of the offenders influences the type of the offences committed by them.

4.5.8 Economic Status and Occupation

The employment and earning capacity of an individual are important determinants of his / her sense of well being. With regard to the criminal population, the general hypothesis has been that poverty and the consequent

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sense of frustration coupled with illegitimate opportunity structures (Ohlin, 1964) could lead to crime. However, given the Indian situation where a large segment of the population subsists below poverty line, it is expected that most of the offenders would invariably be poor. The criteria for assessment, therefore, is not objective poverty as such, but rather the subjective perception of poverty due to relative deprivation where the respondents experience their economic situation as poor, wretched or not so bad after all. Information pertaining to occupation, perception of economic sufficiency, family size and living standard were elicited.

Studies on the relation between occupation and female crime have drawn no uniform conclusion with regard to the influence of occupation on criminal behaviour. The early studies of Pollack (1950) and Smith (1962) found a substantial portion of the female offenders engaged in domestic service. Table – XXI shows details regarding occupation of the female respondents.

TABLE – XXI
DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION

Occupation	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Agricultural labourers	7 (63.63) (7.87)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (18.18) (25.00)	2 (18.18) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	11 (100.00) (9.17)
Labourers	22 (75.86) (24.72)	2 (6.89) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	3 (10.34) (25.00)	2 (6.89) (100.00)	29 (100.00) (24.17)
Skilled workers	2 (100.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (100.00) (1.67)
Domestic workers	37 (75.51) (41.57)	5 (10.20) (55.56)	2 (4.08) (25.00)	5 (10.20) (41.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	49 (100.00) (40.82)
Begging and lottering	21 (72.41) (23.60)	2 (6.89) (22.22)	4 (13.79) (50.00)	2 (6.89) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	29 (100.00) (24.17)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

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The Table – XXI reveals that, among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 7.87 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.72 per cent were laboureres, 2.25 per cent were skilled workers, 41.57 per cent were domestic workers and 23.6 per cent belonging to begging and lottering. From the nine female property offenders, 22.22 per cent were labourers, 55.56 per cent were domestic workers and 22.22 per cent were begging and lottering. None of the female property offenders belonged to agricultural labourers and skilled workers.

Among the eight female prohibition offenders, 25 per cent were agricultural labourers, 25 per cent were domestic workers and 50 per cent of the female prohibition offenders had resorted to begging and lottering. None of the female property offenders were labourers or skilled workers. Among the 12 drug offenders, 16.67 per cent were agricultural labourers, 25 per cent were labourers, 41.67 per cent were domestic workers and 16.67 per cent of the female drug offenders resorted begging and lottering. None of the female drug offenders were skilled workers.

Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were labourers. None of the female immoral traffic offenders were agricultural labourers, skilled workers, domestic workers and they did not resort to begging or lottering.

Among the 11 agricultural labourers, 63.63 per cent were homicidal offenders, 18.18 per cent were prohibition offenders and 18.18 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders belonged to agricultural labourers.

Among the 29 female labourers, 75.86 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.89 per cent were property offenders, 10.34 per cent were drug offenders and 6.89 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the

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prohibition offenders belonged to labourers. Among the two female skilled workers, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were skilled workers. Among 49 domestic workers, 75.51 per cent were homicidal offenders, 10.2 per cent were property offenders, 4.08 per cent were prohibition offenders, 10.2 per cent were drug offenders and none of the immoral traffic offenders were domestic workers.

Among 29 female respondents who resorted to begging and lottering, 72.41 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.89 per cent were property offenders, 13.79 per cent were prohibition offenders, 6.89 per cent were drug offenders and none of the female offenders who resorted to begging and lottering were immoral traffic offenders.

Among the 120 female respondents, 9.17 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.17 per cent were labourers, 1.67 per cent were skilled workers, 40.82 per cent were domestic workers and 24.17 per cent were begging and lottering. This shows interestingly that in the sample 40.82 per cent of the female respondents who were working as domestic servants and 55.56 per cent resorted to property offences. This observation supports the findings of Pollack (1950), Smith (1962) and others that the women in domestic service were more for homicide and property crime as they are constantly exposed to the life styles of those much wealthier than them.

The Table – XXII shows the distribution of male respondents by occupation.

TABLE – XXII
DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION

Occupation	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
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Agricultural labourers	3 (10.71)	(11.54)	3 (30.00)	(11.54)	6 (16.67)	(23.07)	14 (11.11)	(53.85)	26 (13.00)	(100.00)
Labourers	17 (60.71)	(19.10)	4 (40.00)	(4.49)	12 (33.33)	(13.48)	56 (44.44)	(62.92)	89 (44.50)	(100.00)
Skilled workers	1 (3.57)	(4.76)	1 (10.00)	(4.76)	3 (8.33)	(14.28)	16 (12.70)	(79.19)	21 (10.50)	(100.00)
Domestic workers	7 (25.00)	(12.28)	1 (10.00)	(1.75)	13 (36.11)	(22.80)	36 (28.57)	(63.16)	57 (28.50)	(100.00)
Begging and lottering	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (10.00)	(14.29)	2 (5.56)	(28.57)	4 (3.17)	(57.14)	7 (3.50)	(100.00)
Total	28 (100.00)	(14.00)	10 (100.00)	(5.00)	36 (100.00)	(18.00)	126 (100.00)	(63.00)	200	

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XXII, shows that among the 28 male homicidal offenders, 10.71 per cent were agricultural labourers, 60.71 per cent were labourers, 3.57 per cent were skilled workers, 25 per cent were domestic workers and none of the homicidal offenders resorted to begging and lottering.

Among the 10 male property offenders, 30 per cent were agricultural labourers, 40 per cent were labourers, 10 per cent were skilled workers, 10 per cent were domestic workers and the remaining 10 per cent resorted to begging and lottering.

Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 16.67 per cent were agricultural labourers, 33.33 per cent were labourers, 8.33 per cent were skilled workers, 36.11 per cent were domestic workers and 5.56 per cent went for begging and lottering.

Among 126 male theft offenders, 11.11 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.44 per cent were labourers, 12.7 per cent were skilled workers, 28.57 per cent were domestic servants and 3.17 per cent were resorted to begging and lottering.

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Among the 26 male agricultural labourers, 11.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 11.54 per cent were property offenders, 23.07 per cent were prohibition offenders and 53.85 per cent were theft offenders. Among 89 male labourers, 19.1 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.49 per cent were property offenders, 13.48 per cent were prohibition offenders and 62.92 per cent were theft offenders.

Among 21 male skilled workers, 4.76 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.76 per cent were property offenders, 14.28 per cent were prohibition offenders and 79.19 per cent were theft offenders. Among 57 male domestic workers, 12.28 per cent were homicidal offenders, 1.75 per cent were property offenders, 22.8 per cent were prohibition offenders and 63.16 per cent were theft offenders.

Among seven male offenders resorting to begging and lottering resorted offenders, 14.29 per cent were property offenders, 28.57 per cent were prohibition offenders, 57.14 per cent were theft offenders and none of the homicidal offenders resorted to begging and lottering. Among 200 male respondents, 13 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.5 per cent were labourers, 10.5 per cent were skilled workers, 28.5 per cent were domestic workers and 3.5 per cent resorted to begging and lottering.

This indicates that, the labourers were also exposed to the life styles of those for whom they work and commit crimes to improve their standard of living. Fleisher (1966) in their empirical studies, finds that unemployment rates are less important than income levels and distribution. Time-series studies have failed to uncover a robust, positive and significant relation between unemployment on crime, but most studies based on cross-sectional and individual data do point in that direction. In the sample, comparatively demonstration effect seems to be an important factor which influenced both

male and female offenders to commit crime to improve their economic status. In the sample 24.17 per cent of female respondents and 3.5 per cent of male respondents were engaged in begging and lottering because they were unemployed. More than the above category, it was the domestic workers among females and labourers among males who committed more crime.

4.5.9 Family Income

Since low family income can contribute to family tensions especially when combined with unsatisfactory family relationships, the family income patterns of the respondents was analysed. Though the respondents' biases and possibility of misreporting cannot be overruled, whatever evaluation possible is attempted with the data at hand. The family income of the female and male respondents are shown in Table – XXIII and Figure - 15.

TABLE – XXIII
FAMILY INCOME OF THE RESPONDENTS

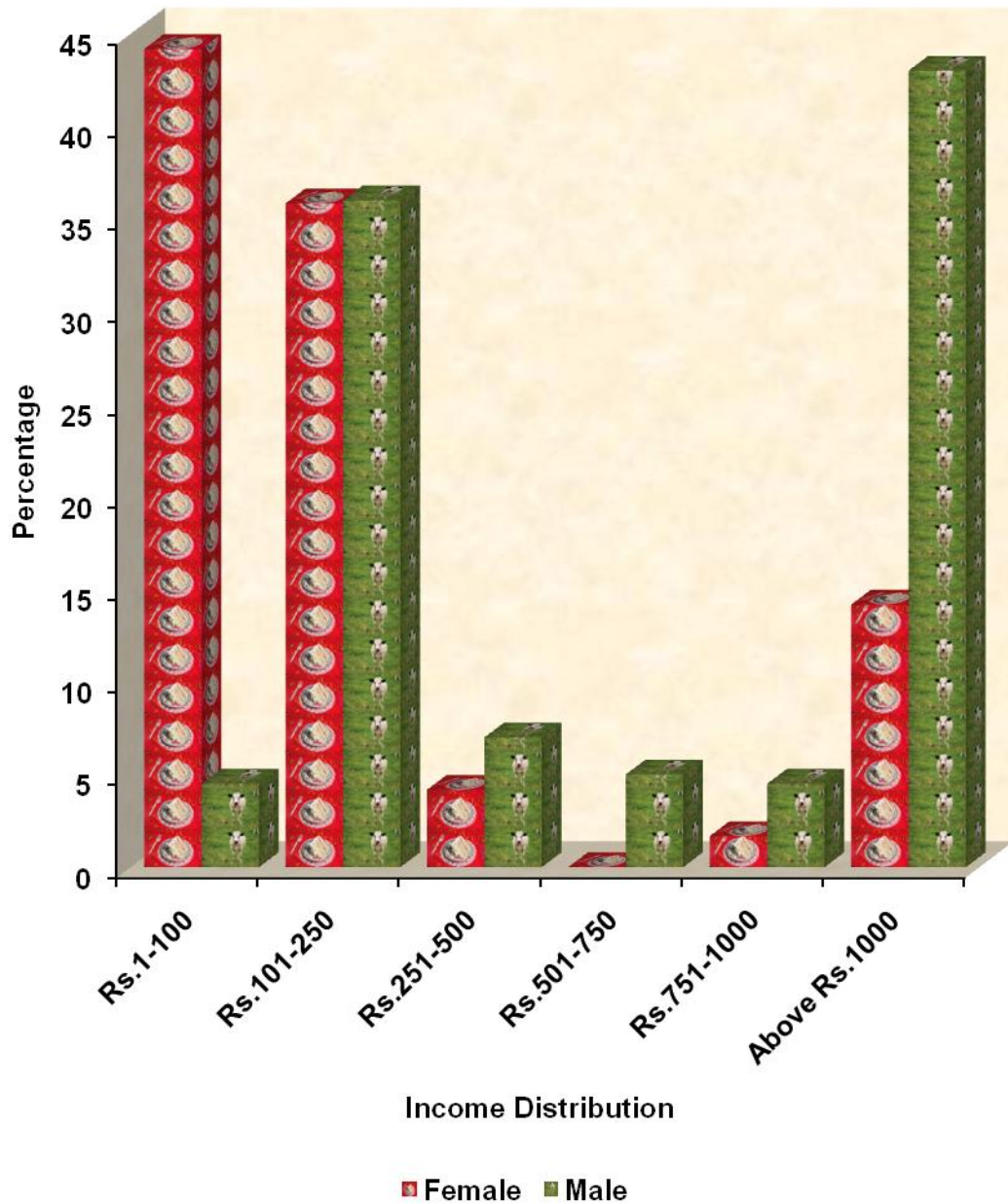
Income distribution (Rs.)	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
1 – 100	53 (44.17)	(85.48)	9 (4.50)	(14.51)	62 (19.37)	(100.00)
101 – 250	43 (35.83)	(37.39)	72 (36.00)	(62.61)	115 (35.94)	(100.00)
251 – 500	5 (4.17)	(26.31)	14 (7.00)	(73.68)	19 (5.93)	(100.00)
501 – 750	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	10 (5.00)	(100.00)	10 (3.12)	(100.00)

751 – 1000	2 (1.67)	(18.18)	9 (4.50)	(81.81)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
Above 1000	17 (14.17)	(16.50)	86 (43.00)	(83.49)	103 (32.19)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.50)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320 (100.00)	

Source : Prison Survey.

From Table – XXIII, it is inferred that from the 120 female offenders, 44.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.1-100, 35.83 per cent were getting the income between Rs.101-250 per month and 4.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.251-500. None of the female respondents were getting the family income between Rs.501-750. Only 1.67 per cent were getting the income between Rs.751-1000 and 14.17 per cent were in the income category above Rs.1000 when looking at the family income of the female respondents. While in case of male offenders, 4.5 per cent were getting the income between Rs.1-100, 36 per cent were in the income category of Rs.101-250, seven per cent were getting the family income between Rs.251-500, five per cent were in the income category of Rs.501-750, 4.5 per cent were getting the family income between Rs.750-1000 and 43 per cent were getting above Rs.1000 as their family income.

FIGURE – 15
FAMILY INCOME OF THE RESPONDENTS



Among the 62 respondents in the income category of Rs.1-100, 85.48 per cent were female respondents and 14.51 per cent were male respondents. From the 115 respondents in the income category of Rs.101-250, 37.39 per cent were female respondents and 62.61 per cent were male respondents. From the 19 respondents in the income category of Rs.251-500, 26.31 per cent were female respondents and 73.68 per cent were male respondents. From the 10 respondents in the income category of Rs.501-750, 100 per cent were male respondents and none of the female respondents were getting the income between Rs.501-750. Among 11 respondents in the income category of Rs.751-1000, 18.18 per cent were female respondents and 81.81 per cent were male respondents. Among 103 respondents in the income category of above Rs.1000, 16.5 per cent were female respondents and 83.49 per cent were male respondents.

The Table – XXIV shows the analysis of variance for testing the mean income of the different female offenders.

TABLE – XXIV
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN INCOME
OF THE FEMALE OFFENDERS

Group	Income of the offenders		'F' Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	3.8929	2.36	6.4339
Other offenders	2.5813	2.0636	

The analysis of the income profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to higher income group when compared to the other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was a significant difference in the mean income between the homicidal offenders and other offenders.

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The Table – XXV shows the analysis of variance for testing the mean income of the different male offenders.

TABLE – XXV
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN INCOME
OF THE MALE OFFENDERS

Group	Age of the offenders		F Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	1.3033	1.86	7.0624
Other offenders	2.4516	2.58	

The Table – XXV shows that the analysis of the income profile of different group of male offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower income group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant differences in the mean income of these groups of offenders.

Comparatively, male respondents received higher income than the female respondents. Female offenders seem to commit crime to improve the family income because majority of them got an income between Rs.1-500. Based on the cost of living the income is not sufficient even to meet the necessities. So they indulged in crime to get more money to support their family. Poverty seems to be the main cause for women to go for crime to earn more money. In the case of male offenders even though 43 per cent got an income of above Rs.1000, they have resorted to crime to improve their economic position since they were the main supporters of their family. This proves that economic motive is the important motive which forces a person to resort to illegal means to earn livelihood.

4.5.10 Family size

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Since any inference regarding the family income will be incomplete unless it takes into account the family size, this information has been gathered and presented along side.

Table – XXVI and Figure – 16 shows female and male respondents family size.

TABLE – XXVI
CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY SIZE

Family size	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Small family (1 – 4)	80 (66.67)	(35.87)	143 (73.00)	(73.00)	223 (69.69)	(100.00)
Large family (4 – 10)	35 (29.17)	(41.67)	49 (24.00)	(24.50)	84 (26.25)	(100.00)
Very large family (10 and above)	5 (4.17)	(38.46)	8 (4.00)	(4.00)	13 (4.06)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.50)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320 (100.00)	

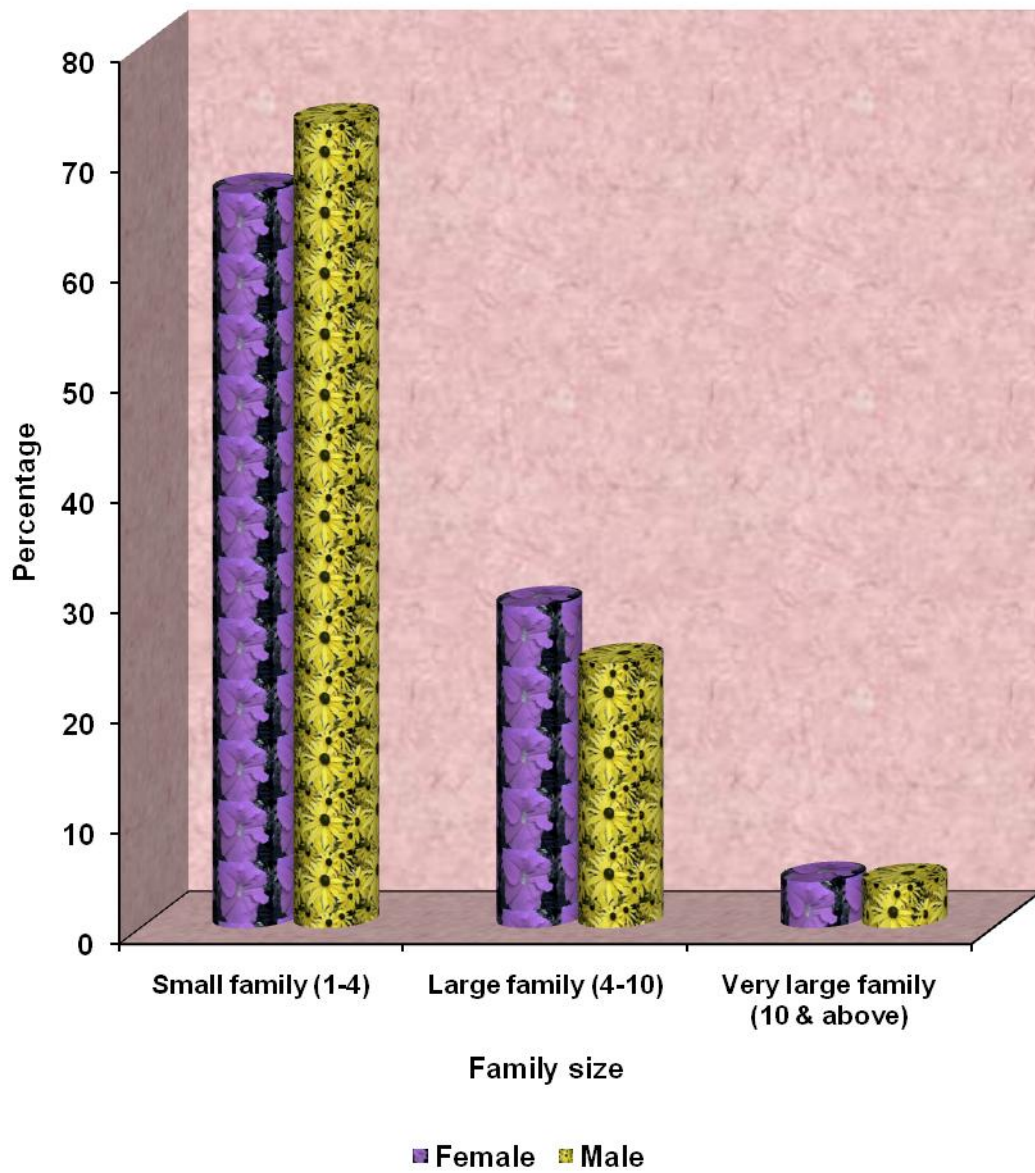
Source : Prison Survey.

Finding the number of persons in the family is one way to estimate the number of persons among whom the family income has to be distributed. The data shows that among the 120 female offenders, 66.67 per cent belonged to small family, 29.17 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining 4.17 per cent belonged to very large family. From the 200 male respondents, 73 per cent belonged to small family, 24 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining four per cent belonged to very large family size.

Among the 223 small families, 35.87 per cent were female respondents and 73 per cent were male respondents. From the 84 large families, 41.67 per

cent were female respondents and 24.5 per cent were male respondents. From the 13 very large size families, 38.46 per cent were female respondents and four per cent were male respondents. From the 320 sample, 69.69 per cent belonged to small family, 26.25 per cent belonged to large family and 4.06 per cent belonged to very large family. It is clearly brought out that the majority of the female and male offenders belonged to small size family.

FIGURE – 16
CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY SIZE



4.5.11 Type of Housing

The type of dwelling is an indicator of the economic status of the individual and can help gauge the economic situation of the respondents. So the respondents were asked to state the type of house they had resided in.

The Table – XXVII and Figure – 17 shows the type of dwelling of the respondents.

TABLE – XXVII
CLASSIFICATION OF FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS
BY TYPE OF DWELLING

Type of House	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Thatched	65 (54.17)	(35.13)	120 (60.00)	(64.86)	185 (57.81)	(100.00)
Tiled	43 (35.83)	(40.18)	64 (32.00)	(59.81)	107 (33.44)	(100.00)
RCC	4 (3.33)	(23.53)	13 (6.50)	(76.47)	17 (5.31)	(100.00)
Platform dwellers	8 (6.67)	(72.73)	3 (1.50)	(27.27)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.50)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320 (100.00)	

Source : Prison Survey.

The responses indicate that 54.17 per cent of the female respondents had resided in thatched houses, while 35.83 per cent and 3.33 per cent respondents had lived in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 6.67 per cent of the female respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. The type of dwelling by male respondents shows their standard of living, the earning capacity and also the economic situation of the family. Among the sample 60 per cent of the male

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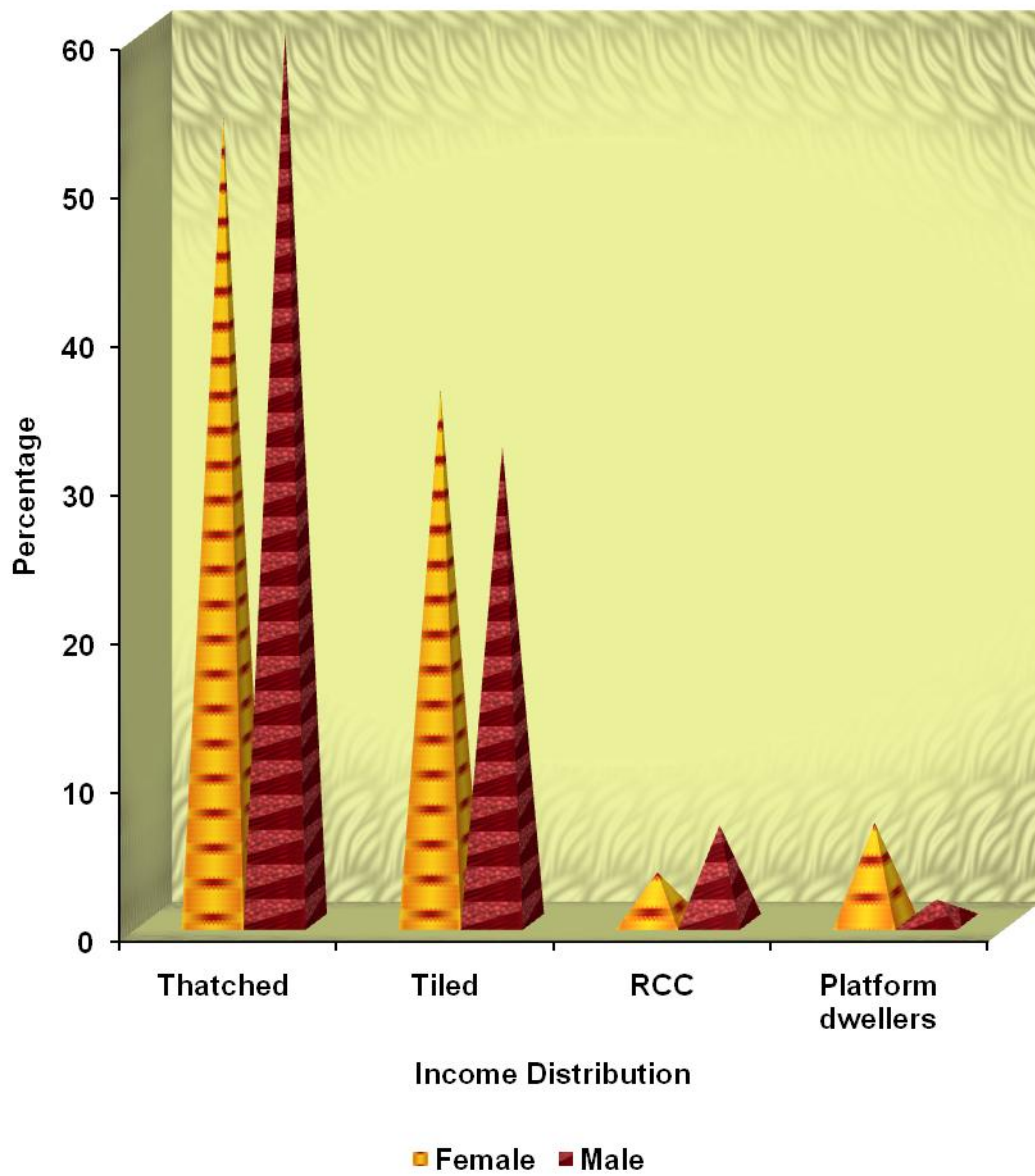
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respondents resided in thatched houses, while 32 per cent and 6.5 per cent had resided in tiled and RCC houses. The remaining 1.5 per cent of the male

FIGURE – 17
CLASSIFICATION OF FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS
BY TYPE OF DWELLING



respondents had resided in any other form of houses. Among the 185 respondents who resided in thatched houses, 35.13 per cent were female respondents and 64.86 per cent were male respondents. From the 107 respondents, 40.18 per cent were female respondents and 59.18 per cent were male respondents who lived in tiled houses. Among the 17 respondents residing in RCC houses, 23.53 per cent were female offenders and 76.47 per cent were male offenders. From the 11 respondents, 72.73 per cent of the female respondents and 27.27 per cent of the male respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. This finding shows, that the overall economic situation of the female and male respondents was poor with respect to their type of dwellings.

4.5.12 Perception of Economic Sufficiency

In any analysis of the condition of the people, the income of the respondents cannot fully account for their sense of sufficiency since other factors such as relative deprivation could come into play. With this in view, the respondents were asked to give their opinion regarding income sufficiency in matters related to their day to day affairs such as food, clothing and shelter as shown in Table – XXVIII.

TABLE – XXVIII
RESPONDENTS PERCEPTION OF INCOME SUFFICIENCY FOR
FOOD, CLOTHING AND SHELTER

Income sufficiency for	Female					Male				
	No		Yes		Total	No		Yes		Total
	No	%	No	%		No	%	No	%	
Food	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	193	96.50	7	3.50	200
Clothing	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	195	97.50	5	2.50	200
Shelter	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	193	96.50	7	3.50	200

Source : Prison Sufficiency.

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The inference is that whatever the limitation of income reporting or income presentation, the fact remains that the respondents were feeling poorer pertaining to their economic needs. Clearly the economic responsibility of managing the family is more keenly experienced by women in their status as mothers and wives, rather than as daughters of the family. Perhaps this accounts for their greater sense of economic inadequacy, though it would be too simplistic to hypothesize that a sense of deprivation alone leads to criminal behaviour of both the female and male respondents. What is significant is that almost all these offenders have expressed to having economic needs which are largely unmet.

Comparatively, male respondents perception of income sufficiency for food, clothing and shelter shows much poorer status than that of the female respondents. Since they perceived insufficiency in food, clothing and shelter, 65 per cent of the female respondents and 96 per cent of the male respondents resorted to crime to rectify their needs.

4.5.13 Economic Contribution of Spouse

Economic condition of spouses also plays an important role in the economic condition of women prisoners. The Table – XXIX shows economic contribution of the spouse.

TABLE – XXIX
FEMALE RESPONDENTS ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE

Income contribution of spouse	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Complete	24 (82.76) (35.29)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (6.89) (20.00)	3 (10.34) (33.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	29 (100.00) (31.87)
Part	18 (60.00) (26.47)	3 (10.00) (50.00)	4 (13.33) (80.00)	3 (10.00) (33.33)	2 (6.67) (100.00)	30 (100.00) (32.97)
None	26 (81.25) (38.24)	3 (9.38) (50.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	3 (9.38) (33.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	32 (100.00) (35.16)

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Total	68 (74.73) (100.00)	6 (6.59) (100.00)	6 (86.59) (100.00)	9 (9.89) (100.00)	2 (2.19) (100.00)	91 (100.00)
NA	21 (72.41) (23.59)	3 (10.34) (33.33)	2 (6.89) (25.00)	3 (10.34) (25.00)	0 (0.00)	29
Grand Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

Excluding the unmarried, widowed, divorced and separated categories, among the female offenders, 31.87 per cent of the respondents indicated that their husband's economic contribution for the household had been a total 32.97 per cent said it was part of the income coming in, implying that other family members too contributed their share.

However, what is significant is that their spouses' contribution to the family income had been nil for 35.16 per cent of female respondents indicating that the men in those households had shirked their responsibilities or had failed to fulfil them for reasons of their own.

Among the categories, the homicidal offenders seemed to be better off in his regard, with nearly 35.29 per cent of their menfolk shouldering the family financial burden, 26.47 per cent of the respondents' spouses had shared their income partially and 38.24 per cent of the respondents' spouses failed to support the family.

This suggests that the financial needs and responsibilities of the family are more keenly felt by these women than the rest. Among the property offenders, 50 per cent of the respondents' spouses shared their income partially and 50 per cent of the female respondents' spouses failed to support their family. Among the prohibition offenders, a majority of 80 per cent of the female respondents' spouses had partially supported their family, the remaining 20 per cent fully supported their family.

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Regarding drug offenders 33.33 per cent of the female respondents' spouses gave complete support to their family, 33.33 per cent of the spouses partially supported and the remaining 33.33 per cent refused to share their income. 100 per cent of the female immoral traffic offenders' spouses contributed partially to their family.

The respondents whose spouses failed to support them, were asked to give reasons for their husbands' failure to financially provide for the family. Out of 91 respondents nearly 35.16 per cent of the respondents attributed it to indulging in bad habits by their spouses, such as drinking, gambling, drug taking and promiscuous behaviour. The remaining 32.97 per cent of the respondents felt that their spouses failure to provide for their family was not intentional but due to insufficiency of income, ill health, infirmity, etc. Economic contribution of spouse plays an important role in the economic condition of male prisoners. The Table – XXX shows economic contribution of spouses to male respondents.

TABLE – XXX
ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSES TO MALE RESPONDENTS

Income contribution of spouse	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Complete	9 (34.61) (36.00)	3 (11.53) (50.00)	2 (7.69) (9.52)	12 (46.15) (14.63)	26 (100.00) (19.40)
Part	6 (22.22) (24.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	9 (33.33) (42.86)	12 (44.44) (14.63)	27 (100.00) (20.15)
None	10 (12.35) (40.00)	3 (3.70) (50.00)	10 (12.35) (47.62)	58 (71.60) (70.73)	81 (100.00) (60.45)
Total	25 (18.65) (100.00)	6 (4.47) (100.00)	21 (15.67) (100.00)	82 (61.19) (100.00)	134
NA	3 (4.54) (10.71)	4 (6.06) (40.00)	15 (22.72) (41.67)	44 (66.67) (34.92)	66
Grand Total	28 (14.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

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	(100.00)				
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Source : Prison Survey.

Excluding unmarried male respondents, 19.4 per cent of the respondents indicated that their wife's economic contribution for the household had been total, 20.15 per cent of the male respondents said it was part of the income coming in. However, the finding shows that for 60.45 per cent of men respondents, their contribution to the family income had been nil indicating that the women in those households had shirked their responsibilities or had failed to fulfil them for reasons of their own.

Among the categories, the homicidal offenders and property offenders seemed to be better off. In this regard, nearly 50 per cent and 36 per cent of the property and homicidal offenders spouses contributed their income fully to their family and 42.86 per cent of the prohibition offenders spouses contributes atleast partially.

These suggests that the financial needs and responsibilities of the family are more keenly felt by these men than the rest. The reason for their spouses failure for financial assistance was attributed to their own spending and neglect though this was not intentional but the lack of insufficiency in income, ill health, transport etc.

Comparatively, among 120 female respondents only 59 female respondents' spouses helped them with income to run the family. The rest did not contribute anything for their family maintenance. Among 200 male respondents only 53 members received financial help from their spouses. Because of the insufficiency of funds to meet atleast the basic necessities of the family, both female and male respondents resorted to criminal activities to gain economically.

An attempt was made to analyse the impact of the socio-economic factors on the nature of offences committed by female and male offenders by computing chi-square analysis.

The hypothesis framed was as follows :

H₀ : There is no association between the nature of offence committed and the socio-economic factors.

H_a : There is significant association .

The following Table – XXXI shows the chi-square results for female and male respondents.

TABLE – XXXI
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS BASED ON NATURE OF OFFENCE WITH SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES

S.No.	Variables	Female		Male	
		Calculate d χ^2 value	Critical value 5%	Calculate d χ^2 value	Critical value 5%
1.	Age	11.24*	9.488	13.037*	12.592
2.	Marital status	0.453	5.991	7.944*	7.815
3.	Caste	8.549	15.507	13.302	24.996
4.	Education	19.010	31.410	17.993	24.996
5.	Occupation	4.722	15.507	12.499	21.026
6.	Residential background	0.626	9.488	10.248	12.592
7.	Type of housing	24.603*	12.592	16.095	16.919
8.	Food	0.919	5.991	0.501	7.815
9.	Clothing	0.919	5.991	1.221	7.815

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10.	Shelter	0.919	5.991	2.028	7.815
11.	Economic contribution of spouses	6.811*	5.991	14.095	16.919

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

The results proves the hypothesis, that the socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.

From the Table – XXXI, the results reveals that the age, type of housing and economic contribution of spouses emerged to have a significant influence with the nature of offence by female offenders and in case of male offenders the variable age and marital status emerged significantly associated with nature of offence. The majority of the female respondents between 25 and 50 years of age committed crimes. As they grew older, they did not want to commit crimes while the male offenders committed crime in the age group of 25-50 years. This shows that both women and men commit crime only when they are young. As they advance in their age they seem to hesitate to indulge in crime. Similarly, the female respondents poverty which forced to live in deplorable housing condition would have forced to commit crimes. Lack of financial assistance for their own spending leading to insufficiency, would also made these women to commit crime. Marital status of the male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. Among the male offenders, it was the married offenders who involved in more crimes than the unmarried. This supports the findings of Prasad (1982), Nagla (1982) and Rani (1983) suggest, that it was the married women and men who are more vulnerable to crime than their unmarried counterparts because they have to cope with highly stressful family situations.

4.6 CRIME HISTORY

Crime and criminality are said to be an inevitable part of the process of economic and social development (Zvekc, 1990). Economics of crime

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emphasizes the need to view crime as a process of interconnected relationships working towards the maximization of profit. This occurs within a context of set power structures and social constraints. Crime has been described as a negative and pervasive effect of development or as a consequence of development that is disorderly or unbalanced.

4.6.1 Duration of Sentence

The criminal career idea has not permeated the work of economists to any great extent. This does not mean that a conventional economic analysis of it is not possible. Such an approach could be developed by taking account of learning and information acquisition. As time passes a criminal learns about the techniques of crime and the available opportunities for crime from other criminals.

Punishment plays a special role in this as the prison is a veritable university of crime where the criminal has an opportunity to learn from the past successes and failures of masters of the art. In this approach entrants to crime are rational utility maximizers with time in variant preferences ; this implies that they should purposefully get arrested in order to obtain entry to prison. Entry to crime is an act of resolving conflict in an environment where risks are not known because of the absence of repeated sampling and the substantial uniqueness of each person's entry. Mixing with more experienced criminals cements the decision to become a criminal, but it is not the by-product of deliberate decision to obtain human capital by going to prison.

The primary data collected reveals that the females are involved in homicide offences, property offences, prohibition offences, drug offences and immoral traffic offences and the male respondents were involved in homicide offences, property offences, prohibition offences and theft offences. Table –

XXXII indicates distribution of female respondents by duration of sentence for the above crimes.

TABLE – XXXII
DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY DURATION OF SENTENCE

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Over six months to under one year	0 (0.00)	6 (66.67)	0 (0.00)	2 (16.67)	2 (20.00)	10 (100.00)
Over one year to under five years	13 (56.52)	3 (33.33)	6 (26.09)	1 (4.35)	0 (0.00)	23 (100.00)
Over five years	14 (56.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (8.00)	9 (36.00)	0 (0.00)	25 (100.00)
Lifers	62 (70.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	62 (100.00)
Total	89 (74.17)	9 (7.5)	8 (6.67)	12 (10.00)	2 (1.67)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XXXII reveals that among the 89 female homicidal offenders, majority 70 per cent of the respondents were life convicts, 15.73 per cent of the female respondents were convicted over five years and the remaining 14.61 per cent of the female respondents were convicted between one year to under five years. None of the female homicidal offenders were over six months to under one year. Among the female property offenders, 66.67 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. The remaining 33.33 per cent of the female respondents were convicted over one year to under five years. None of the female property offenders were lifers and convicted over five years. Regarding female prohibition offenders, 75 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and the remaining 25 per cent were convicted over five years. None of the female prohibition offenders were lifers and convicted over six months to under one year.

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Among the female drug offenders, 75 per cent were convicted over five years, 16.67 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year and 8.33 per cent were convicted over one year to over five years. None of the female drug offenders were lifers. Regarding immoral traffic offenders 100 per cent of the female convicts were convicted over six months to under one year.

Among the 10 respondents convicted over six months to under one year, 60 per cent were property offenders, 20 per cent were drug offenders and 20 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the homicidal offenders and prohibition offenders were convicted over six months to under one year. Among 23 female respondents convicted over one year to under five years, 56.52 per cent were homicidal offenders, 13.04 per cent were property offenders, 26.09 per cent were prohibition offenders and 4.35 per cent were drug offenders. None of the immoral traffic offenders were convicted over one year to under five years.

Among the 25 female offenders convicted over five years, 56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 36 per cent were drug offenders and only eight per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were convicted over five years. Regarding 62 respondents convicted as lifers, 100 per cent of the homicidal offenders were lifers. This proves that homicidal offenders were convicted for more years of imprisonment than other offenders.

Table – XXXIII depicts the distribution of male respondents by duration of sentence.

TABLE – XXXIII
DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY DURATION OF SENTENCE

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Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Over six months to under one year	6 (5.21) (21.43)	8 (6.96) (80.00)	21 (18.26) (58.33)	80 (69.56) (63.49)	115 (100.00) (57.50)
Over one year to under five years	4 (8.70) (14.29)	1 (2.17) (10.00)	8 (17.39) (22.22)	33 (71.74) (26.19)	46 (100.00) (23.00)
Over five years	3 (15.79) (10.71)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (36.84) (19.44)	9 (47.36) (7.14)	19 (100.00) (9.50)
Lifers	15 (75.00) (53.57)	1 (5.00) (10.00)	0 (0.00) (10.00)	4 (20.00) (3.17)	20 (100.00) (10.00)
Total	28 (14.00) (100.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

Unlike female offenders among the 200 males, 28 were homicidal offenders. Among them 53.57 per cent male respondents were undergoing life sentence, 21.43 per cent of the male respondents were convicted over six months to under one year and 14.29 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years. The remaining 10.71 per cent were convicted over five years. Among the 10 male property offenders, 80 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 10 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and the remaining 10 per cent of the male property offenders were lifers. None of the male property offenders were convicted over five years. Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 58.33 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 22.22 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and 19.44 per cent were convicted over five years. None of the prohibition offenders were undergoing life sentence. Among the 126 theft offenders, 63.49 per cent of the male offenders were convicted over six months to under one year, 26.19 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years, 7.14 per cent were convicted over five

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years and 3.17 per cent were convicted as lifers. Among the 200 male offenders, 57.5 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 23 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years, 9.5 per cent were convicted over five years and 10 per cent were lifers.

Among the 115 male respondents convicted over six months to under one year, 5.21 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.96 per cent were property offenders, 18.26 per cent were prohibition offenders and 69.56 per cent were theft offenders. From the 46 male respondents convicted over one year to under five years, 8.7 per cent were homicidal offenders, 2.17 per cent were property offenders, 17.39 per cent were prohibition offenders and 71.74 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the 19 male respondents convicted over five years, 15.79 per cent were homicidal offenders, 36.84 per cent were prohibition offenders and 47.36 per cent were theft offenders. None of the property offenders were convicted over five years. Among the 20 life convicts, 75 per cent of the male respondents were homicidal offenders, 20 per cent were theft offenders and only five per cent were property offenders. None of the prohibition offenders were undergoing life sentence. An analysis of the punishment given to different offences reveal that for the homicidal offences the punishment was severe than other offences. An attempt was made to find out how many of them indulge in crime after their release from the prison and return to the prison repeatedly. This proves the hypothesis that the duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

4.6.2 Recidivism Imprisoned

Inspite of the imprisonment undergone by the convicts they repeatedly committed crime to gain economically. This shows that punishment has less impact on them than the reward which they get if they escape from their

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criminal activity. This finding supports the theory (Economic or Punishment and Reward Theory) developed by George (1958). The theory stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables the individual to choose courses of action freely and also believed to possess the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. The decision making in this sense is meant to act rationally that is to choose courses of actions which maximize his expected utility (within the resource constraints that is his own perceptual and information based on practice, circumstances and past history) and to minimize disutility (the cost of penalty).

The Table – XXXIV indicates distribution of recidivists among the female respondents.

TABLE – XXXIV
DISTRIBUTION OF RECIDIVISTS AMONG THE FEMALE RESPONDENTS

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
First time	83 (72.80) (93.26)	9 (7.89) (100.00)	8 (7.01) (100.00)	12 (10.53) (100.00)	2 (1.75) (100.00)	114 (100.00) (95.00)
Second time	6 (100.00) (6.74)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
More than twice	-	-	-	-	-	- -
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XXXIV reveals that among the 89 homicidal offenders, 93.26 per cent were imprisoned for the first time and 6.74 per cent were imprisoned for the second time. All the property, prohibition, drug and immoral traffic offenders were imprisoned for the first time. This shows that except a minimum percentage of female offenders all others committed crime for the first time.

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The Table – XXXV indicates that distribution of recidivists among the male respondents.

TABLE – XXXV
DISTRIBUTION OF RECIDIVISTS AMONG THE MALE RESPONDENTS

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
First time	18 (19.56) (64.29)	7 (7.61) (70.00)	19 (20.65) (52.77)	48 (52.17) (38.10)	92 (100.00) (46.00)
Second time	1 (2.27) (3.57)	1 (2.27) (10.00)	6 (13.63) (16.67)	36 (81.81) (28.57)	44 (100.00) (22.00)
More than twice	9 (14.06) (32.14)	2 (3.12) (20.00)	11 (17.18) (30.56)	42 (65.62) (33.33)	64 (100.00) (32.00)
Total	28 (14.00) (100.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XXXV depicts 46 per cent of the male convicts were first timers, 22 per cent were second timers and 32 per cent committed the offence more than twice. Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 64.29 per cent were first timers, 3.57 per cent committed crime second time and 32.14 per cent committed more than twice.

Among the 10 property offenders, 70 per cent were first timers, 10 per cent committed second time and the remaining 20 per cent committed more than twice. Among the prohibition offenders, 52.77 per cent were first timers, 16.67 per cent were second timers and 30.56 per cent committed more than twice. Among the theft offenders, 38.1 per cent were first timers, 28.57 per cent committed crime second time and 33.33 per cent committed more than twice.

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Among the 92 male respondents who committed crime first time, 19.56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.61 per cent were property offenders, 20.65 per cent were prohibition offenders and 52.17 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 44 male respondents, 2.27 per cent of the homicidal offenders committed the crime second time, 2.27 per cent of the property offenders committed crime second time, 13.63 per cent of the prohibition offenders committed crime second time and 81.81 per cent of the theft offenders committed crime second time. Among 64 male respondents, 14.06 per cent of the homicidal offenders committed the crime more than twice, 3.12 per cent of the property offenders committed more than twice, 17.18 per cent of the prohibition offenders committed crime more than twice and 65.62 per cent of the theft offenders committed crime more than twice. These findings revealed that a large proportion of the male convicts are habitual offenders with respect to the nature of offence.

Discriminant Analysis

Discriminant analysis was used to determine the factors that discriminate the female homicidal offenders and other offenders. Seven variables were selected namely, Age (A), Marital Status (MS), Educational Qualification (EQ), Family Income (FI), Occupation (OCC), Duration of Sentence (DS), Reasons for Committing the Crime (RCC) and they have been established as the major factors determining the criminal activity and are, therefore, taken as independent variables for developing the model.

The means of the independent variable are shown in the Table – XXXVI.

TABLE – XXXVI
MEANS OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLE FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS

S.No.	Variables	Homicidal offenders	Other offenders	Grand means
1.	Age	43.194	42.011	42.3167
2.	Marital status	2.194	2.247	2.2250
3.	Educational qualification	2.000	1.775	1.8417
4.	Family income	2.452	1.303	1.6000
5.	Occupation	3.419	3.483	3.4667
6.	Duration of sentence	2.032	3.551	3.1500
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	6.484	9.213	8.5167

It was found from the Table – XXXVI, that there were significant differences in age, educational qualification, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime, while there were not much differences in the mean values of the remaining factors.

The unstandardized canonical discriminant function which represent a linear composite of the original data that maximizes the ratios of among group variability to within group variability was estimated as follows :

$$Z = 3.206 + 0.007 (A) + 0.067 (MS) - 0.039 (EQ) + 0.182 (FI) + 0.085 (OCC) - 1.236 (DS) - 0.029 (RCC)$$

In the above function, the variable age, marital status, family income and occupation had a positive sign indicating that these variables had higher discriminating powers between the groups. The variables of educational qualifications, duration of sentence and the reasons for committing the crime had a negative sign indicating lower discriminating powers.

The validity of the above discriminant function was valued at group centroids (group means) and the results are shown in the Table – XXXVII.

TABLE – XXXVII

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CLASSIFICATION OF SAMPLE CASES FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS

S.No.	Classification	Actual	Predicted
1.	Actual	27	4
2.	Predicted	16	73
	TOTAL	43	77

Table – XXXVII indicates that among the 43 respondents included in actual, 27 were assigned correctly in actual and 16 were assigned incorrectly in predicted. In predicted, of the 77 respondents, four were correctly assigned to actual and 73 were incorrectly assigned to predicted and the overall per cent of the sample correctly classified was 83 per cent.

The relative contribution of each factor in discriminating the two groups was found out and are given in Table – XXXVIII.

TABLE – XXXVIII
RELATIVE DISCRIMINATING POWER

S.No.	Variables	Relative discriminating power	Percentage contribution of the variables
1.	Age	0.091	64.04
2.	Marital status	0.050	3.39
3.	Educational qualification	-0.045	3.39
4.	Occupation	0.378	3.19
5.	Family income	0.113	4.92
6.	Duration of sentence	-0.945	8.76
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.118	12.32

From the Table – XXXVIII, it is evident that age differentiates the two groups significantly the discriminating power of this variable is 64.04 per cent.

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The second most discriminating factor is reasons for committing the crime 12.32 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 8.76 per cent.

The following seven variables have been selected for inclusion in the discrimination function for the male respondents. The major factors determining the male respondents criminal activity were Age (A), Marital Status (MS), Educational Qualification (EQ), Family Income (FI), Occupation (OCC), Duration of Sentence (DS), Reasons for Committing the Crime (RCC). The means of the independent variables are shown in Table – XXXIX.

TABLE – XXXIX
THE MEANS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLE FOR MALE OFFENDERS

S.No.	Variables	Homicidal offenders	Other offenders	Grand means
1.	Age	33.599	36.036	33.9400
2.	Marital status	1.686	2.143	1.7500
3.	Educational qualification	2.244	2.714	2.3100
4.	Family income	2.581	3.893	2.7650
5.	Occupation	2.744	2.714	2.3100
6.	Duration of sentence	1.517	2.964	1.7200
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	5.866	6.036	5.8900

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It was found from the Table – XXXIX, there were significant differences in the mean age, marital status, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime, while there were not much differences in the mean values of the remaining factors.

The unstandardized canonical discriminant function which represents a linear composite of the original data that maximizes the ratios of among group variability to within group variability was estimated as follows :

$$Z = 2.990 + 0.001 (A) - 0.629 (MS) - 0.173 (EQ) + 0.067 (OCC) + 0.027 (FI) - 1.013 (DS) - 0.006 (RCC)$$

In the above function, age, occupation and family income had a positive sign indicating that there exists a strong relationship between the groups and the discriminant function. The remaining variables – marital status, educational qualification, duration of sentence and reasons for committing crime had a negative sign indicating lower discriminating powers.

The validity of the above discriminant function was evaluated at group centroids (group means) and the results are shown in Table – XL.

TABLE – XL
CLASSIFICATION OF SAMPLE CASES FOR MALE OFFENDERS

S.No.	Classification	Actual	Predicted
1.	Actual	148	24
2.	Predicted	8	20
	TOTAL	156	44

Table – XL indicates that among the 156 respondents included in actual, 148 were assigned correctly and eight were assigned incorrectly to predicted ; similarly of the 44 respondents in predicted, 24 were correctly assigned to actual, and 20 were incorrectly assigned to predicted. The overall percentage of the sample classified correctly was 84 per cent.

The relative contribution of each factor in discriminating the two groups was found out and are given in Table – XLI.

TABLE – XLI
RELATIVE DISCRIMINATING POWER

S.No.	Variables	Relative discriminating power	Percentage contribution of the variables
1.	Age	0.009	62.28
2.	Marital status	-0.370	4.64
3.	Educational qualification	-0.195	5.19
4.	Occupation	0.086	4.20
5.	Family income	0.069	4.78
6.	Duration of sentence	-0.876	7.69
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.019	11.19

It is evident that age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 62.28 per cent. The second most discriminating factor the reasons for committing the crime is 11.19 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 7.69 per cent.

4.6.3 Role in Crime

For a comprehensive understanding of criminal behavior, it is essential to gain information on all aspects of the crime including the actor's specific

role in its commission. It is also interesting to study to learn the exact nature of respondents participation in different types of crime.

Table – XLII reveals that female respondents role in crime.

TABLE – XLII
FEMALE RESPONDENTS ROLE IN CRIME

Role	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Sole proprietor	38 (63.33) (42.70)	5 (8.33) (55.56)	8 (13.33) (100.00)	9 (15.00) (75.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	60 (100.00) (50.00)
Accomplice	40 (86.96) (44.94)	2 (4.35) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (4.35) (16.67)	2 (4.35) (100.00)	46 (100.00) (38.33)
Gang member	11 (78.57) (12.36)	2 (14.28) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	1 (7.14) (8.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	14 (100.00) (11.67)
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLII reveals that in the sample 50 per cent of the women convicts had committed the crime single handedly, 38.33 per cent had operated as accomplices and 11.67 per cent of the female convicts committed the crime with gang membership. Among the 89 homicidal offenders, 42.7 per cent committed single handedly, 44.94 per cent were accomplices and 12.36 per cent committed with gang membership. Among nine female property offenders, 55.56 per cent committed the crime single handedly, 22.22 per cent acted as accomplices and 22.22 per cent indicated gang membership. Among eight prohibition offenders, 100 per cent committed crime single handedly and none of the prohibition offenders acted as accomplices and gang membership. Among 12 drug offenders, 75 per cent of the female convicts acted as sole proprietors, 16.67 per cent committed as accomplices and only 8.33 per cent committed with gang membership. Among two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent acted as accomplices.

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Among the 60 female convicts who committed the crime single handedly, 63.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 8.33 per cent were property offenders, 13.33 per cent were prohibition offenders, 15 per cent were drug offenders and none of the female convicts had acted as sole proprietor in immoral traffic. Among the 46 female convicts as accomplices, 86.96 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.35 per cent were property offenders, 4.35 per cent were drug offenders and 4.35 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the female prohibition offenders acted as accomplices. Among the 14 women convicts acted as gang members, 78.57 per cent were homicidal offenders, 14.28 per cent were property offenders, 7.14 per cent were drug offenders and none of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders acted as gang membership. Among the categories, in prohibition and drug offences, the women in accordance with their traditional gender roles have been used as conduits to distract and allay suspicion. A major crime like murder may require help in planning and execution as well as psychological dependence of a kind, very different from what is necessary for minor offences.

The interviews reveals that in almost all cases the women had acted as accomplices to close family members i.e., husband, paramour, son, daughter, etc. Immoral traffic and property offenders had operated independently for the most part, but it is only for these two crimes we find gang membership indicating organized crime activities though drug trafficking is one to involve the most sophisticated of crime networks. Our respondents in the category were who had merely been used as conduits and therefore little information was forthcoming from them. Among the immoral traffic offenders, respondents stated that they had some sort of male protection for their activities. The understanding of criminal behavior of the male respondents by their crime

including the actor's specific role participated in its commission is given in Table – XLIII which reveals the male respondents' role in crime.

TABLE – XLIII
MALE RESPONDENTS ROLE IN CRIME

Role	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Sole proprietor	16 (11.68) (57.14)	6 (4.38) (60.00)	29 (21.17) (80.56)	86 (62.77) (68.25)	137 (100.00) (68.50)
Accomplice	4 (14.81) (14.29)	3 (11.11) (30.00)	5 (18.52) (13.89)	15 (55.55) (11.90)	27 (100.00) (13.50)
Gang member	8 (22.22) (28.57)	1 (2.77) (10.00)	2 (5.56) (5.56)	25 (69.44) (19.84)	36 (100.00) (18.00)
Total	28 (14.00) (100.00)	10 (5.00) (100.00)	36 (18.00) (100.00)	126 (63.00) (100.00)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLIII reveals that most of the offenders had committed the crime single handedly amount to 68.5 per cent, 13.5 per cent of the male offenders acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Among the male homicidal offenders, 57.14 per cent had operated the crime single handedly, 14.29 per cent operated the crime with accomplices and 28.57 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Among the 10 property offenders, 60 per cent committed the crime single handedly, 30 per cent of the offenders acted as accomplices and 10 per cent acted as gang membership. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 80.56 per cent committed crime single handedly, 13.89 per cent acted as accomplice and 5.56 per cent committed crime as gang membership. Among 126 theft offenders, 68.25 per cent were sole proprietors of their crime, 11.9 per cent acted as accomplice and 19.84 per cent committed gang membership.

As a whole, 68.5 per cent of the male respondents committed the crime single handedly, 13.5 per cent acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime with gang membership. Comparatively, most of the female and male respondents indulge in crime single handedly when compared with other roles such as accomplice and gang member.

4.6.4 Motive for Committing Crime

According to Beckers (1968) exposition on an economic model of crime assumed that a potential offender acts as an expected – utility maximiser who allocates his time between competing activities, both legal and illegal with uncertain consequences. A rational agent will thus engage in some illegal activity as long as the marginal return from crime exceeds the marginal return from legal occupation by more than the expected value of the penalty (Marselli and Vannini, 1997). The theoretical foundations of the link between economic deprivation and crime is based upon the notion that deprivation creates economically motivated offenders who are compelled to commit crime in order to satisfy basic needs (Shihadeh and Qusey, 1998). Effort was taken to find out the motives which encouraged the respondents to commit the crime. Dispute over property, vendetta, sexual causes, economic gain and provocation were the motives mentioned by the respondents for committing crime.

Table – XLIV and Figure – 18 shows the female respondents’ motives for committing crime.

TABLE – XLIV
FEMALE RESPONDENTS’ MOTIVES FOR CRIME

Motives	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
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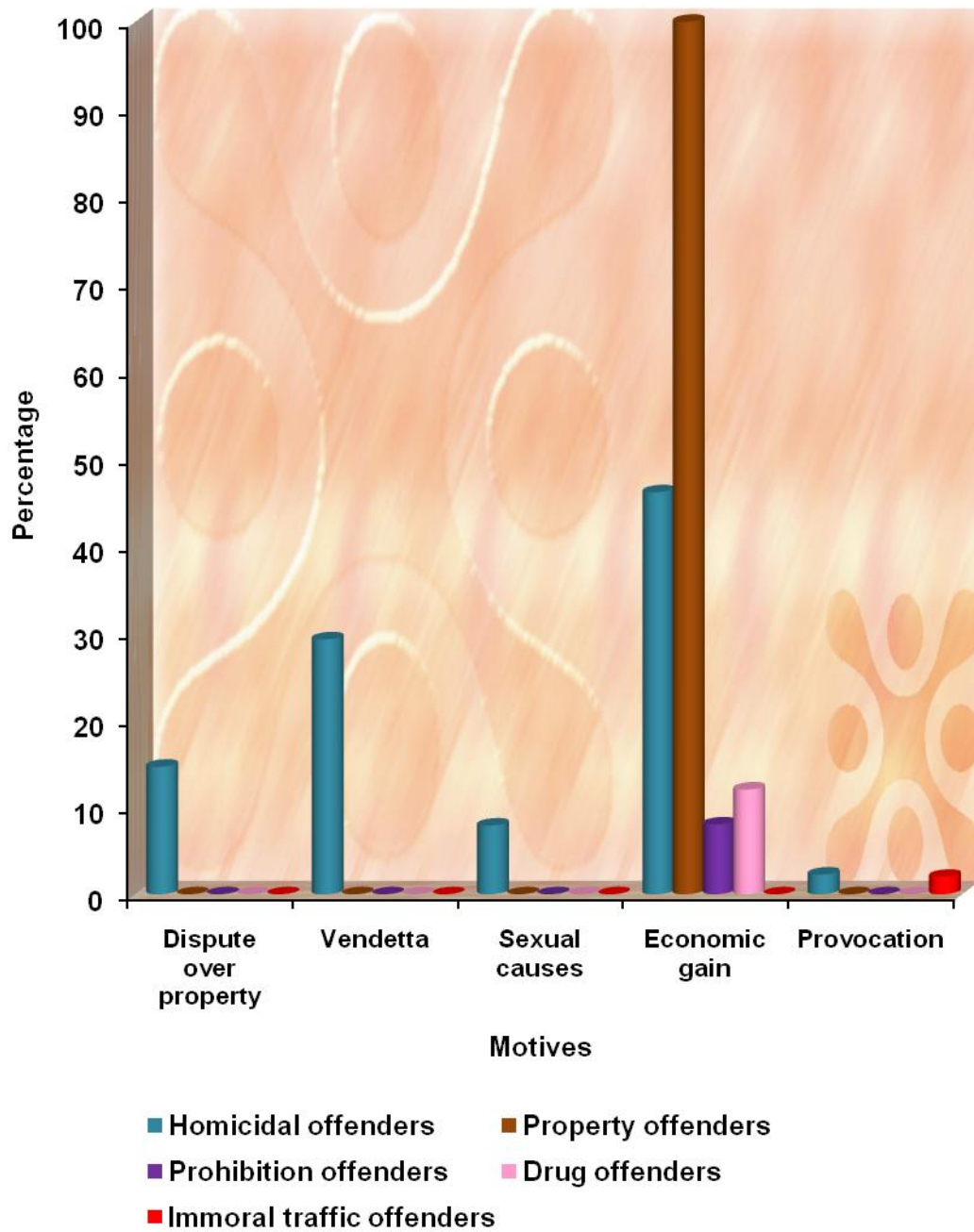
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Dispute over property	13 (100.00) (14.61)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
Vendetta	26 (100.00) (29.21)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	26 (100.00) (21.67)
Sexual causes	7 (100.00) (7.87)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (100.00) (5.83)
Economic gain	41 (58.57) (46.07)	9 (12.86) (100.00)	8 (11.43) (100.00)	12 (17.4) (100.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	70 (100.00) (58.33)
Provocation	2 (50.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (50.00) (100.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)	
Total	89 (74.17) (100.00)	9 (7.5) (100.00)	8 (6.67) (100.00)	12 (10.00) (100.00)	2 (1.67) (100.00)	120	

Source : Prison Survey.

FIGURE – 18
FEMALE RESPONDENTS' MOTIVES FOR CRIME



From the Table – XLIV, it is evident that among the motives, economic gain seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime 58.33 per cent. Fully knowing the consequences of their crime and the punishment they may get if they are caught, they attempted to commit the crime in order to have better economic gain. For 21.67 per cent of the female respondents vendetta was the second important motive for their crime. Dispute over property was the motive for 10.83 per cent of the female offenders. For 5.83 per cent of the female offenders motivation for criminal activity was sexual causes. Only 3.33 per cent of the female respondents specified that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Among the 89 homicidal offenders, 14.61 per cent of the respondents' motivation for committing the crime was dispute over property, 29.21 per cent of the respondents' motive for crime was vendetta, 7.87 per cent of the respondents' motive for crime was sexual causes, 46.07 per cent of the respondents' motive was economic gain and only 2.25 per cent of the respondents' motive was provocation. For property, prohibition and drug offenders economic gain was the main motive for committing crime. For immoral traffic offenders provocation was the main motive to commit crime.

Table – XLV and Figure – 19 shows the male respondents' motives for crime.

TABLE – XLV
MALE RESPONDENTS MOTIVE FOR CRIME

Motives	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
Dispute over property	5 (17.86)	(55.56)	1 (10.00)	(11.11)	2 (5.56)	(22.22)	1 (0.79)	(11.11)	9 (4.5)	(100.00)
Vendetta	5 (17.86)	(71.43)	1 (10.00)	(14.28)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(14.28)	7 (3.5)	(100.00)
Sexual causes	1 (3.57)	(100.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.5)	(100.00)
Economic gain	15 (53.57)	(8.43)	8 (80.00)	(4.49)	34 (94.44)	(19.10)	121 (96.03)	(67.97)	178 (89.0)	(100.00)
Provocation	2 (7.14)	(40.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (2.38)	(60.00)	5 (2.5)	(100.00)
Total	28 (100.00)	(14.00)	10 (100.00)	(5.00)	36 (100.00)	(18.00)	126 (100.00)	(63.00)	200	

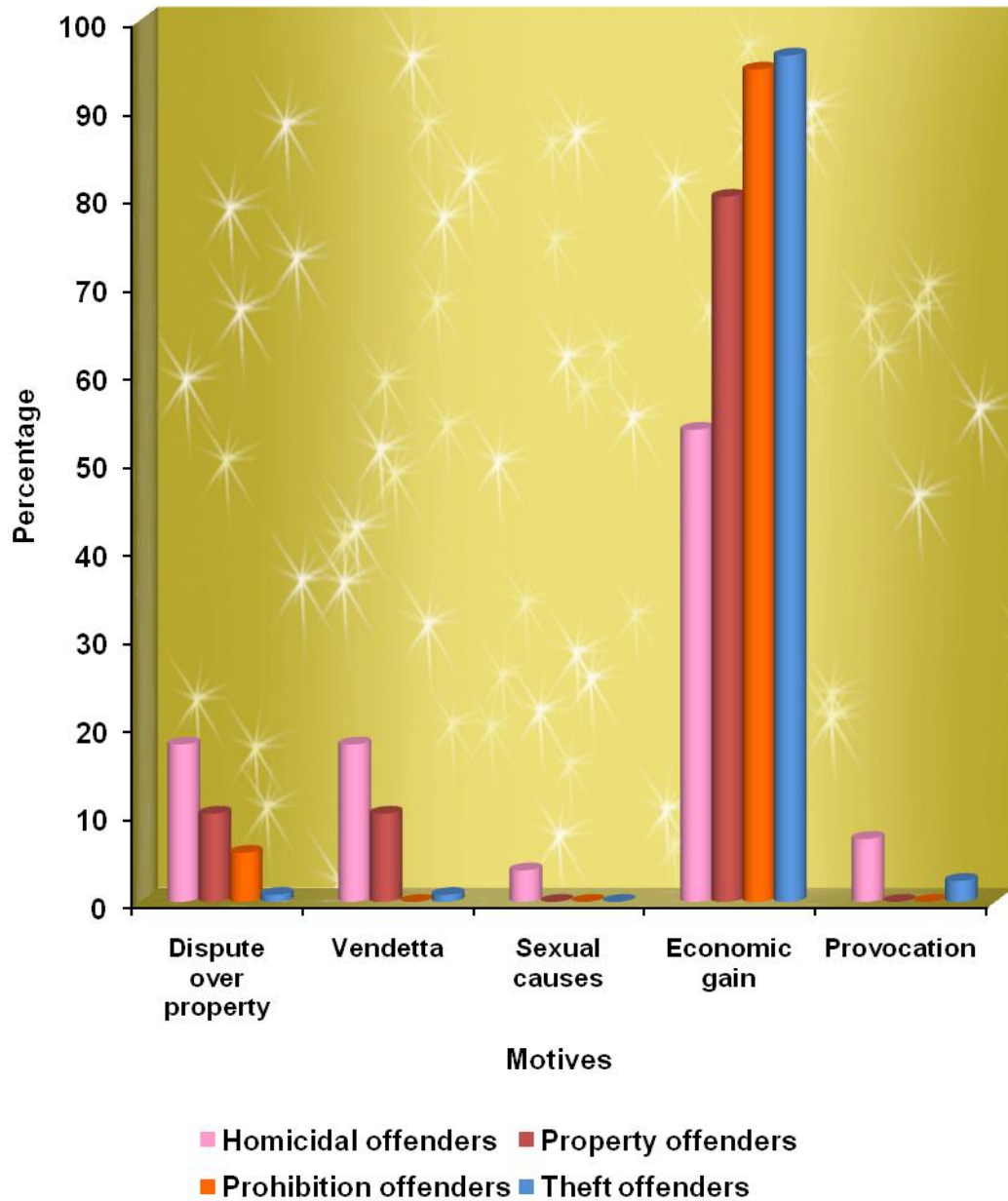
Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLV reveals that economic gain is the main motivating factor for committing crime. Among the 200 male respondents, 89 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically and 4.5 per cent of the respondents specified that dispute over property was the motivating factor for committing the crime. Vendetta was the main motive for 3.5 per cent of the male offenders, 2.5 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the motivating factor for their criminal activity and 0.5 per cent of the male offenders indicated sexual cause was the motive for committing crime.

Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 53.57 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically, 17.86 per cent of the respondents specified dispute over property as the motive, 17.86 per cent of the male respondents indicated vendetta was the motivation factor for crime

and 7.14 per cent of the male respondents indicated that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Only 3.57 per cent of the male respondents committed crime for sexual cause. Among the 10 property offenders, 10 per cent of the respondents' motive was dispute over property, 10 per cent of the respondents motive for committing the crime was vendetta

FIGURE – 19
MALE RESPONDENTS' MOTIVES FOR CRIME



and 80 per cent of the male respondents main motive was economic gain. From the 36 prohibition offenders, 94.44 per cent of the respondents motive was economic gain and the remaining 5.56 per cent respondents motive for committing the crime was dispute over property. Among 126 theft offenders, 96.03 per cent of the respondents motive for committing crime was economic gain, 2.38 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the main motive for committing crime, 0.79 per cent of the respondents motive for crime was dispute over property and 0.79 per cent of the respondents motive for crime was vendetta. This proves the hypothesis that the potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.

The slope co-efficient derived in the logit estimates are reported in the Table – XLVI.

TABLE – XLVI
LOGIT ESTIMATIONS FOR FEMALE RESPONDENTS

S.No	Variables	Co-efficient	Standard error	't' value	Probability
1.	Age	-0.3422	0.249	-1.371	0.1703
2.	Marital status	-0.1354	0.4432	-0.031	0.9756
3.	Caste	-0.6334	0.4101	-1.545	0.1225
4.	Educational qualification	0.3837	0.2938	0.131	0.8961
5.	Occupation	-0.5224	0.2499	-2.090	0.0366
6.	Family income	-0.5582	0.1698	-3.288	0.0010
7.	Residential background	-0.3915	0.3967	-0.987	0.3237
8.	Family management	-0.5014	0.1427	-0.351	0.7253
9.	Economic contribution	-0.6268	0.3521	1.780	0.0750
10.	Motive for crime	-0.6147	0.3285	-1.871	0.0613
11.	Expected gain from crime	-0.9393	0.3378	-0.278	0.7810
12.	Duration of sentence	0.1946	0.4036	4.821	0.000
13.	Reasons for committing the	0.2054	0.8210	2.500	

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crime					0.0124
Constant	0.7379	0.3051	2.419		0.0156

Log likelihood Function = -25.4865

Restricted log likelihood = -68.5568

Chi-squared value = 86.1405**

Degrees of freedom =13

Only the variables occupation, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime emerged significantly and influenced the probability nature of offence. The other variables are not significant with the nature of offence for the female respondents. Since the calculated Chi-squared value is significant at 1% level, it can be concluded that the overall fitted logit model is an adequate model.

Logit Estimations for Male Respondents

The co-efficient of the variable age shows a non-significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and it came out with a negative sign indicating that the age variable does not influence the nature of offence performed by the male offenders.

Marital status shows a significant relationship with the nature of offence and the co-efficient of the variable marital status coming out with the positive sign implies that marital status was an important variable influencing the probability of nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable caste emerged insignificant with the negative sign revealing that the caste does not influence the male respondents to indulge in crime. The variable educational qualification had a positive sign showing statistically an insignificant

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relationship with the nature of offence. The estimation reveals that the variable educational qualification was not an important factor influencing the probability nature of offence.

The slope co-efficients derived in the logit estimates are reported in the Table – XLVII.

TABLE – XLVII
LOGIT ESTIMATIONS FOR MALE RESPONDENTS

S.No	Variables	Co-efficient	Standard error	't' value	Probability
1.	Age	-0.7129	0.2091	-0.341	0.7332
2.	Marital status	0.8952	0.3696	2.422	0.0154
3.	Caste	-0.9627	0.2679	-0.359	0.7194
4.	Educational qualification	0.3198	0.1899	1.685	0.0921
5.	Occupation	-0.5471	0.1744	-0.314	0.7538
6.	Family income	-0.1088	0.9675	-1.127	0.2610
7.	Residential background	-0.1309	0.3187	-0.411	0.6813
8.	Family management	0.3232	0.1299	0.249	0.8035
9.	Economic contribution	-0.4925	0.3202	-1.538	0.1240
10.	Motive for crime	-0.8345	0.2750	-3.033	0.0024
11.	Expected gain from crime	-0.1965	0.3472	-0.566	0.5779
12.	Duration of sentence	0.1491	0.2389	6.239	0.000
13.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.3944	0.7089	0.556	0.5715
	Constant	0.2307	0.2139	1.078	0.2810

Log likelihood Function = -49.6569

Restricted log likelihood = -80.9927

Chi-squared value = 62.6715**

Degrees of freedom =13

The variable marital status, motive for crime and duration of sentence emerged significantly with the probability nature of offence for the male respondents. The other variables show an insignificant relationship with the probability nature of offence. Since the calculated Chi-squared value is significant at 1% level, it can be concluded that the overall fitted logit model is an adequate model.

Push Factors

The motives for crime are classified as 'push factors' which emphasise the origin of crime. The investigator identified 16 factors which could be treated as 'push factors' that motivate the respondents to indulge in crime. The responses given by the respondents as the origin of crime were listed in the following Table – XLVIII and Figure – 20.

TABLE – XLVIII
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY THE IDENTIFIED
PUSH FACTORS TO COMMIT CRIME

N = 320

S.No.	Factors	Number	Percentage
I.	Economic Factors		
1.	Poverty	162	50.62
2.	Unemployment	158	49.38
3.	Family indebtedness	106	33.12
4.	Low wages	181	56.56
5.	Economic insufficiency	196	61.25

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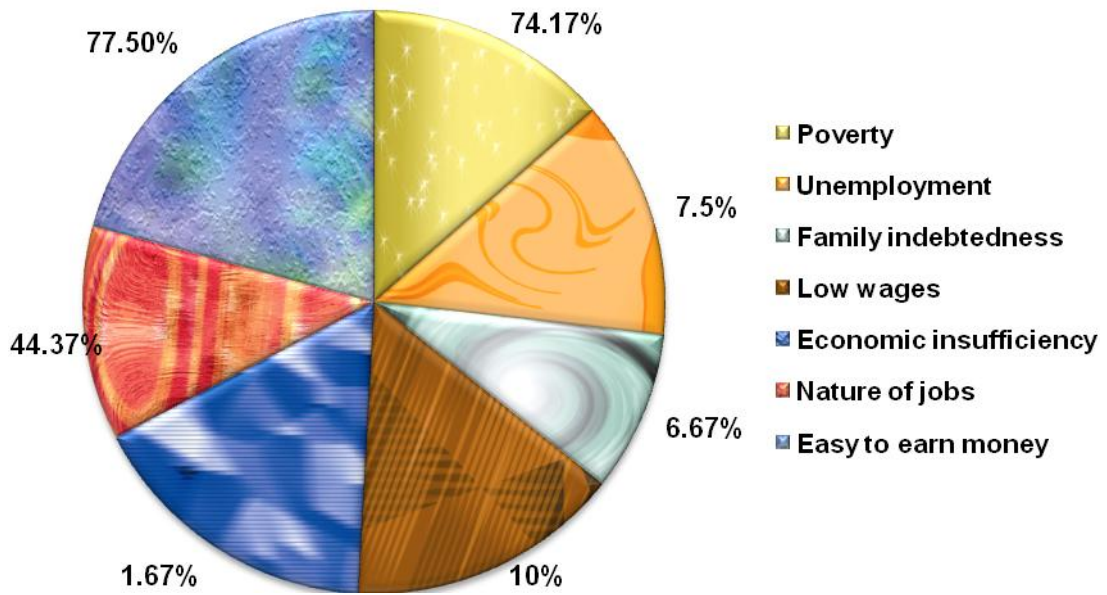
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6.	Nature of jobs	142	44.37
7.	Easy to earn money	248	77.50
II. Non-Economic Factors			
1.	Size of family	97	30.31
2.	Illiteracy	129	40.31
3.	Lack of awareness about punishment	182	56.87
4.	Unhappy marriage	157	49.06
5.	Less duration of punishment	125	39.06
6.	Family members are already criminals	56	17.50
7.	Access to information sources	48	15.00
8.	Lack of parental control	52	16.25
9.	Influence of the media	72	22.50

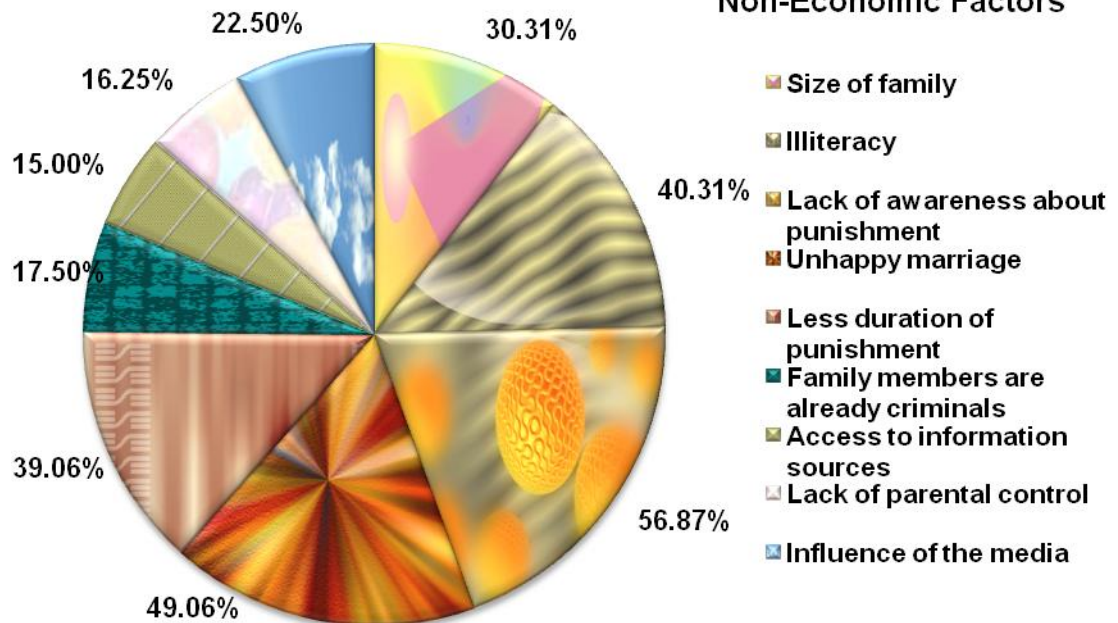
Source : Prison Survey.

FIGURE – 20
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY THE IDENTIFIED
PUSH FACTORS TO COMMIT CRIME

Economic Factors



Non-Economic Factors



From the Table – XLVIII, it was observed that ‘push factors’ which were primary causes for committing the crime were classified into economic and non-economic factors. Economic factors deals with level of poverty, unemployment, family indebtedness, low wages, economic insufficiency, nature of jobs and easy to earn money. Non-economic factors include size of family, illiteracy, lack of awareness about punishment, unhappy marriage, less duration of punishment, family members are already criminals, access to information sources, lack of parental control and influence of the media. Among the economic factors, easy to earn money (77.5 per cent) was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit crime. Economic necessity (61.25 per cent) comes as a second main factor to indulge in criminal activity. Low wages (56.56 per cent), level of poverty (50.62 per cent), unemployment (49.38 per cent), nature of job (44.37 per cent) and the family indebtedness (33.12 per cent) were other push factors for committing crime.

Among the non-economic factors for committing the crime, lack of awareness about punishment (56.87 per cent) was the prime push factor to commit crime. Unhappy marriage (49.06 per cent), illiteracy (40.31 per cent), less duration of punishment (39.06 per cent), size of family (30.31 per cent), influence of the media (22.5 per cent), family members are already criminals (17.5 per cent), lack of parental control (16.25 per cent) and access to information sources (15 per cent) were the other important non-economic factors which pushed them to commit crime. These results reveal that from the economic factors easy to earn money was the prime push factor for the respondents to indulge in crime and for the non-economic factor lack of awareness about the punishment was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit criminal activity. These findings support the studies of Carroll and Weaver (1986), Tunnell (1992), Nagin and Paternaster (1993) and Niggli and Alexander (1994).

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4.6.5 Respondents' Awareness about the Punishment and Interest in Committing the Crime Again

The respondents' awareness about the punishment and interest in committing the crime again are shown in the Table – XLIX and Figure – 21.

TABLE – XLIX
RESPONDENTS' AWARENESS ABOUT THE PUNISHMENT AND INTEREST IN COMMITTING THE CRIME AGAIN

Respondents' awareness about the punishment and interest in committing the crime again	Female			Male		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Awareness about the punishment	47 (39.17)	73 (60.83)	120	128 (64.00)	72 (36.00)	200
Interest in committing the crime again	16 (13.33)	104 (86.67)	120	155 (77.50)	45 (22.50)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

From the 120 female respondents, 39.17 per cent had awareness about the punishment for their crime and the rest did not have the awareness about the punishment. Among male respondents (200), 64 per cent were aware of the punishment and 36 per cent did not have awareness about the punishment. Among female respondents only 13.33 per cent expressed their interest to commit the crime again. Majority of the female respondents 86.67 per cent did not show any interest in committing crime again. Among the male respondents, majority of 77.5 per cent were interested in committing crime.

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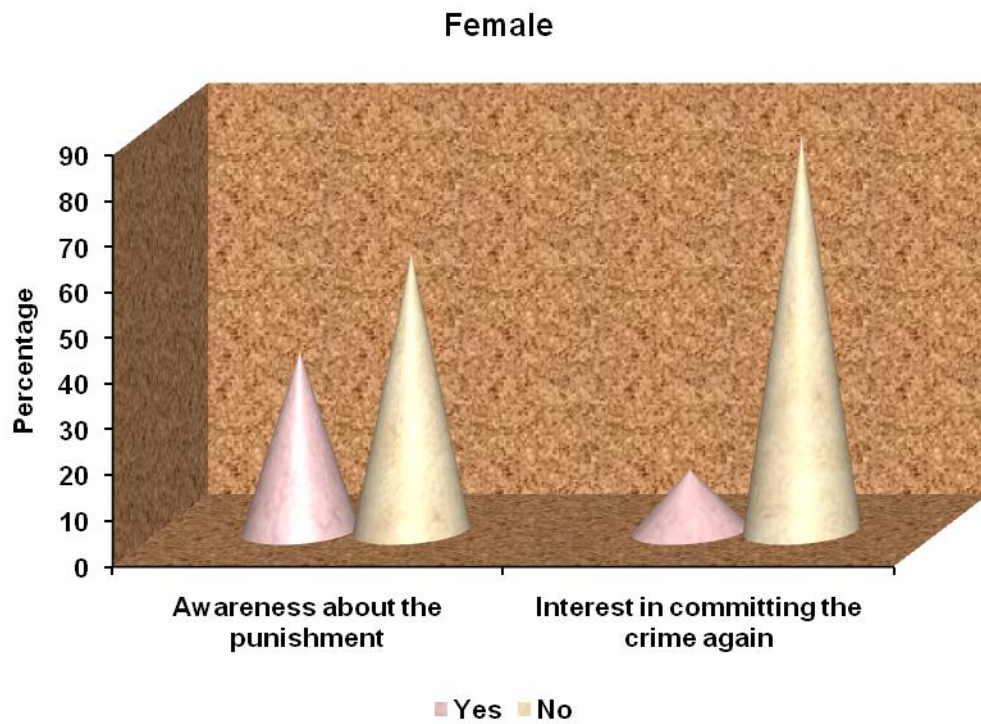
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This reveals that irrespective of the awareness about the punishment it was the male respondents who expressed that they would like to commit crime.

FIGURE – 21
RESPONDENTS AWARENESS ABOUT THE PUNISHMENT AND INTEREST IN COMMITTING THE CRIME AGAIN





4.6.6 Living Conditions Inside the Prison

Effort was taken to find out the level of satisfaction felt by the sample respondents regarding the living conditions inside the prison. Table – L shows the respondents' views of the living conditions inside the prison.

TABLE – L
RESPONDENTS' VIEWS OF THE LIVING CONDITIONS INSIDE THE PRISON

Level of satisfaction or living conditions	Female		Male		Total	
Fully satisfied	22 (18.33)	(41.51)	31 (15.5)	(58.49)	53 (16.56)	(100.00)
Satisfied	59 (49.17)	(47.58)	65 (32.5)	(52.42)	124 (38.75)	(100.00)

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Not satisfied	39 (32.50)	(27.27)	104 (52.00)	(72.72)	143 (44.69)	(100.00)
Total	120 (100.00)	(37.5)	200 (100.00)	(62.5)	320	

Source : Prison Survey.

In the Table – L, from the 120 female offenders, 18.33 per cent were fully satisfied, 49.17 per cent of the female offenders specified that they were satisfied with basic needs and 32.5 per cent were not satisfied with the living conditions inside the prison. Among the 200 male offenders, 15.5 per cent were fully satisfied, 32.5 per cent of the male respondents were satisfied with the basic necessities and the living conditions inside the prison and 52 per cent of the male offenders were not satisfied with the living conditions. Among the 320 sample, 16.56 per cent were fully satisfied, 38.75 per cent were satisfied and 44.69 per cent were not satisfied with the living conditions inside the prison. Among the 53 fully satisfied respondents, 41.51 per cent were female respondents and 58.49 per cent were male respondents. Among the 124 satisfied respondents, 47.58 per cent were female respondents and 52.42 per cent were male respondents. Among the 143 dissatisfied respondents, 27.27 per cent were female respondents and 72.72 per cent were male respondents.

These findings reveal that female respondents were not much satisfied when compared with male offenders with the living conditions inside the prison.

4.6.7 Rehabilitation Measures for Convicted Prisoners in Tamil Nadu

Efforts were taken to find out the awareness among the prisoners regarding the rehabilitation measures taken by the government to reform and

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rehabilitate them after they will be released from prison. Table – LI shows the rehabilitation of prisoners.

TABLE – LI
REHABILITATION OF PRISONERS

Rehabilitation measures	Female	Male	Total
Awareness about rehabilitation measures	86 (62.32) (71.67)	52 (37.68) (26.00)	138 (100.00) (43.12)
Lack of awareness about rehabilitation measures	34 (18.68) (28.33)	148 (81.32) (74.00)	182 (100.00) (56.87)
Total	120 (37.5) (100.00)	200 (62.5) (100.00)	320

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – LI, the findings revealed that among the 120 female offenders, 71.67 per cent were aware of the rehabilitation measures and the remaining 28.33 per cent were not aware of the rehabilitation measures. Among the 200 male prisoners, 26 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 74 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measure provided by the government.

From the 138 respondents who were aware of rehabilitation measures, 62.32 per cent were female respondents and 37.68 per cent were male respondents. Among the 182 respondents who were not aware of rehabilitation measures, 18.68 per cent were female offenders and 81.32 per cent were male offenders. Among the 320 respondents, 43.12 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 56.87 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measures provided by the government.

It is a fact that nothing is materially done either by the Discharged Prisoners Aid Society or by the District Collector out of their funds for the rehabilitation of discharged prisoners. The prisoners are trained in the following trades by qualified instructors, so that they can earn sufficiently after their discharge from prison.

- (i) Weaving industry
- (ii) Handmade paper industry
- (iii) Book binding industry
- (iv) Aluminium industry
- (v) Blacksmithy industry
- (vi) Sericulture unit

Prisoners are also trained in simple trade (plumbing) by a qualified instructor appointed specially for this purpose and trade certificates are issued after completion of training by the Director of Employment and Training, Chennai.

CHAPTER – V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Economic offences are the manifestation of criminal acts done either solely or in an organized manner with or without associates or gangs with an intent to earn wealth through illegal means and are carried out in an illicit manner violating the laws of land, other regulatory statutory provisions governing the economic activities of the government and its administration.

Economic or punishment and reward theory developed by George (1958) stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables the individual to choose courses of action freely and also believed to possess the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. Some persons become criminals not because their basic motivation differs from that of other persons but because their benefits and costs differ.

Crime is increasing at a rapid rate and along with it are changing fast concepts regarding it. Till now most of the researchers on crime have confined themselves to males, because crime has been considered a male behaviour but with the upsurge of women offenders in the country the notion is proved wrong. Women, like men suffer from jealousy, enmity and hatred which motivates them for criminality. Very few studies have been made on Indian criminals to highlight the offences and the criminal tendencies present in them. The economic offences causes significant damage to the general economy of the country and adversely affect the growth and development of the nation.

The importance of gender as a crucial parameter in social and economic analysis is complementary rather than competitive. There is little

research or interest to study economics of crime but there are two important factors that provide relevance to the study. The important factors are

- (1) The early neglect and inadequate interpretation of economics of crime in research and in practice.
- (2) The notion of the increased incidence of economic crimes with the attendant need to understand and curtail it.

Considering these factors, the investigator has done a study on **“ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN A SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU”** with the following objectives :

- (vi) To analyse the extent of various forms of crimes under Indian penal code in Tamil Nadu during the period 1990-2005.
- (vii) To analyse the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money-laundering, cultural object theft) in India during the period 1990-2005.
- (viii) To assess the socio-economic conditions of female and male convicted prisoners from the selected prisons for the period 2005-2006 in Tamil Nadu.
- (ix) To examine the factors which motivated the convicted prisoners to commit crime in the period 2005-2006.
- (x) To analyse the rehabilitation measures undertaken by the Government for the convicted prisoners in Tamil Nadu.

The following null hypothesis are tested as follows :

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- (e) The potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.
- (f) There is no association between the age group of the convicted prisoners and their nature of offence.
- (g) Socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.
- (h) Duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

The major findings of the study are given below :

- (1) In Tamil Nadu the number of persons arrested sex-wise under IPC crimes from 1990 to 2005 reveals that the total number of persons arrested in the year 1990 was 857214, in this female constituted 4.14 per cent and male constituted 95.96 per cent. In the year 2005, the total number of persons arrested was 2621547. The female constituted 5.8 per cent and male constituted 93.33 per cent. Between the years 1990 to 2005, the highest number of persons were arrested in the year 2001 (2671540). In this female constituted 5.4 per cent and male constituted 94.6 per cent. Regarding female criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2003 was six per cent and among the male criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2002 constituted 97.69 per cent. Regarding the number of persons arrested between 1990 to 2005 female criminality shows an increasing trend and male criminality shows a declining trend.
- (2) Analysis of the extent of various forms of crimes sex-wise under Indian penal code for the period 1990 to 2005 revealed that the percentage of

male offenders are greater than the female offenders in the total number of persons arrested. The number of female and male offenders increased between 1990 to 2005. The rate of increase was more in the case of female offenders than male offenders.

- (3) During the period of study, in smuggling the average number of seizure was 46040, while the amount of seizure in terms of value was Rs.700.69 crores. Taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of seizures and value of seizures was negative -12.79 per cent and -1.46 per cent respectively.
- (4) The seizures made by income tax department showed an increasing trend. The average number of searches was 5379, while the amount of asset seized in terms of value was Rs.317.9 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches conducted was negative, -3.01 per cent and value of assets seized was positive 0.17 per cent.
- (5) In money laundering the average number of searches conducted was 902, while the amount of seizures in terms of value was Rs.625.19 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches and value of seizures was negative, -17.86 per cent and -16.81 per cent respectively.
- (6) In cultural property stolen and recovered, the average stolen was 1958, while the property recovered was in terms of value Rs.596.07 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the property stolen and property recovered in terms of value was negative, -11.06 per cent and -2.81 per cent respectively.

Socio-Economic Background of the Convicted Female and Male Prisoners

- (7) From the 120 female convicted prisoners, a majority of 74.17 per cent came under the category of homicidal offenders, 10 per cent were drug offenders, 7.5 per cent were property offenders, 6.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and only 1.67 per cent of the female convicted prisoners committed immoral traffic offence. None of the female convicts committed theft offence. From the 200 male prisoners, a majority of the (63 per cent) convicted come under the category of theft offence, 18 per cent of the male convicts were prohibition offenders, 14 per cent of the male convicted prisoners comes under the category of homicidal offenders. Only five per cent of them were property offenders. None of the convicted male prisoners involved in drug and immoral traffic offences.
- (8) Majority of the female prisoners (66.22 per cent) between 25 and 50 years of age committed crimes. As they grew older, they did not want to involve in the risk of arrest.
- (9) The analysis of the age profile of different groups of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower age group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.
- (10) From the 200 male offenders, 16 per cent belonged to 20-25 years, 75.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 8.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 50-80 years.
- (11) The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a higher age group when

compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

- (12) The results prove the hypothesis, that there is association between the age group of the female convicted offenders and their nature of offence and the male convicted offenders and their nature of offence, because in the sample, crimes are committed mainly between age groups of 25-50 years.
- (13) Marital status of the female offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident 75.83 per cent of the female offenders were married, among the rest 13.33 per cent were widowed, 3.33 per cent were separated, five per cent were unmarried and the remaining 2.5 per cent were divorced. The marital status of male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident, 67 per cent of the offenders were married and the remaining 33 per cent remain unmarried. Comparatively, the committance of crime is more among married women and men than the unmarried.
- (14) The distribution of offenders population by caste shows a high representation of backward castes ; 52.5 per cent of the female population and 50.5 per cent of the male population respectively belonged to backward caste.
- (15) The educational level of female and male offenders shows that 57.5 per cent of the female offenders were illiterates and 70 per cent of the male offenders were literates. Female illiterates committed more crimes than men. Among men, the offenders who were educated upto primary and middle level committed more crimes.

- (16) The reasons for school drop out for the respondents reveals that the female offenders (28.33 per cent) were denied education due to financial constraints, and assisting the parents (31.5 per cent) was the major cause of school drop out by the male offenders.
- (17) The residential background reveals that from the 120 female offenders, 37.5 per cent resided in rural and 33.33 per cent in urban areas. Only 29.17 per cent respondents came from semi-urban area. Among the 200 male respondents, 24 per cent resided in rural areas, 50.5 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 25.5 per cent resided in urban areas. This reflects the fact that the residential background of the offenders influences the type of the offences committed by them.
- (18) The distribution of female respondents by occupation shows that among 120 female respondents, 9.17 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.17 per cent were labourers, 1.67 per cent were skilled workers, 40.82 per cent were domestic workers, 24.17 per cent were begging and lottering. The distribution of male respondents by occupation shows 13 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.5 per cent were labourers, 10.5 per cent were skilled workers, 28.5 per cent were domestic workers and 3.5 per cent resorted to begging and lottering. It was the domestic workers among females and labourers among males who committed more crime.
- (19) Family income inferred that from the 120 female offenders, 44.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.1-100, 35.83 per cent were getting the income between Rs.101-250 per month, 4.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.251-500. None of the female respondents were getting the family income between Rs.501-750. Only 1.67 per cent were getting the income between Rs.751-1000, and 14.17 per

cent were in the income category of above Rs.1000 when looking at the family income of the female respondents. While in case of male offenders, 4.5 per cent were getting the income between Rs.1-100, 36 per cent were in the income category of Rs.101-250, seven per cent were getting the family income between Rs.251-500, five per cent were in the income category of Rs.501-750, 4.5 per cent were getting the family income between Rs.750-1000, 43 per cent were getting above Rs.1000 as their family income.

- (20) The analysis of the income profile of the different group of female offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to higher income group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was a significant difference in the mean income between the homicidal offenders and other offenders.
- (21) The analysis of the income profile of the different groups of male offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower income group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean income of these groups of offenders. Comparatively, male respondents received higher income than the female respondents.
- (22) The classification of the respondents by family size shows that, among the 120 female offenders, 66.67 per cent belonged to small family, 29.17 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining 4.17 per cent belonged to very large family. From the 200 male respondents, 73 per cent belonged to small family, 24 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining four per cent belonged to very large family size. It is clearly brought out that the majority of the female and male offenders belonged to small size family.

- (23) The classification of female and male respondents by type of dwelling indicates that 54.17 per cent of the female respondents had resided in thatched houses, while 35.83 per cent and 3.33 per cent respondents had lived in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 6.67 per cent of the female respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. The type of dwelling by male respondents shows their standard of living, the earning capacity and also the economic situation of the family. Among the sample 60 per cent of the male respondents resided in thatched houses, while 32 per cent and 6.5 per cent had resided in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 1.5 per cent of the male respondents had resided in any other form of houses. The overall economic situation of the female and male respondents was poor with respect to their type of dwelling.
- (24) Male respondents' perception of income sufficiency, food, clothing and shelter shows much poorer status than that of the female respondents. Since they perceived insufficiency in food, clothing and shelter, 65 per cent of the female respondents and 96 per cent of the male respondents resorted to crime to rectify their needs.
- (25) The economic contribution of spouses indicates that among 120 female respondents only 59 female respondents' spouses helped them with income to run the family. The rest did not contribute anything for the family maintenance. Among 200 male respondents only 53 members received financial help from their spouses. Because of the insufficiency of funds to meet atleast the basic necessities of the family, both female and male respondents resorted to criminal activities to gain economically. The results prove the hypothesis, that the socio-

economic background of the convicted prisoners influences their criminal activity.

Crime History of the Convicted Prisoners

- (26) The distribution of female offenders by duration of sentence reveals that among 120 female offenders, 51.67 per cent were life convicts, 20.83 per cent of the female offenders were convicted over five years, 19.17 per cent of the female offenders were convicted between one year and under five years. The remaining 8.33 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. Among the 200 male offenders, 10 per cent were undergoing life sentence, 9.5 per cent were convicted over five years, 23 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and 57.5 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. An analysis of the punishment given to different offenders reveals that for the homicidal offences the punishment was severe than other offences.
- (27) The distribution of recidivists among the female offenders shows that 95 per cent were imprisoned for the first time and only five per cent were imprisoned for the second time. With regard to male offenders, 46 per cent of the male convicts were first timers, 22 per cent were second timers and 32 per cent committed the offence more than twice. These findings revealed that a large proportion of the male convicts are habitual offenders with respect to the nature of offence.
- (28) The results of the discriminant analysis of the female offenders shows that the age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 64.04 per cent. The second most discriminating factor is reason for committing the crime 12.32 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 8.76 per cent.

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- (29) The results of the discriminant analysis of the male respondents shows that age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 62.28 per cent. The second most discriminating factor is reason for committing the crime 11.19 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 7.69 per cent.
- (30) Female respondents' role in crime reveals that in the sample 50 per cent of the women convicts had committed the crime single handedly, 38.33 per cent had operated as accomplices and 11.67 per cent of the female convicts committed the crime with gang membership. Among the male respondents most of the offenders had committed the crime single handedly which amounts to 68.5 per cent, 13.5 per cent of the male offenders acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Comparatively, most of the female and male respondents indulge in crime single handedly when compared with other roles such as accomplice and gang members.
- (31) The motive for crime for female respondents is evident that among the motives economic gain seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime with 58.33 per cent. Fully knowing the consequences of their crime and the punishment they may get if they are caught, they attempted to commit the crime in order to have better economic gain. For 21.67 per cent of the female respondents vendetta was the second important motive for their crime. Dispute over property was the motive for 10.83 per cent of the female offenders. For 5.83 per cent of the female offenders motivation for criminal activity was sexual causes. Only 3.33 per cent of the female respondents specified that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Among the male respondents, 89 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically, 4.5 per cent of the respondents specified

that dispute over property was the motivating factor for committing the crime. Vendetta was the main motive 3.5 per cent of the male offenders, 2.5 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the motivating factor for their criminal activity and 0.5 per cent of the male offenders indicated sexual cause as the motive for their committing crime.

- (32) The results of the logit estimations for female respondents shows that though the co-efficient of the variable age emerged significantly, it came out with an inconsistent negative sign. The apriori expectation for the co-efficient was that it would turn out positive, implying that the probability of the nature of offence is a significant factor which influences the different age groups of the female respondents. The findings reveal that the marital status of the respondents shows non-significance with the negative sign. The result shows most of the female respondents belonging to the backward caste. And the educational qualification had a greater impact on the nature of offence performed by the individual. The finding reveals that more number of respondents, came under illiterate category. The findings implies that there is an association between the family income of the respondents and the type of crime committed by them. The co-efficient of the variable economic contribution had positively influenced the probability of nature of offence as shown by statistically significant positive co-efficient for this variable in the estimation. The co-efficient of the variable expected gain from crime turned out statistically significant, highlighting that the gain expected from crime had a greater influence on the probability nature of offence. The result implies that the duration of sentence was an important factor which influences the crime performed by female offenders.

- (33) Logit estimations for male respondents revealed that the co-efficient of the variable age shows a non-significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and it came out with a negative sign indicating that the age variable does not influence the nature of offence performed by the male offenders. Marital status shows a significant relationship with the nature of offence and the co-efficient of the variable marital status coming out with the positive sign implies that marital status was an important variable influencing the probability of nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable caste emerged insignificant with the negative sign revealing that the caste does not influence the male respondents to indulge in crime. The estimation reveals that the variable educational qualification was not an important factor influencing the probability nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable motive for crime came out with the negative sign, indicating statistically significant relationship with the nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable duration of sentence came out with a positive sign, showing statistically significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and the result indicates that the sentence period had greater impact on the type of crime they have performed.
- (34) The results regarding the push factors reveal that from the economic factors, easy to earn money was the prime push factor for the respondents to indulge in crime and for the non-economic factors lack of awareness about the punishment was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit criminal activity.
- (35) Majority of the female respondents, 86.67 per cent did not show any interest in committing crime again. Among the male respondents, majority of 77.5 per cent were interested in committing crime. This reveals that irrespective of the awareness about the punishment it was

the male respondents who expressed that they would like to commit crime.

- (36) The findings reveal that female respondents were not satisfied when compared with male respondents with the living conditions inside the prison.
- (37) Among the 320 respondents, 43.12 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 56.87 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measures provided by the government.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, the analysis of crime by female and male criminality bring to light that the crimes are the product of their circumstances ; poverty and the consequent sense of frustration coupled with illegitimate opportunity structures could lead to crime. In India where a large segment of the population exists below poverty line, most of the offenders were invariably poor. A sense of deprivation leads to criminal behaviour. Among the motives for crime economic motive seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime.

SUGGESTIONS

A few suggestions that would help to prevent crime and alleviate the problems of criminals are :

- (1) Government sponsored family counselling centres to assist men and women in coping with their interpersonal problems.
- (2) Empowerment of women through formal education and gainful employment.

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- (3) Provision of work for pay schemes in the prison to help the prisoners to raise the sufficient capital to start small self-sufficient units for their livelihood after release.
- (4) Prisons should focus on rehabilitation, particularly for first time offenders. Different types of facilities should be created to separate first time and repeat offenders and to segregate convicts according to the seriousness of their crime.
- (5) Rehabilitation should have two components, one should prepare convicts for a successful reentry in economic life and secondly the offenders should be educated according to their abilities and interest. Ex inmates should be helped to find fitting employment.
- (6) Efforts should be taken to create and strengthen attitudes that keep a person from doing harm to others and to society as a whole ; specialized staff such as psychologists and criminologists, should provide counselling by helping people analyse their particular situation and the origins of their behaviour. Civics courses should contribute to creating a greater understanding of citizen's rights and obligations in the society. Thus convicts should be made to see clearly the unfairness of victimizing individual persons as a response to perceived injustices in society.
- (7) Psychological tests, reviews and interviews should provide insight into the success of resocialization therapy. Passing those tests and reviews should be made a condition for release from prison. Those not showing the needed changes in attitudes should be kept in confinement. Thus, the length of stay in prison would be determined by both the seriousness of the crime and the preparedness of the offenders to re enter society and lead a normal life.

Much research still needs to be done.

1. Research should focus on the impact of economic crime on the national economy.
2. The influence of parallel economy on the development efforts of the government.
3. Additional research is needed for understanding the mechanism through which poor economic activity increases crime.

Crime is self-perpetuating. Economic growth can be an effective way to fight crime. Much merit has been ascribed to growth, from reducing poverty to promoting democracy. It appears that crime alleviation should be added to the list of benefits from economic reforms that lead to sustainable growth. In other words, once we account for economic growth and income inequality, our country's crime rate is no longer a puzzle.

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APPENDIX – I
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE TO ELICIT INFORMATION
ABOUT PRISONERS

I. PERSONAL DATA

1. Age at Commission of Crime :
 1. 18 – 21
 2. 21 – 31
 3. 32 – 42
 4. 42 – 51
 5. 52 – 61
 6. 62 and above
2. Marital Status :
 1. Unmarried
 2. Married
 3. Widowed
 4. Separated
 5. Divorced
 6. Married twice
3. Caste :
 1. R.H. Caste
 2. U. Peasant
 3. Backward Caste
 4. Scheduled Caste
 5. Scheduled Tribe
 6. Miscellaneous
4. Education
 1. Educational Qualification :
 1. Illiterate
 2. Primary
 3. Middle
 4. High

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5. College
2. If illiterate or School / drop – out : 1. Parents lack of interest
2. Respondents lack of interest
3. Inaccessibility of school
4. Financial constraints
5. To assist parents
6. Early marriage
7. Others
5. Occupation : 1. Domestic worker
2. Skilled worker
3. Unskilled worker
4. Salaried job
5. Any other
6. Respondents' income :
7. Residential background : 1. Rural
2. Semi-urban
3. Urban

II. SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

Relation to respondent	Age	Sex	Marital status	Education	Occupation	Income	Whether living with the family

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III. LIVING CONDITIONS

1. Type of House :
 - a. Thatched
 - b. Tiled
 - c. R.C.C.
 - d. Rented

2. Was the family income sufficient to cover basic necessities such as
 - (a) Food Yes () No ()
 - (b) Clothes Yes () No ()
 - (c) Shelter Yes () No ()

3. a. What was the economic contribution of your spouse for the running of the household :
 1. Total
 2. Part
 3. None

IV. CRIME HISTORY

1. Name of the Offence :

2. Reasons for committing the Offence :

3. Duration of punishment :

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4. Role in Crime : 1. Sole Perpetrator
2. Accomplice
3. Gang number
4. Instigator
5. Any other
5. Recidivism imprisoned : 1. For the first time
2. For the second time
3. More than twice

V. MODUS OPERANDI

1. Mode of Commission :
2. How much time you have taken to plan the activity ? And how many attempts you have tried ?
3. What precautions have you taken to commit the crime ?
4. What type of gain you expected by committing this crime ?
5. Are you aware of the punishment you get if you get caught ?
6. If you are released will you go for committing the crime again ?
7. Are you aware of the rehabilitation measures provided by the government to rehabilitate prisoners who would to lead a crime free normal life ?
8. What do you think about the attitude of the people towards the prisoners after they get released from the prison ? Will they get any employment opportunities to earn their livelihood ?

9. Living conditions in the prison.

(a) Satisfied

(b) Not satisfied

(c) Fully satisfied

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