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# The Impact of Using the Native Language on Developing English Language Grammar Achievement

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## Abstract

The present paper investigates the impact of using the students' mother tongue, the Arabic language (L1), on enhancing achievement and learning of the English language (L2) grammar. It also seeks to find out whether the use of L1 in teaching the grammar of L2 affects the students' learning outcome.

Twenty six male students of the English Language Program at Buraydah Community College, Qassim University participated in this study. They were divided into two groups; the experimental group studied in L1 teaching context and the control group studied in L2 teaching context. The grammar lesson, "the passive and the active voice" was chosen as the grammar topic.

Data was obtained through pre-post tests, and students and teachers feedback. The statistical analysis and the comparisons of the scores of the two groups show that the use of L1 in teaching L2 grammar does not benefit the students since the scores of the control group members (who were taught in L2) are higher than those achieved by the experimental group members (who were taught in L1).

**Key Words:** L1 and L2, teaching L2 grammar, L2 learning outcome.

## Introduction

The use of students' first language (L1) in teaching a second language (L2) has been debated for many years. During the last fifty years, the use of L1 in teaching (L2) has been an active area of debate among methodologists as well as teachers and professionals. (Auerbach 1993, Atkinson 1987, Haycraft 1978, and Harmer 1997, among others). The question that has been investigated by those writers and others is whether to activate the use of the native language (L1) in teaching the target language (L2) or to prohibit it.

Many methodologists and teaching professionals have adopted the general assumption that L2 ought to be learned not by the use of L1, which has to be prohibited

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in the classroom. Among those are Ellis (1984) and Bouangeune (2004). On the other hand, other teaching professionals have advocated the assumption that the use of L1 in teaching L2 is very useful in increasing both comprehension and learning, or serves a supportive and facilitating role in the classroom (see Cook, 2001 and Tang, 2002).

The present paper discusses the general assumption that has prevailed for sometimes in the literature, which states that English language should not be taught by the use of L1, which has to be prohibited in the classroom. In fact, some teachers have expressed the fact that the students cannot appreciate the target language when they are exposed continually to their L1 (Bouagneune 2009).

### **Research Problem**

The problem of the use or non-use of L1 in teaching L2 is still controversial. As mentioned above, some researchers, on one hand, still adopt the view that L1 can be effective in the process of learning L2 and the occasional use of L1 by both teachers and students increases both comprehension and learning of L2. Moreover, the frequent use of L1 allows the students to be aware of the similarities as well as differences between cultures and linguistic structures and improves their translation skills (for more details see Wells, 1999; Cook 2001 and Tang 2002).

On the other hand, some teaching professionals still maintain the assumption that learning L2 has nothing to do with the use of L1; subsequently, the continuous use of L1 in the classrooms hinders the process of learning and comprehension of the students. Moreover these professionals stress the fact that L1 has no essential role to play in learning L2, conversely, the use of L1 may deprive learners of valuable input in the L2 (see Bouagneune, 2009 and Ellis, 1984 for further details).

The present study endeavors to investigate the validity of the use of L1 (the Arabic language) in teaching L2 (the English language) in the Saudi tertiary context which to the best of my knowledge has not been dealt with in depth in previous studies.

### **Objective of the Study**

The main issue of the present study is to provide tangible evidence for using or prohibiting L1 in teaching the grammar of L2. To achieve this purpose, the study will attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1- Does the use of native language (i.e. Arabic) in teaching English language grammar facilitate the process of understanding English grammar lessons?
- 2- Does the use of target language only (i.e. English) in teaching English language grammar facilitate the process of understanding English grammar lessons?

### **Research Hypothesis**

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In order to answer the previous questions, the present study will try to prove or disprove the following hypothesis: "The use of native language in teaching the English language grammar has a positive impact on the students' process of understanding."

### **Limitations of the Study**

- 1- The population of participants is not large.
- 2- The gender is limited to male students only.
- 3- Only one grammar subject was selected.

### **Review of Literature**

There are two dominating attitudes that prevail in the literature of the un/availability of L1 in teaching grammar issues of L2. The first attitude calls for the importance of the use of L1, even in limited situations, in teaching issues of L2. On the other hand, the second attitude bans the use of L1 in teaching issues of L2. Nunan & Lamb (1996), Tang (2002), Cook (2001), Wells (1999), Auerbach (1993), and Atkinson (1987) represent the first attitude. They all have emphasized the importance of the use of L1 in teaching L2 as this may facilitate learning and comprehension on the part of the students.

Nunan & Camb (1996) stress the impossibility of non-use of the mother tongue in English classrooms. Tang (2002) argues and claims that L2 is best learned through massive exposure to L1, whereas, Cook (2001) and Wells (1999) stress on the occasional use of L1 by both teachers and students to increase both comprehension and learning. Auerbach (1993) suggests that the use of L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners' lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English.

Both Atkinson (1987) and Auerbach (1993) list the appropriate uses for the L1 in the L2 classroom. They suggest some possible occasions for using the mother tongue such as negotiation of the syllabus and the lesson; record keeping; classroom management; scene setting; language analysis; presentation of rules governing grammar, phonology, morphology, and spelling; discussion of cross-cultural issues; instructions or prompts explanation of errors and assessment of comprehension.

The other opposing attitude is represented by Haycraft (1978), Hubbard et al. (1983), Harmer (1997), Bouangeune (2004), Brown (2000), and Krashen (1981). They have banned completely the use of L1 in L2 classes. Haycraft (1978), Hubbard et al. (1983) and Harmer (1997) adopt the belief that the mother tongue does not play an important role in foreign language teaching. Bouangeune (2004) goes further to express his wonder of how students can truly appreciate the target language exchanges if they are continually relying on their L1. Harmer (1997) shows that the use of L1 in English teaching classrooms started to be seen as uncommunicative, boring, pointless and

irrelevant. Moreover, Brown (2000) suggests that "Grammar – Translation" method was challenged for improving students` communication ability. Krashen (1981) rejects the idea of using L1 in teaching a foreign language. He argues that the non-use of L1 leads to achieving language competence.

The above opinions focus on the use or non-use of L1 in teaching L2. They discuss the advantages or disadvantages of L1 in teaching L2 as a second language. However, the effect of the use or non-use of L1 in teaching specific topics in English such as grammar is seldom mentioned. The present study, different from the other contributions focuses on the validity or non-validity of using L1 in teaching the English grammar.

Nazary (2008) conducted a study on the Iranian university students` attitudes and awareness of the use of their mother tongue (Farsi) in their English classrooms. The study reported the students` reluctance to use their L1 in learning L2. They expressed their negative view and rejected L1 use. The research findings of Stapa (2009) reveals the fact that the use of L1 in teaching L2 is harmful among the low proficiency students. Moreover, Storch & Aldosari (2010) confirmed the students` awareness of avoiding the use of L1 in L2 classes.

Song (2009) showed that the teachers had slight tendency to disagree with the use of L1 in teaching L2. A second study conducted by Mouhanna (2009) stressed the fact that the teachers have warned of the detrimental effects of over-using the L1 in teaching English language for foreigners.

## **Methodology**

### ***Participants***

The participants for the present study are 26 male students in level two. All the students of this level are enrolled in the English Program, at Buraydah Community college. They have studied English for a period not less than six (6) years, before studying at the college level. (3 years in the middle stage and other 3 years in the secondary stage). The students were divided randomly into two groups. Group (A) was assigned to be the control one and has thirteen (13) students. Group, (B) was assigned to be the experimental group and has thirteen (13) students. Students of level two were chosen because of their lower-intermediate English proficiency level and thought to benefit more from using L1 in teaching some topics of L2 because of their limited knowledge of L2.

### ***Topic being taught***

The investigation of the hypothesis in this study is based on a grammar lesson entitled "Active and Passive" which is included among other topics in the English grammar course taught to the students of level two in the English Program. It is taken from

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"Fundamentals of English Grammar" by Betty Azar, and is written for "lower-intermediate and intermediate English as a second or foreign language."

The lesson has been chosen specifically because the process of passivization as a grammar topic is a thorough review of all the tenses of the English language. In addition, passivization is a grammatical feature that requires a background about the active structure of the clause in the English language as well as the different derived forms of the clause. Moreover, it is essential for the student to know the different forms of tenses (e.g. to be familiar with simple tenses and complex tenses). Therefore, the choice of the lesson "Active and Passive" for analysis in this study is a choice of the grammar of tenses of the English language.

There are other reasons which may justify the choice of that lesson. First, passivization is a grammatical feature that requires an intermediate proficiency in English on the part of the student. Seemingly, the students are expected to have a background about the active structure of the clause in English language as well as the different derived forms of the clause. Second, it is essential for the students to know the different forms of tenses at this level. Third, the students are required to be familiar with simple tenses such as present, past and future tenses, and complex tenses such as progressive, perfect and perfect progressive tenses. Fourth, the students are required to know that the change of the active clause into a passive construction is achieved through a varied and systematic application of specific rules that vary according to the tense of the clause

To sum up, it can be said that the choice of the lesson "active and Passive" for the present study is a choice of the grammar of tenses of the English language.

### ***Teaching Process***

Being divided into control and experimental groups, each group was taught separately and in a different teaching context. When teaching the control group, Group (A), a restricted instruction of not a single word in L1 was allowed to be used. The class was conducted completely in L2 whether in explaining the items of the lesson or performing general tasks such as greeting, students' attendance, reference to exercises or pages numbers and giving notice or instructions.

On the other hand, teaching the experimental group, Group (B), was conducted in a different procedure. The lesson was conducted in L2 with the use of L1. The use of L1 was allowed to achieve different tasks. The students of the experimental group were allowed to use L1 to ask about different things (e.g. the subtitles of the lesson, the exercises and pages numbers, the repetition of a part of the lesson or an exercise, the meaning and different functions of tenses, the meaning of words or idioms, the answer of an exercise and to use words that express their follow up or understanding). Moreover, L1 was allowed to be used to achieve other tasks such as greetings, students' attendance and giving general instructions.

## Data collection

### *Pre and Post Tests*

The students of the two groups were subjected to pre and post tests (see Appendix 1). The test items were taken from ([www.englishteststore.net](http://www.englishteststore.net)). This test was chosen since it covers all the parts of the topic students were taught. The pre and post tests consist of 30 sentences which cover the tenses concerned; simple tenses, progressive tenses, perfect tenses and auxiliary forms. The students were asked to complete the missing parts of the sentences. The test aims to measure the students' knowledge of the feature of passivization and to test their grammatical competence. All students of both groups failed to get any correct answer for all of the fifteen items that constituted the test. After six weeks of teaching the lesson of "Passive and Active", the students were given the same pre-test. The results of the two groups varied.

### *Students' Interview*

Immediately after the post test conducted an interview with all the 26 students was organized. It focused on the students' opinions about learning the grammar of L2 in their native language compared with learning it using the target language.

### *Teachers' Interview*

The nine teachers in the English Program were interviewed individually asking everyone of them about his opinion and experience of using the L1 in teaching the grammar of the L2. Arabic is not the native language of six of them although they know some Arabic, whereas three teachers speak Arabic as it is their native language.

## Results

The comparison between both the control group, Group (A), and the experimental group, Group (B), after the post-test disconfirms the hypothesis of this study; namely, the use of L1 in teaching grammar of L2 has a positive impact on the students' process of learning outcome as well as their comprehension.

Any student answered 50% correct would pass the test. With regard to the results of Group (A), where L2 was permanently and principally used, the students achieved the following scores, as Table (1) shows.

**Table 1 Post-test Results of the Control and Experimental Groups**

Group	N. students	Students passed	Students Failed
Control Group (Group A)	13	4	9
Experimental Group (Group B)	13	2	11

On the other hand, the participants of the experimental group, Group (B), failed to achieve the same score of Group (A). Looking at Table (1) above we find that only 2 students passed the post-test, whereas, 11 students failed to pass the test, though L1 was used principally in the class. The scores, as shown in the above table, reject the hypothesis investigated in this study. Moreover, the scores discourage the use of L1 as a facilitating process for the students' learning and comprehension of L2.

Moreover, the statistical analysis of the results achieved by both the experimental and control groups has confirmed the invalidity of the hypothesis that L1 has positive impact on teaching English grammar topics. This can be shown in Table (2) below:

**Table 2 Mean, S. D, and (T) Value of Pre-Post Evaluation Test Score**

Test	N	Mean	V.	S.D.	C.V.	T	df	(t)	Sig.
Pre	13	4.19	14.29	3.78	0.90	0.6	24	0.5 8	0.9 2
Post	13	4.96	14.59	3.82	0.77	1			

As shown in the above table, the mean scores of the experimental group is (4.19) which is lower than the control group (4.96). This implies that the use of L1 in teaching English grammar is invalid. Moreover, the variance in the experimental group students (14.29) is lower than that of the control group students (14.59) and consequently, the coefficient variation of the experimental group students (0.90) is lower than that of the control group students (0.77). This statistical analysis stresses that L1 is not valid in teaching the grammar of L2. Moreover, the T value is greater than the tabulated T. That can lead to conclude that teaching the grammar of L2 can be conducted without the use of L1 which is also confirmed by the big value of  $p > .05$  as there is no significant difference.

## Discussion

The analysis of the results obtained by both control and experimental groups stress and confirm what was expressed by teaching professionals such as Haycraft (1978), Hubbard et al. (1983) and others that mother tongue does not play a positive role in foreign language teaching.

As the present study shows, the participants' scores of both the control and experimental groups varied in their post-test. Looking at the two tables below we can see that the use of L1 in teaching the grammar of L2 has no essential role and positive effect on the students' understanding.

**Table 3 Post-test Scores of the control Group (Group A)**

Marks obtained	Number of students	Percentage
More than 50%	4	30.77
Less than 50%	9	69.23

**Table (4): Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group (Group B)**

Marks obtained	Number of students	Percentage
More than 50%	2	15.39%
Less than 50%	11	84.61%

The percentage of the participants of the control group who passed the post-test were 4 participants, with the percentage 30.77%, whereas, the participants of the experimental group who passed the post-test were only 2 with the percentage 15.39%. On the other hand, the number of participants in group (A) who failed to pass the post-test were 9 with the percentage 69.23%, whereas, 11 participants in group (B) failed in the experimental group with the percentage 84.61%.

As the above tables show, the wide gap between those who passed and those who failed in the post-test in Group (A) and Group (B) reflect the fact that the use of L1 in teaching grammar topics of L2 is not essential or vital, as was expressed before.

To sum up, the comparison between the results of both the control and experimental groups, as shown in the above tables, disagrees with the hypothesis of the study that L1 has an essential role to play in the process of learning and students' comprehension regarding grammar of L2 teaching.

### ***Students' Feedback***

The students of the experimental group were asked about whether the use of L1 in teaching grammar of L2 is beneficial. The students' feedback indicated their preference to the use of L2 in teaching the grammar of the English language. 76.92% of the experimental group students recognized the importance of the sole use of L2 in teaching not only the grammar course but also other courses of the English language. However, 23.07% of the students encouraged the use of L1 to confirm and secure their understanding. The first percentage of the students had the attitude that the continual use of L2 in the class helped them to adapt to a learning atmosphere that is different from what they experienced in the secondary level education. 84.62% of the students agreed that L2 must be used as a medium for teaching English grammar. They recognized that the use of L2 helped them to be familiar with the idioms and expressions of grammar rather than to be known in L1.

Compared to the experimental group, feedback obtained from the control group are almost the same. 84.66% of the students agreed that L2 should be used as the sole medium for teaching grammar and other courses. On the other hand, 15.38% of the

students wanted to use L1 for clarification and understanding of ambiguous or unclear exercises. Moreover, 76.92% of the students appreciated the fact that the continual use of L2 in the class gave them an elevated feeling of being different from students of the secondary school stage, where the use of L1 in teaching English classes was done often.

### ***Teachers' feedback***

The English language teachers of students were also interviewed to get their opinions about the use of L1 in teaching the grammar of L2. Their feedback confirmed the present results of the research, as mentioned above. 66.5 % of the English teachers working in the Department are non-native speakers of Arabic, though they know little Arabic. Those teachers adopted the view that L2 is the best medium for teaching the grammar of English. 37.5% of the teaching members are native speakers of Arabic and they agreed that L2 should be used solely in teaching. All teaching members agreed that the use of L2 would achieve positive objectives. Of these objectives are the familiarity of students with the method of the university teaching, compared to teaching in pre-university levels, the students` understanding and comprehension of L2, the development of the students` ability to communicate in L2, and the acquisition of the different forms of constructions related to L2.

### **Conclusion**

The present study sets to validate the hypothesis that grammar of L2 can be taught through the use of L1 to benefit L2 learners. The results show that the frequent use of L1 in teaching L2 grammar has no observable or tangible positive effect on the students` learning and comprehension. After being subjected to pre and post tests, the students' results were analyzed and compared. The analysis and comparison showed that the L1 use has no effective role on teaching the grammar of L2. This conclusion was also confirmed by students` and teachers` feedback.

### **Suggestions and Recommendations**

1. Replicating the study taking into consideration overcoming the limitations of this study mentioned previously
- 2 Conducting more studies with translation and vocabulary courses which might show different results.
- 3 It is thought that a study which might be carried out with beginners may show different results when using L1 to teach some L2 topics.

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## Appendix 1: Pre and Post Test Sheet

Fill word(s) into the gap to complete the sentence.

- 1- Fortunately, they did not pull down this old theatre.  
Fortunately, this old theatre \_\_\_\_\_ down.
- 2- The hotel manager requests the guests to leave the rooms by midday.  
The guests \_\_\_\_\_ to leave the rooms by midday.
- 3- How did you make this delicious meal?  
How \_\_\_\_\_ this delicious meal?
- 4- The mechanic did not repair my car on time.  
My car \_\_\_\_\_ on time by the mechanic.
- 5- Frank Robinson gave the name Coca Cola to the drink.  
The name Coca Cola \_\_\_\_\_ to the drink by Frank Robinson.
- 6- Where did they hide all sports equipment?  
Where \_\_\_\_\_ all sports equipment hidden?
- 7- They do not permit smoking in auditorium.  
Smoking \_\_\_\_\_ in auditorium.
- 8- Why does he water these plants so rarely?  
Why \_\_\_\_\_ so rarely?
- 9- people in our country know Mrs. J K Rowling`s books very well.  
Mrs. J K Rowling`s books \_\_\_\_\_ in our country
- 10- His elder bother taught him how to ride a bike.  
He \_\_\_\_\_ how to ride a bike by his elder brother
- 11- The audience is not listening to the speaker.  
The speaker \_\_\_\_\_ by the audience.
- 12- They are showing the last part of “Lord of the rings” in many cinemas now.  
The last part of “Lord of the Rings” \_\_\_\_\_ in many cinemas now.
- 13- The coast guards were stopping and searching every car that left the ferry  
Every car that left the ferry \_\_\_\_\_ by the coast guards.

- 14- The butler was taking Lady Astrid`s Dalmatians for a walk every day.  
Lady Astrid`s Dalmatians \_\_\_\_\_ for a walk every day by the butler.
- 15- They are holding the elections next week.  
The elections \_\_\_\_\_ held next week.
- 16- Three inspectors were investigating the crime when the criminal gave himself up to the police.  
The crime \_\_\_\_\_ by three inspectors when the criminal gave himself up to the police.
- 17- What skirts are girls wearing this spring?  
What skirts \_\_\_\_\_ this spring?
- 18- Don`t lose this chance! They are offering you a really good job.  
Don`t lose this chance! You \_\_\_\_\_ really a good job.
- 19- I can assure you sir that we are looking into your complaints very carefully.  
I can assure you sir that your complaints \_\_\_\_\_ into very carefully.
- 20- You can`t enter the kitchen now. They are preparing a surprise for you.  
You can`t enter the kitchen now. A surprise \_\_\_\_\_ for you.
- 21- A few groups of tourists have already visited this modern wonder of the world.  
This modern wonder of the world \_\_\_\_\_ by a few groups of tourists.
- 22- After last bombing, Lebanese authorities must rebuild and expand Beirut airport.  
Beirut airport \_\_\_\_\_ after the last bombing.
- 23- You mustn`t remove the oldest volumes from the library.  
The oldest volumes \_\_\_\_\_ from the library.
- 24- Someone will probably mug you if you walk in that part of the town alone.  
You \_\_\_\_\_ if you walk in that part of the town alone.
- 25- You should send your children to a boarding school, my dear.  
My dear, your children \_\_\_\_\_ to a boarding school.
- 26- You can use a coin as a screwdriver, if you haven`t got one.  
A coin \_\_\_\_\_ as a screwdriver, if you haven`t got one.

27- At the beginning of this experiment, you should prepare a large quantity of hot water.

A large quantity of hot water \_\_\_\_\_at the beginning of this experiment.

28- You can't wash woolen clothes in too warm water or they will shrink.

Woolen clothes \_\_\_\_\_ in too warm water or they will shrink.

29- Someone has put fresh flowers on all the tables.

Fresh flowers \_\_\_\_\_ on all the tables.

30- They won't take a decision until the next meeting.

A decision \_\_\_\_\_ until the next meeting.

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# Standardization: Speaking and Reading Skills among Rural Students

Bharathi Raj. K and G. Baskaran, Ph.D.

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## Abstract

Students are good in studying and getting involved in classroom activities. They are eager to learn new things with enthusiasm and dedication like learning a foreign language. In the context of India, rural students do not show these characteristics in their early education level. Their performance rate in foreign language is very low or average. After getting sound coaching/training, they usually come off their shell. The reason for the initial failure is lack of awareness and love for L2. However, as our subjects showed, they are ready to imitate more or less like other L2 students.

**Key Words:** activities – imitation – shell.

## Speaking

The early introduction of speaking of language is important for reasons of motivation. Students come to learn a foreign language in high school with the conviction that “language” means “something spoken”. They are often discouraged and they lose interest when they find that foreign language study is presented to them just like other school subjects: learning a whole lot of materials from a book with great focus on writing and memorization. They notice that speaking in the language is not emphasized and is a far distant goal. In this way most of the learners feel hesitant as well as shy to express themselves in foreign language. Moreover, they do not know “an act of speech involves more than knowledge of the code” (William M. River 160).

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Vocabulary items are easily acquired while speaking in native tongue, through acts such as expressing emotion, talking with friends and parents and neighbors. Yet in learning a foreign language, learners do not have this power. They are not able to exercise this skill. Because they lack knowledge and confidence in using words, word formations and structures, they become reluctant to speak and they become voiceless. This may be caused also by their inability to remember learned/memorized words and context.

Illiterate family background is another reason for the inability to speak in the foreign language. Even if they get a chance to utter a few words in L2, there is limited chance to receive any feedback or reply in L2. This sort of meagre chance can close the door of language development. Therefore the learner should take advantage of contexts such as the place, time of the day, type of activity involved, and the relationship among the characters (appropriate age, sex, occupation, and authority pattern) and begin speaking. Sometimes learners of L2 (foreign language) avoid using or mixing of both native and foreign tongues. This will open priority to the mother tongue and will slowly reduce the use of L2. Fluency is not focused upon. Learners could easily use a variety of phrases even in incomplete sentences. However, incomplete, inadequate and irrelevant word practice may spoil the learning interest.

Because of lack of knowledge in basic sentence patterns and sentence structures, learners go away from learning practice in order to avoid jokes about their performance. Without some knowledge in basic grammar, no one can speak or write. If they are ignorant of basic patterns, how can they produce even simple comprehensible expressions? When learners become keen on improving their performance, learning may become an end in itself. In other words, when learners may be intrinsically motivated, second language learning becomes easier. Such learning is a cyclical process. (Devaki Reddy, 108)

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Spoken is the first form of human behavior. Speech is the mirror that reflects one's personality and character. In the act of communication pupils are influenced by environmental cues as well as by intention. But the speech should be fulfilled by the act of comprehension. If the action fails, there is no use of communication. Learners come across fear, least language capability, and they never tempt to interact. Those learners who are active in classroom may easily be able to speak first, but slow learners feel hesitant to open their mouth in between sessions. These sorts of behaviors aggravate slow learning power as well as keep the students away from other students. So training and counseling will be given to these pupils in order to overcome their inadequacies. Nida (*Teaching Foreign Language Skills* 191) maintains that the receiver is often encoding parallel messages as he listens; he is choosing from the alternative meanings the emitter is trying to convey. Rapid fire exchange does not happen in every act of communication. Normally, in the beginning stage of communication for L2 students there are hesitation, pause, much repetition and copying of words.

## **Listening**

Listening plays an important role in learning. Out of four basic skills, it is the most basic root for learners. It enhances the skill to acquire new vocabulary and different usages of various phrases, sentence patterns, and basic grammar. As said earlier slow learners/silent students in the classroom often have “nothing to say” (*Teaching Foreign Language Skills* 192) while facing uncongenial topic even in mother tongue. Therefore feasible topics and easy practice will be given to these students to standardize their speaking and reading skills. Psychological experiment has shown that people are more likely to continue a conversation when other people agree rather than when they disagree (William M River 194). The student with still fragile speaking habits is forced to discuss foreign language's literary concepts and problems. But they do not know both

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the accepted terminology and expression in the target language/L2. They also have inadequate communication in native tongue. So, students are supposed to read widely to enhance vocabulary and understanding of cultural concepts.

In audio-lingual approach, vocabulary learning is given a minor role until the student has some control of the basic structural patterns and is able to express himself freely within a limited area of language. But vocabulary for any specific interest is soon acquired when circumstances demand it. Once students have acquired a small basic vocabulary, this can be used for giving practice in structural manipulation which is fundamental to any form of communication – in speech or writing. Thus they are in need of good practice to train them and modify their language skills. While comparing with urban area students, the rural pupils do not learn foreign language with full interest because they may not be ready to spare time, and/or they may be less interested.

## **Reading**

Rural area learners have lack of interest/difficulties in using reading skills. Sometimes they are unable to read polysyllabic words with exact pronunciation. Simultaneously they fail to understand what they are reading, despite willing to read printed works. Only a few students have good reading skills. A reading demands three levels of meanings: lexical meaning (semantic content of the words and expression), structural and grammatical meaning (driving from interrelationship among words and parts of words, or from the order of words), and social – cultural meaning (the evaluation which people of the student's own cultural background attach to the words and groups of words he is reading (ibid 104-112).

Yet these learners may not know the strategy of reading and not fully understand the meaning of words. They skip from word to word just as they may read in their mother tongue,

which reduce their power of comprehension and take them away from the core meaning of foreign language because every language has its own uniqueness and cultural background. Readers are to read in order to reflect, respond and perform in the need of hour, especially, for most tertiary level learners in the Indian context as they prepare to become globally employable (Peter Francis129).

Illiterate family background is another barrier of reading because chances are not available in such context which would enable students to correct their mistakes. If a student is forced to read in the foreign language, he finds himself adrift in a flood of expressions he has never before encountered. Reading skills enable readers to turn writing into meaningful texts and achieve the goals of independence, comprehension and fluency (*Soft Skills* 127). While reading in foreign language, learners are unable to produce or get exact words because of lack of listening skills. Besides, the learners' poor memory of words makes them to pronounce the word in native tongue instead of L2. Learners do not give prominence to imitation that enriches the power to memorize and will help them learn any language to read correctly/exactly. In puppetry stage human beings are trained to imitate everything as a tape recorder which is the natural gift of men. Through memorizing method one can acquire the skills of delivering and pronouncing words. Like kids are telling what parents speak / behave in front of them with full interest and energy without knowing the meaning and grammar of the sentence (Brown), the learner sometimes observes the native speakers' delivery and imitates the same. Thus imitation and interest play vital role in learning. The learner's struggling to read can be overcome. Large number of people in a room is another reason for poor listening. They may not be heard due to noisy situation in the classroom. Most of the native languages are spoken inside the campus and are connected with native culture.

Reading is sometimes referred to as a passive skill, but if we exercise the abilities for fluent direct reading with comprehension of meaning, we shall see the reader in far from passive role during this activity. Therefore the student is trained in certain aspects of reading so that he gradually acquires sufficient skills to be able to continue on his own. This sort of training will help to avoid hindrances in polysyllabic words and word accent. The group memory is helpful to avoid the pitfalls of unfamiliar sound-spelling combinations, vocabulary, structure and even tense forms. Sometimes parts of story will be read in unison by the class after the teacher, and teachers can encourage asking question that include spelling, pronunciation, long words, and word formation. Some words may be explained in the foreign language in footnotes, and a monolingual foreign language dictionary will be available on the teacher's table for consultation. This will discourage the students from seeking native- language equalities for every unfamiliar element they encounter.

### **Growth of Teaching and Learning English**

In the present scenario, teaching and learning English is fast growing in our nation. "Our country is facing new kind of divide- between the English haves and the English have-nots" (Amol Padwad 20). Students with poor learning skills try to avoid the sight of their tutor. They are not ready to face the tutor because of questions and assignments. As "nothing comes nothing" (**King Lear**), tutor will not give much importance to those pupils. Moreover, all the learners should come out from bondages which tied them for years, through unawareness, lack of interest, listening and false assumptions. Nevertheless, standardization in foreign language is impossible unless the learner and tutor join together with cultural background and sensibility.

### **Conclusion**

Thus rural area students are now considered with low standard in both speaking and reading skills. Once they avoid speaking and reading, they lose the opportunity to master speaking and reading in the foreign language. If they turn away from speaking/interacting/communicating with L2, how will they get opportunity to do both? This will result in poor and inadequate mastery. The ideal way to enrich both speaking and reading skills is to let them learn in an adequate manner, realize their mistakes, and practice constantly.

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# "Management Works in the System; Leadership Works on the System" The Interpersonal Skills on Corporate Threshold

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## Abstract

In today's business world, it is not enough to be an erudite on economics, design, planning or any other sectors in which you may have some educational background. It takes more than technical skills to achieve success in a project, program or any career. In recent years, the focus in management has shifted from technical aspects of the profession (the skills of managing the project budget, planning, scheduling, and resources, etc., have been viewed as the key to delivering successful projects) to people-oriented factors such as interpersonal skills. These skills are professional competences, soft skills, management abilities or whatever you name it. It is just as important to focus on the soft skills of management—skills such as relationship building and communication—that can make or break your results. Soft skills (also called “people skills”) are typically hard to observe, quantify and measure.

In this paper the focus is on Interpersonal soft skill, hard skill, leadership skill and how beneficial are these skills for an individual and how these soft skills are becoming the key factor to differentiate a normal employee, from an outstanding one apart from this workplace communication relationship will be discussed.

**Key words: Soft skill, hard skill, leadership, communication,**

## Introduction

“Work is a search for daily meaning as well as daily bread, for recognition as well as cash....in short, for a life rather than a Monday through Friday sort of dying.” -  
-- Studs Terkel

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A rapidly accelerating trend in recent years has seen management play a major role in everyone's life. The increasing competitive pressure on organization to delegate responsibility to the employees has given rise to a need where everyone has to develop certain skills to survive. We understand from a personal, professional and global perspective how critical is to do our part to make communication work without the soft skills. Through this paper an effort is made to fill the void between the corporate expectations and the actual skill level of the individuals to be employed. In today's era of cut throat competition, one cannot deny the importance of skills, soft as well as hard. People skills are needed for everyday life as much as they are needed for work, they show how people relate to each other communicating, listening, engaging in dialogue, giving feedback, cooperating as a team member, solving problems, making decisions, planning, and resolving conflict.

### **Growing Importance of Skills**

The skills are of growing importance in a world where business is marked by 'hot' buzzwords, such as globalization; decentralization; and management. Of course in real life soft and hard skills (such as subject competence, resource handling, and market knowledge) go hand in hand. In the future of work, soft skills are fast becoming the deal breaker in many of today's hiring decisions. Executives, after all, are rarely measured according to how well they can re-iterate the technical specifications of their products and services, but rather on their ability to motivate an organization, to assess the performance of their staff, to make clear and well-balanced decisions, and, first and foremost, their ability to develop and communicate ideas and visions. Soft skills (also called "people skills") are typically hard to observe, quantify and measure.

### **Soft Skills in Mechanical World**

Soft skills are essentially people skills defined in scholarly literature are nontechnical skills, abilities, intangible, personality-specific skills that determine your strengths as a leader, listener, negotiator, and conflict mediator required to function in a specific employment environment to: deliver information or services to customers and co-workers; work effectively as a member of a

team; learn or acquire the technical skills necessary to perform a task; inspire the confidence of supervisors and management; and understand and adapt to the cultural norms of the workplace.

**Soft skill** is a sociological term which refers to the cluster of personality traits, social graces, and facility with language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that mark people to varying degrees. Soft skills complement hard skills, which are the technical requirements of a job.

It is difficult to define what soft skill is and so it is worthwhile to enumerate the basic features of soft-skills. Soft-skills refer to a cluster of personal qualities, habits, attitudes and social graces that make someone a good employee and a compatible co-worker. Companies value soft skills because research suggests and experience shows that they can be just as important an indicator of job performance as hard skills.

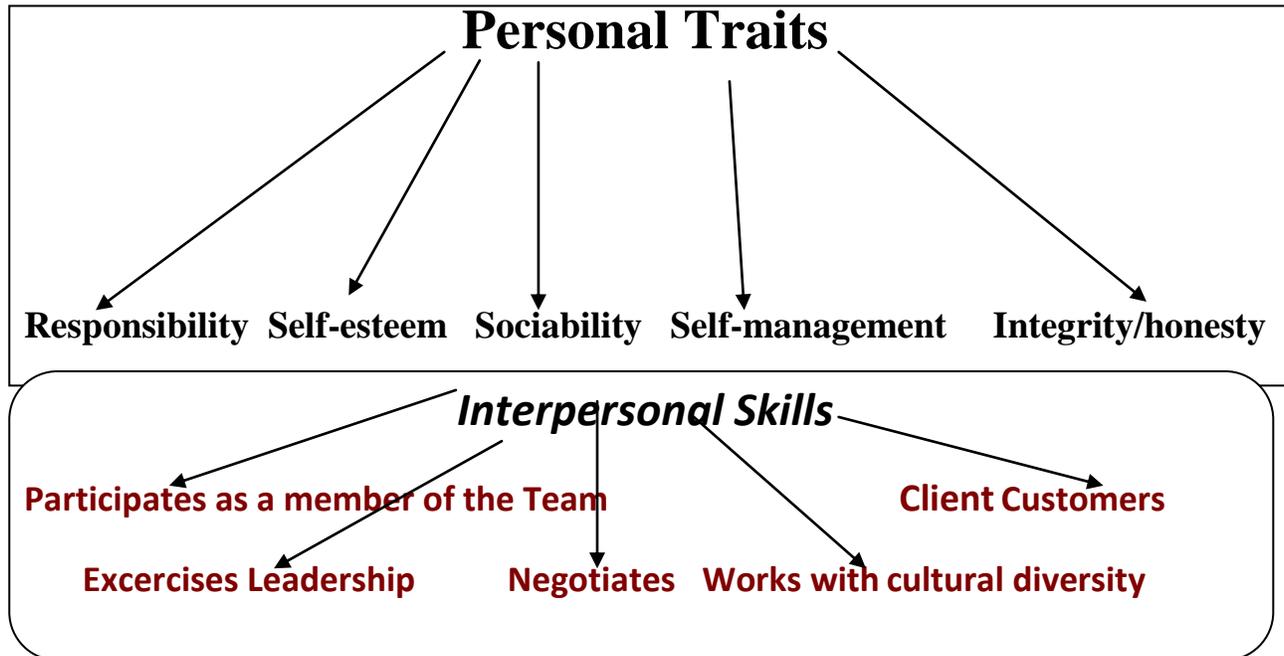
Today's service economy and the ascendance of work teams in large organizations put a new premium on people skills and relationship-building. Portland-based human resources expert Lori Kocon says. *"And with business being done at an increasingly fast pace, employers also want people who are agile, adaptable and creative at solving problems."* He advises all job candidates -- especially those who aspire to managerial positions -- to get in touch with their soft side.

**Not normally** found on a CV, soft skills are those personal values and interpersonal skills that determine a person's ability to fit into a particular structure, such as a project team, a rock group, or a company. The skills include personality traits like emotional maturity, eagerness to learn, and willingness to share and embrace new ideas.

### **Examples of Soft Skills**

*Soft skills* refer to a collection of social grace, personal habit and personality traits, and friendliness, facility with language and optimism that usually marks people to varying degrees. Examples of soft skills are Personal qualities like self-management, integrity, sociability, self-esteem, responsibility and Interpersonal Skills like negotiation, working with cultural diversity, service to clients and customers, leadership and participating as a member of a team etc.

The examples of soft skills can also be presented as follows:



### Measuring Soft Skills

Soft skills are difficult to measure. Most pre-employment tests are of little value in assessing interpersonal or teamwork skills. Soft skills are behaviors and attitudes displayed in interactions among individuals that affect the outcomes of such encounters. They must be internalized as a natural aspect of a person's repertoire of social skills and character attributes. These differ from hard skills, which are the technical knowledge and abilities required to perform specific job-related tasks more formally stated in job descriptions. In the past, it was felt that managers and employees did not need soft skills as long as they could do their work, but now even positions in hard, task-oriented areas such as accounting and information systems require **soft skills** as well as technical skills.

### Hard Skills and Soft Skills

In the today's world of occupation, while professional skills may open the door of opportunity, soft skills keep you in the driver's seat. "hard skills" are technical or administrative procedures related to an organization's core business. Hard skills are specific, easy to observe, quantify,

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measure, can be easily taught because most of the time the skill sets are brand new to the learner and no unlearning is involved and are the minimum skills necessary to do a job... Most people with the same level of education and experience should have roughly the same level of hard skills. Hard skills are the first screen used to weed out applicants who are obviously not qualified for a job. In the work field, "hard skills" are technical or administrative procedures related to an organization's core business. Examples include machine operation, computer protocols, safety standards, financial procedures and sales administration. These skills are typically easy to examine, reckon and evaluate. They're also easy to train, because most of the time the skill sets are brand new to the learner and no unlearning is involved.

Soft skills, are often intangible and, therefore, not easily taught. People come to organizations with interpersonal behavior patterns already thoroughly ingrained, and they weren't learned in a classroom. Instead, individuals learn how to deal with relationships and other life challenges "on the street" at a very early age. They observe how the people around them do things, they experiment, and they stick with what works for them. So everyone ends up with a unique portfolio of people skills; some behaviors may be effective, but others cause problems. People skills are needed for everyday life as much as they're needed for work. They have to do with how people relate to each other: communicating, listening, engaging in dialogue, giving feedback, cooperating as a team member, solving problems, contributing in meetings and resolving conflict.

### **Employability and Soft Skill**

Many entrepreneurial ventures fail even though they have great ideas and great talent because they lack the appropriate structures and processes to move forward. In addition, when the focus is too much on 'hard technical skills,' the dynamics in the workplace become difficult to manage and many companies never see their first anniversary because they lack soft skills. Nearly one-quarter of executives in high-tech positions are "in trouble" due to poor people skills, says Hagberg Consulting Group, a management consulting firm.

What skills do employers want? How do these skills match those that youth and adults are developing through their college studies and experiences? How can education and training programs prepare individuals to enter a rapidly changing workplace? Therefore with the changing education trends, versatility in courses, availability of qualified personnel, the competition for job acquisition and job sustainability is becoming tougher.

Highly skilled, adaptive blend of technical and human relations ability are recognized by employers as the primary competitive edge. Job-specific technical skills in a given field are no longer sufficient as employers scramble to fill an increasing number of interdependent jobs. Many experts point out the importance of continuously developing skills beyond those required for a specific job, and they identify employability skills that enable individuals to prove their value to an organization as the key to job survival.

Employability skills are transferable core skill groups that represent essential functional and enabling knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by the 21st century workplace. They are necessary for career success at all levels of employment and for all levels of education. People's ability to handle the soft skills side of business Influencing, Communication, Team Management, Delegating, Appraising, Presenting, Motivating recognized as key to making businesses more profitable and better places to work. Increasingly, companies aren't just assessing their current staff and future recruits on their business skills. They are now assessing them on a whole host of soft skill competencies around how well they relate and communicate to others.

Measuring these soft skills is no easy thing. But in the most progressive companies, managers are looking for people's ability to communicate clearly and openly, and to listen and respond empathetically. They also want them to have equally well-honed written skills so that their correspondence (including emails) doesn't undo all the good work their face-to-face communication creates. Good soft skills also include the ability of people to balance the commercial needs of their company with the individual needs of their staff. Being flexible and able to adapt to the changing needs of an organization also qualify as soft skills, as do being able to collaborate with others and influence situations through lateral and more creative thinking. The ability to deal with differences, multiculturalism and diversity is needed more than ever. Technical skills get you in the door, but soft skills keep you in the job. Companies sink or swim

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based on soft skills regardless whether their technologies keep them afloat temporarily. Great technology and mediocre management leads to sure failure! Leadership is the key.

## **Leadership and Management**

Sampson (2007) writes, "The skills required for project management are now often divided 50/50 into traditional 'hard' skills, such as risk management and scheduling, and 'soft', people oriented skills, such as interpersonal communication"(p.14). Soft skills are the keystones to success. Leadership is one of the key soft skills along with communication, creativity, learning and teamwork. A leader is responsible for managing resources like people and finances and information in the form of decision-making, problem solving, meeting management, and persuasion. Many of these require presentation skills. In other words, good leadership presupposes refined 'soft skills.' Stephen Covey(2004) said: "Management works in the system, leadership works on the system". In other words, management is the ability to manage with complexity, to create structures and systems that produce order and harmony. Leadership is the ability to cope with change, to establish a new direction, and to get institutions and individuals to move in that direction.

According to Northouse (2004), when managers are involved in influencing a group to meet its goals, they are involved in leadership. When leaders are involved in planning, organizing, staffing, and controlling, they are involved in management. Both processes involve influencing a group of individuals toward goal attainment. Leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of actions. Each has its own function and are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment. While the responsibilities and functions of management and leadership are exceptional, there is a link between them. Leaders seek to bring their organization more in line with the realities of their environment, which often necessitates changing the very structures, resources, and relationships of their organization which they have worked so long and so hard to manage. Lewin (1936) stated, "Success in organizations requires a balance of both leadership and management. The manager is the stone and the leader

the fire. Both elements are necessary to forge a successful business. ... the notion of leadership over management is being overemphasized”.

Management is more of a science than an art, where process and practice are both significant and reasonable fulfillment of the management role is highly reliant upon calculation, statistics, methods, and routines. Therefore the art of management starts where the science of management ends. As “*Manage*” comes from the Latin word meaning “*hand*” in the context of handling something. Management usually implies the handling or carrying out of policies and plans laid down by someone else. Management is about the "hard skills." Management focuses on the business of the organization; it involves planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing, and controlling and measuring. As Drucker (1988) said, “Management is not just getting things done. It involves the variety of activities aimed at achieving organizational goals. “Managers translate the strategic vision of the leaders into the tactics necessary to achieve the goals. “The senior managers in many organizations are often and correctly acknowledged as remarkably talented pioneers. The integrated structures emerging under their guidance, however, are typically so new and so dynamic that even the seasoned executives in this movement are still learning to create and operate highly integrated systems or networks”.(p.45)

Leadership defines what the future should look like, aligns people with that vision, and inspires them to make it happen despite the obstacles”. Leadership is a set of processes that creates organizations in the first place or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances. Leadership is different. Achieving grand visions always require energy. Good leaders motivate people in a number of ways apart from recognizing and rewarding success. They always articulate the organizations vision that stresses the values of the audience they are addressing. They regularly enhance the self-esteem of the people by involving them in decision making to achieve the organizations vision. Just as the need for more people to provide leadership in the complex organizations that dominate our world today, we also need more people with right skills to develop the cultures that will create that leadership. Institutionalizing a leadership culture is the ultimate act of leadership. Leadership takes some fundamental understanding of the elements of leadership vs. the elements of management, which is as much a function of personality as it is

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learning the elements that make good leadership. The best managers tend to become good leaders because they develop leadership abilities and skills through practicing good management techniques.

Zielinski (2005), however, points out that “If you had asked management gurus five years ago to name the most important competencies project managers should have, most would have said technical skills. Today they'd be more inclined to place communications or negotiations acumen at the top of their lists ... There's no denying the importance of technical expertise to successfully orchestrating a project. Managing an initiative's scope, cost, risk, resources and schedule are all essential skills. Indeed, the quality of up-front planning--and a project leader's skill at re-planning as project conditions change--can determine a project's fate all on its own. But in rethinking skill hierarchies, many companies have come to view these more as baseline competencies. Now they regard soft skills ... such as communication, negotiation, conflict management and persuasion, as higher-order skills.” (p. 22)

## **Conclusions**

Today, the need to coach new hires about soft skills is an accepted fact among employers and those who prepare individuals for the workforce. Technical skills are being recognized as one of the minimal requirements for a manager. The need for excellent interpersonal, or soft skills, are necessary requisites for success. While skills are good to develop by themselves, integrating them into a systemic practice makes you develop new competencies for success. Soft skills as defined in scholarly literature are nontechnical skills, abilities, and traits required to function in a specific employment environment to: deliver information or services to customers and co-workers; work effectively as a member of a team; learn or acquire the technical skills necessary to perform a task; inspire the confidence of supervisors and management; and understand and adapt to the cultural norms of the workplace.

Leadership is one of the key soft skills along with communication, creativity, learning and teamwork. . Institutionalizing a leadership culture is the ultimate act of leadership. When leaders

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are involved in planning, organizing, staffing, and controlling, they are involved in management. The best managers tend to become good leaders because they develop leadership abilities and skills through practicing good management techniques. Therefore the skills are of growing importance in the globalized world and Soft skills are the keystones to success.

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Anita Nair

Courtesy: <http://www.anitanair.net/home.php>

### Abstract

Anita Nair was born in Kerala. She is a famous poet, short story writer and journalist. In *Ladies Coupe* Anita Nair focuses on men and women relationship, marriage and divorce, social and cultural, and psychological issues. Here the character Margaret Shanthi is a chemistry teacher who got married to Ebenezer Paulraj. He is an example of male dominance. He changed her life because of the power he had in her life. She wanted to do Ph.D. but he asked her to complete B.Ed. Finally she changed herself in an artistic way to win her freedom from her husband. Janaki, another fellow passenger of Ladies Coupe, is an example for old age tradition. According to her a woman should be a good daughter, sister, wife, mother and so on. Indian society also believes that woman should always depend on some man in their life. Sheela is a fourteen year old girl, who is very sensitive with a deep insight. At the very young age she understands what is meant by life. Her grandmother also teaches her a negative picture of male domination. Her father used to control her whenever she began to talk. Marikolundhu is another passenger who comes from a poor family. She and her mother work as coolies in Chettiar's house. She was seduced by one of the Chettiar's son Murugesan. Marikulundhu shows her love and affection towards Chettiar's grandson but she hates her own son Muthu, the one who escaped from many attempts of abortion.

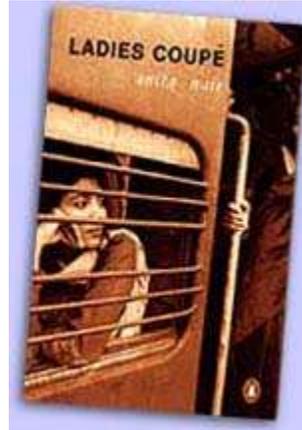
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Anita Nair's characters *Ladies Coupe* have their own pain and sorrow but they overcome their entire struggle and have their own life in their society.

### **Complementary Nature of Man-Woman Relationship**



Men and women are complementary to each other. But, even in this modern era, women are considered not as equal to men but as the weaker class. They undergo suppression in a male dominated society. These women are unvoiced creatures of the society. Anita Nair's portrayal of women in her novel *Ladies Coupe* (2001) brings out this fact clearly.

Any relationship is a beautiful bond that connects people to share pleasure and pain, joy and sorrow and success and failure. A strong and healthy relationship assures a person that he/she is not left alone on this earth. Everyone is surrounded by such relationships as marital, parental, siblings and friends. Trust, commitment, adjustment, sacrifice and all the above love are prime pillars of a healthy relationship.

### **Marriage in the Life of Women**

Marriage cuts off a woman from the mainstream of life and pulls back her from achieving her goals. Most marriages are successful only when the women show major attention to the household affairs. For men it's different. In most families, the man is the boss of the house; wife a counselor or a minister who assists or helps; but not the dictator.

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Beyond the threshold of her house, woman finds life less promised and confusing due to her social and cultural insecurities. Whenever women step out of their confinements, they have to fight to wipe out the negative image of women already dwelling in the minds of men and women. In certain aspects women are treated as angels and goddesses. In some other aspects women are expected to be slaves, who are ready to work for a man and his benefits and comfort.

Marginalization and centralization are common in a woman's life. Veneration and isolation both do not help her to mingle with the realities of life. "An Indian woman has been either venerated as a goddess or rejected as a siren. The modern Indian woman has to compete against these two extreme images; she is striving to lead the life of a normal human being with normal desires" (Manogar 22).

### **Women in the Works of Women Writers of Indian Writing in English**

Women writers of Indian Writing in English are good in analyzing complex issues like complexities of human relationships, man-woman relationship, woman's psyche and her potential.

The changing pattern of man-woman relationship is presented not only in the novels, but also in films and television serials. Bold themes and diverse issues are now being taken up by the media. The mosaic of stories highlights the fact that man-woman relationship is a very complex and subtle issue. (Mukerjee 25)

The changing pattern of man-woman relationship can be traced in the works of

Writers such as Anita Desai, Nayantara Shagal, Arundhati Roy, Manju Kapur and Shoba De show how the modern Indian women attempt to free themselves sexually, economically and domestically from the male dominated society. Male and female characters in their novels fight against their interpersonal problems without caring for any success; often they end up having some kind of peace.

The novelists, like the readers, know that there is no logical analysis of emotion.

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However, it is interesting to note how certain types of men and certain types of women get along very well. The novelists often focus upon the lack of emotional fulfillment in man-woman relationship (Naik 56).

### **Anita Nair**

Anita Nair was born at Mundakottakurissi near Shornur in Kerala. She was brought up in a suburb in Madras. Her father worked in factories. Her grandparents who lived in Kerala were the reason for Anita Nair to make frequent visits to Kerala and such visits made her to know the heart of rural Kerala. She did her B.A. in English Language and Literature in a small town Othapalam, in Kerala. At the age of twenty-four, she went to United States to study journalism. She was working as an innovative director of an advertising agency in Bangalore when she wrote her first book, a collection of short stories.

### **Margaret Shanti**

Margaret Shanti is one of the fellow travelers in the ladies coupe. Margaret's story is a story of a woman who learns her own strategies to get her dreams true. Margaret's husband, Ebenezer Paulraj, is an example for male dominance. He maneuvers Margaret into a position of submissive silence, making her out to be an unnoticed and unremarkable girl. A girl, with a brilliant academic career and a warm and vibrant personality, is reduced to an average girl. His subtle cruelty to the children in his school gets repeated with his wife too. Once he was obsessed with the girlish characteristics of Margaret. It was visible even at their first meet. To retain the girlish charm in her, when she happily announced her pregnancy, he insisted on aborting the baby. Margaret's felt confusion, anger, sorrow, pain and self-pity.

Tired of her submissiveness at her home, she finally takes her life into her own hands. With supreme will power she collects her hidden strength and sends the ball to his court. Having learnt the tactics from his constant playing of games to get his things done, she takes her revenge by following the same tactics which are her husband's tools to rule her.

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Margaret has gone through physical, mental and spiritual crisis throughout her life. She keeps on growing till she finds a state where she is happy and peaceful.

Margaret's marriage to Ebenezer Paulraj is like a fairy tale for her. Ebenezer Paulraj loves Margaret Shanti from the bottom of his heart but not ready to accept her individual likes and dislikes, whims and fancies and dreams and aims. Margaret's state, hands tied freedom, is excellently portrayed by Anita Nair. He loves her but he did not allow her individuality. Margaret is initially a little girl who says 'yes' to whatever her husband says and ready to do anything for him. She is jolted out of this role when she has to go for an abortion. He controls her completely. She is forced to do B.Ed., though she wants to do Ph.D. She is made to work only for her husband and he nags her all the time. She starts to hate him and the day she realizes her hatred towards him, she feels liberated from some unknown clutches:

I mouthed the words: I HATE HIM. I HATE MY HUSBAND. I HATE EBENEZER PAULRAJ. I HATE HIM. HATE HIM. I waited for a clap of thunder, a hurling meteor, a whirlwind, a dust storm... for some super phenomenon that is usually meant to accompany such momentous and perhaps sacrilegious revelations. (Ladies Coupe 98)

When Margaret understands that she is isolated, she finds consolation through eating a lot of food. She puts on weight. Ebe, on the other hand, who is aware of his health and fitness, makes her feel guilty about her weight gain. She leads a routine life until the day James, the golden fish, floats dead. The moment proves to be a turning point in her life. She does not want her life to float like dead fish. She identifies herself with the golden fish. In the words of Anita Nair,

Among the five elements that constitute life, I classify myself as water. Water that moistens. Water that heals. Water that forgets. Water that accepts. Water that flows tirelessly. Water that also destroys. For the power to dissolve and destroy is as much a part of being water as wetness. (Ladies Coupe 96).

Ebenezer's love for food and sex becomes a tool for Margaret. She starts pampering Ebenezer with sex and food he likes the most in his life. The result he becomes fat, loses his vanity and needs her more and more. She, once controlled by him earlier, now holds him completely in her hands. A unique way adapted by Margaret helps her to go back into the society, changes her parents' outlook and attitude of her husband. The strategy, finding and attacking the weakness of the opponent to win him, is artistically handled by Anita Nair. The heavy depression of Margaret, her silenced voice, her physical and mental sufferings, and the effort she takes to make her strong are the places where Anita Nair proves to be a notable writer of Indian Writing in English.

Janaki, another fellow passenger of Ladies Coupe is an example of age-old belief of Indian society that a woman should always depend on some man in her life. The comparison of woman with Sita or Savitri, epic characters of Indian Literature, also insists this motive.

During childhood, a female must depend upon her father, during youth, upon her husband; her husband being dead, upon her sons, if she has no sons, upon the near kinsmen of her husband, in default, upon those of her father, if she had no paternal kinsmen, upon the Sovereign, a woman must never govern herself as she likes (Ross 44).

### **Notion of Good Wife**

According to Indian tradition, a woman is always synonymous with good wife. A good wife should be faithful, obedient and virtuous. Janaki is expected to take up this traditional role of women. She plays various roles such as a daughter, a wife and a mother but not an individual who claims her life to be her own. The secondary position becomes permanent for her. This is mainly due to the patriarchal pattern of her society, which is accepted as a natural phenomenon.

The problems of adjustment with the husband and his relatives have been the most widely treated problems in the novels written by Indian women novelists. This has been treated, for instance, by Nayantara Saghil, Antia Desai, and Shashi Deshpande.

These writers suggest that wives must be given more rights and not to be treated as inferior to their husbands; they should have a more positive outlook than the one they already have: the negative should be nullified.

Janaki gets married to Prabhakar, when she is eighteen year old and leads a happy, comfortable, long married life for forty years. Janaki's husband is a caring partner and she has a son and daughter-in-law. Janaki leads a happy life until she realizes her submissiveness. She feels some string of revolt when she finds her husband controlling everybody even their grown up son. She says to her husband, "You just want to control him. You want to control everybody. You want everyone to do your bidding." (*Ladies Coupe* 30).

Prabhakar's overbearing dominance, exactness, and precision irritates Janaki. The life which has gone smoothly starts to find its ups and downs. She discovers herself and her true happiness that lies in her, but she is not able to take off the web under which she is covered for a long period. Her initial response to Akhila's query "Why should a woman live by herself? There is always man willing to be with her" (*Ladies Coupe* 21), explains it.

I am a woman who has always been looked after. First there was my father and brothers; then my husband. When my husband is gone there will be my son, waiting to take off from where his father left off. Woman like me end up being fragile (22).

### **Sheela and the Dynamics of Life**

Sheela, the next narrator of *Ladies Coupe*, is a sensitive girl of fourteen year old, blessed with a deep insight. She looks at the family around her and relationship between her grandmother, mother and father and she understands the dynamics of life. Her grandmother teaches her practical life. She becomes attached to her grandmother until she dies and the attachment brings in a maturity to Sheela. Her conversation with other fellow travelers seems to be a matured one. The knowledge of three generation women can be found in Sheela; her mother's and her grandmother's and also her own. She knows

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that “Women turn to their mother when they have no one else to turn to. Women know that a mother alone will find it possible to unearth some shred of compassion and love that in everyone else has become ashes” ( Ladies Coupe 71).

Sheela’s grandmother also teaches her the negative picture of men who dominate women physically as well as psychologically. Sheela is reprimand by her father incessantly for using shit in every sentence, for speaking to boys and for being rude. He has encouraged her to speak “with a razor-edged wit and a finely developed skill of repartee” (70). Sheela’s father always gives preference to her as his child. However, when she starts to talk like a matured woman, he is completely changed and starts to control her whenever she begins to talk.

When her grandmother dies of cancer and her body is prepared for funeral, Sheela dresses her grandmother in a good costume with her jewels. She does it because she remembers the words of her grandmother, “The only person you need to please is yourself. When you look into a mirror, your reflection should make you feel happy” (Ladies Coupe 67). Thus, Sheela fulfills the wish of her grandmother by adoring her dead body with jewels. A fourteen year old girl’s inner search and maturity are beautifully pictured by Anita Nair.

### **Story of Marikolundhu – a Story of Sexual Exploitation**

Anita Nair, with a deep, psychological insight, skillfully utilizes the story of Marikolundhu to comment upon the sexual exploitation of Indian women from rural background. Marikolundhu’s story recalls her encounter with men and concludes that most men take advantage of women’s loneliness, illiteracy, dependence, ignorance and frustration. They never hesitate to blame the woman at the end. The society dominated by patriarchal culture tends to lay down the rule that a woman’s responsibility towards the family is total whereas any sort of other authority is conveniently denied to her. This society shuns to think that the woman is strong willed to create disastrous consequences if she is completely ignored.

Marikolundhu undergoes humiliation and debasement, which result in negating her son Muthu. Marikolundhu's character reveals the physical as well as mental suffering due to ignorance.

Marikolundhu comes from a poor background. Her mother works as a cook at Chettiar's house, which is one of the richest families in their village. Even as a child she is the victim of social and economic repression. She loses her education by this. She looks after her house when her mother goes for work; later when her mother is seriously ill, she is employed at the Chettiar's house. There, she is assigned with the work of taking care of a child of Sujata Akka, the daughter-in-law of Chettiar. She showers love and affection upon the child. She takes care of him well, but hates her son Muthu, the one who escaped many attempts of abortion. He is the result of her seduction by Murugesan. She does not want the child which is the result of seduction but the circumstances do not help her. So she leaves her son at her mother's care and takes care of the household of Chettiar family.

Marikolundhu, deprived from the society, and Sujata Akka, deprived from her husband, find mutual happiness in their nearness. Later Sujata's husband also uses Marikolundhu to fulfill his sexual desires. When Sujata Akka comes to know this, instead of punishing her husband, she pushes Marikolundhu out of her household. She gets the responsibility of her own child after her mother's death. Mercilessly she mortgages him at one of Murugesan's looms for Rs.5000/-. The anger she has on Murugesan, the society which saves him from punishment, her inability and the hatred of her son, everything comes to an end only at the death of Murugesan.

The turning point in her life comes when she sees the dead body of Murugesan burning at the pyre and she sees Muthu tends to the pyre. She is shocked at the realization that she has reduced her son to a very lower state for no fault of his. All the hatred she has on him goes with the flames. She feels love for her child. She decides to look after him and makes up her mind to call him back to her.

Marikolanthu is surrounded by social, familial and financial problems. Her resolve to bring up her child enables her to begin a new chapter. Finally Marikolanthu, a voiceless victim, forced motherhood and lesbianism, finds peace only after accepting her responsibility of the child, whom she has negated and neglected. Marikolanthu's constant search for meanings and values of life ends here.

### **Anita Nair's Art**

Anita Nair presents the existential struggle of woman who denies to flow along the current and refuses to submit her individual self. The woman emerging out of such situations is a defeated individual who undergoes much pain and suffering. Such characters exhibit a sense of insecurity due to their traumatic psychic experiences and also due to the collapse of one value system and the absence of enduring values. Thus, in *Ladies Coupe* (2001), Anita Nair traces a woman's journey from self-sacrifice to self-realization, self-denial to self-assertion and self-negation to self-affirmation. The feminist voice is heard throughout the novel.

### **Conclusion**

Margaret, a chemistry teacher represents the women who are forced to lose their self-identity by their husbands. A fourteen year old girl Sheela's portrayal depicts the modern young women who are aware of their need of individuality. Marikolanthu, pictures the rural women who lose their life because of illiteracy and ignorance. Janaki, a pampered housewife's posture is common to be found in India.

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**Literature as Prophecy in J. P. Clark's "The Casualties" and  
It's Implications for Contemporary Nigerian Society**

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**Abstract**

There is no doubt that some scholars have attempted to situate J. P. Clark Bekederemo's poem "The Casualties" within the framework of the Nigerian Civil War. However, very little attention seems to have been given to the prophetic and contemporaneous implications of the creative work. This paper is an effort at bridging the gap, by conceptualizing the visionary content of the poem, and locating it in the present-day socio-political context of Nigeria. While using the critical tool of New Historicism as a basis for the analytical procedure, the paper observes that the various issues that culminated in the national crisis are still prevalent, and concludes that unless urgent and proactive steps are taken towards addressing them, a repeat of the bloody incident of 6<sup>th</sup> July 1967-15<sup>th</sup> January 1971 may be inevitable.

**Keywords:** Literature, Prophecy, Clark-Bekederemo, War, Poems, Nigeria.

**Background to the Study**

John Pepper Clark- Bekederemo, an internationally acclaimed poet, and one who was actively involved in the dynamics of the Nigerian Civil war, is not just a creative writer; but a prophet to his society. Daniel (2008:147) is right in observing that J. P. Clark-Bekederemo is a strong defender and upholder of his traditional heritage, noting that the history and career of this Nigerian author show an attachment to the essential nature of his people. Surely, J. P. Clark-

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Bekederemo has given to Nigeria a heritage that closely mirrors the history of his nation. He has also tried to show, in the process, that the polity could be improved. In Abiola Irele's introduction to *Collected Poems and Plays* (1991: xxxix), he observes that Clark-Bekederemo's "career runs parallel to his country's history". However, the most striking aspect of the history of his career is that, at every point, his background and associations have elicited an overflow of powerful feelings, which he feels compelled to express in poetry. Bamikunle (1993) has also gone ahead to observe that while J.P. Clark may be more popular as a dramatist, he is however more profound and striking as a poet. It is possible to observe that J.P. Clark Bekederemo is not just a rounded person but also that his poetic drive is almost as old as himself. Perhaps his strength as a literary person lies in his ability to reflect and write for all seasons. It therefore does not come as a surprise that one of his generic poems, *The Casualties*, though essentially a post mortem of the Nigerian civil war, has implications for contemporary realities and the evolution of a new Nigerian state.

### **Statement of the Problem**

While scholars have beamed search light on the phenomenon of the Nigerian civil war, not much work seems to have been done on the intricate relationship between history, literature and prophecy. Moreover, the prophetic quality of the poetic tradition has not been given the much needed attention. Even where scholars attempt to link creativity with prophecy, they do not contextualize the Nigerian civil war, which the present paper is intended to do.

### **Literature Review**

Before zeroing into the dynamism of prophecy and the literariness of it, it is important to create a basis for the entire discourse by problematising the nature and function of literature.

Adebayo (2010:6) explains "that the primary function of literature derives from its nature".

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Therefore, a discussion of the nature of literature has implication for its functions. Literature is an art made realisable in imaginative expression or a special use of language. Mayhead (1979:8) observes that one of the important values possessed by literature is that it helps to preserve the precision and therefore the vitality of language. Egudu (1976: 14) has argued that whatever may be the analytical tool of literature, deliberate ‘manipulation of language for aesthetic effect’ is its essence. The strategic place of language in literary experience cannot be overemphasised. Oyegoke (2009:2) while locating the literary dynamics within a linguistic framework observes that literature is the second cultural imperative after language. Literature, according to him, is born when language gives creative expression to experience. Literature is a by-product of language and is in many respects similarly characterised. It is a form of expression. It communicates, instructs and entertains. It opens vistas of human life and experience to an audience or reader. It serves to expand the limits of language. The great languages of history, it is important to observe, produced great literature which was an essential basis of their greatness. Literature is far more productive hatchery for new lexicographical, semantic, and grammatical linguistic additions than the conversational medium can afford language for its growth and expression. Wellek and Warren (1970: 22) push the discussion by holding the view that language is the material of literature as stone is of the sculpture, paint is of picture and sound is about music. Hence, according to them, it seems best to consider as literature only works in which the aesthetic function is dominant, while we can recognize that there are aesthetic elements such as style and composition in works which have non-aesthetic purpose such as a scientific treatise, philosophical dissertation, political pamphlets and sermons to mention just a few.

While it is crucial to acknowledge that literature has other functions such as educating and correcting through satire, the fact still remains that its primary purpose is to be an aesthetically satisfying organization of words. Olusegun Oladipo (1993:5) observes that there exists a working “relationship between literature and philosophy from the perspective of ‘worldview’ and critical discourse”. He argues that philosophy and literature are both social phenomena and forms of social consciousness. Social, not just in the sense that they are produced by people who are “beings-in-society”, but perhaps more importantly in two respects. First, even when philosophy and literature spring from the experience of an individual or treat very abstract matters, they still constitute a reflection in the phenomena of life (Here it should be noted that personal experience, the experience of the individual, is still human experience and human experience is essentially social – a product of our interaction, not just with nature but also with ourselves). Second, philosophy and literature are products of the intellectual and practical needs of society and the individuals and classes comprising it. Whichever tool of analysis we use in describing or assessing literature, its relevance cannot be a work for its own sake. It either tries to present an experience of human relevance or attempts to repackage or remodel the personality of the individual in society. In performing any of these roles, it is not out of place to note that literature operates within some context of ideas which provide an anchor point for the web of descriptions, facts, constructions and evaluations which it contains. Several literary scholars have written on the Nigerian civil war. For instance Ezeigbo (1991) focuses extensively on the fictional and factual aspects of the war. This she does, by examining the interpretation given to the events of the Nigerian crisis and civil war by creative writers and others who have written about the war. The work also examines the place of propaganda in creative art and the art of governance and the techniques employed to achieve it. Chukwuemeka Ike wrote the famous

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*Sunset at Dawn* in which he presents graphically the impact of the war on the socio-political setting of Nigeria. Though essentially a novel, *Sunset* can also be said to be satire, a love story and a story of war. In the literary piece, Ike draws on his own experience of the Biafran tragedy. Throughout the crisis, the novelist was there and the characters in his novel were drawn from a cross section of those he met under the exigencies of the wartime , The same is true of other notable writers such as Festus Iyayi in *Violence* and Isidore Okpewho in *The Last Duty*. Literary critics like Tony Morrison have done some work on the relationship between literature and prophecy. In his doctoral dissertation entitled *Literature as Prophecy: Toni Morrison as a Prophetic Writer*, Khalilah Tyri Watson, tries to situate the literary prophet within the context of the Holy Books and history. According to him, like Biblical and Quranic Prophets, literary prophet considers the historical events of the past in the context of the present, then provides the critique, the warning, and the challenges to his audience

In the first chapter of the work, “The Writer must Bear Witness: The Literary Prophet Defined”, he provides the reader with the definition, origin, and conceptual analysis of prophets and prophecy and discusses other critics who have delved into the topic of Morrison as a literary prophet. The second chapter “A Slow Walk of Trees: The Moldings of a Literary Prophet” addresses how Morrison’s childhood and her eventual awareness of the role of the writer as a witness bearer affected her writing style. The third chapter discusses two of Morrison’s seminal early works, *The Bluest Eye* and *Song of Solomon*. Through the vehicle of fiction, in *The Bluest Eye*, she imagines the psychological damage and social psychosis of a young black girl; and in *Song of Solomon*, she provides the story of a young black man on a genealogical quest and in search for truth about his family’s past or history, in hopes that he will inevitably develop a keener sense of self.

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Chapter Four: “Unspeakable Things Unspoken: Prophetic Declarations in Toni Morrison’s Historical Trilogy” provides an in-depth, cross-sectional, anachronic analysis of the textual sites within Morrison’s historical trilogy: *Beloved*, *Jazz*, and *Paradise*, to show how Morrison consistently evokes painful historical periods in the Black-American experience and uses them as the basis for forewarning the present generation about repeating the past. The writer in the fifth chapter “Accepting Prophetic Responsibility: Toni Morrison’s Messages and Her Measurement of Success” concludes by establishing how each of Morrison’s novels demonstrates the many ways Morrison exemplifies various aspects of literary prophetic role. The work is relevant to the present research because it shows how Morrison’s literary role allows her to function as a seer, as a foreteller, as a visionary, and as one who holds up an abstract mirror for society to critically view itself.

Daniel (2008)’s paper entitled J.P Clark-Bekederemo-The Weeping Poet and published in *African Study Monographs*, is very instructive because it shows the applicability of J.P. Clark’s poems, written in the 1960s, to the situation of Nigeria at the dawn of the twenty-first century. Clark-Bekederemo’s role, she explains, mirrors that of the biblical Jeremiah who warned his nation, even though his warnings were not heeded. She, however, hopes that going back to his text may awake the conscience of his nation, saving it from self annihilation. However, while Omolara sees the Casualties within the context of the biblical warning, this present research explores the prophetic content and its eventual manifestations.

Senanu and Vincent (1976:117) have made useful comments on the J P Clark’s *The Casualties*, particularly as it relates to the Nigerian Civil war. According to them, the work is a reflection of a national tragedy in which all constitute the tragedy. We found all of them relevant

for this work. However, the investigation of the literary text within contemporaneous and prophetic context remains the major focus of this paper.

### **Theoretical Framework**

This study is based on the literary critical tool of New Historicism. The advocates of this theory, like formalists and their critics, acknowledge the importance of the literary text, but they also analyze the text with an eye of history. In this respect, the new historicism is not "new"; the majority of critics between 1920 and 1950 focused on a work's historical content and based their interpretations on the interplay between the text and historical contexts (such as the author's life or intentions in writing the work). However, the new historicism differs from the historical criticism of the 1930s and 1940s. It is informed by the poststructuralist and reader-response theory of the 1970s, as well as by the thinking of feminist, cultural, and Marxist critics whose work was also "new" in the 1980s. They are less fact- and event-oriented than historical critics used to be. They are less likely to see history as linear and progressive, as something developing toward the present, and they are also less likely to think of it in terms of specific eras.

New historicist critics also tend to define the discipline of history more broadly than did their predecessors. New historicists remind us that it is treacherous to reconstruct the past as it really was—rather than as we have been conditioned by our own place and time to believe that it was. And they know that the job is impossible for those who are unaware of that difficulty, insensitive to the bent or bias of their own historical vantage point. Thus, when new historicist critics describe a historical change, they are highly conscious of (and even likely to discuss) the theory of historical change that informs their account.

The importance of this literary critical tool to this work is that it helps to emphasize the significance of history as a standard of value and a determinant of events. By foregrounding the historicity of the text and relating it to the configurations of power, society and ideology in a given time, the researcher is able to explore, not just the literary and artistic quality of the work, but perhaps more importantly, its prophetic value, as it relates to the civil war period of 6<sup>th</sup> July 1967-15<sup>th</sup> January 1971 and contemporary times

## ANALYSIS OF TEXT

### The Poem

The casualties are not only those who are dead;  
They are well out of it.  
The casualties are not only those who are wounded,  
Though they await burial by installment  
The casualties are not only those who have lost  
Person or property, hard as it is  
To graze for a touch that some  
May not know is not there  
The casualties are not those led away by night;  
The cell is a cruel place, sometimes a heaven,  
No where as absolute as the grave  
The casualties are not those who started  
A fire and now cannot put it out. Thousands  
Are burning that had no say in the matter.  
The casualties are not only those who escaping  
The shattered shell become prisoners in  
A fortress of falling walls.

The casualties are many, and a good number well  
Outside the scene of ravage and wreck;  
They are the emissaries of rift,  
So smug in smoke-room they haunt abroad,  
They do not see the funeral piles  
At home eating up the forests.  
They are wandering minstrels who, beating on  
The drum of human heart, draw the world  
Into a dance with rites it does not know

The drums overwhelm the guns...  
Caught in the clash of counter claims and charges  
When not in the niche others have left,  
We fall.

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All casualties of war,  
 Because we cannot hear other speak,  
 Because eyes have ceased to see the face from the crowd,  
 Because whether we know or  
 Do not know the extent of wrong on all sides,  
 We are characters now other than before  
 The war began, the stay- at- home unsettled  
 By taxes and rumor, the looter for office  
 And wares, fearful everyday the owners may return,  
 We are all casualties,  
 All sagging as are  
 The case celebrated for kwashiorkor,

Some lines of the poem are very strategic to the appreciation of this work of art. They include the following: Line 1: *Casualties*: This refers to a number of people killed or wounded in an accident or a war. Line 4: *Though they await burial by installment*. This refers to people fatally wounded in battle who are given treatment in a determined attempt to save lives. Line 17: *A fortress of falling walls*. This is a place that is strongly protected by fortification. In artistic phraseology, any place that provides or seems to ensure safety is referred to as a fortress. Line 20: *Emissaries of rift*. These are indicative of the messengers of dissension and division. One of the public relations acts of the two sides engaged in the civil war was to send delegations overseas and other African countries to canvass for military and diplomatic support. Line 24: *Wandering minstrel*: Literally, this means a singer who performs from place to place. The poet, in this context, is referring to the writers who were sent out by both sides to plead the cause of their various governments. Line 27: *The drums overwhelm the guns...* The word “overwhelm” is crucial here. It is a continuation of the image of the drum. The poet seems to be saying that the emotional appeals made by both sides trying to win support abroad have become so clamorous that the physical war going on at home seems less important.

## **The Poem in Historical Context**

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*The Casualties* is a post-mortem of the Nigeria civil war. The operational subject is that we are all casualties of the war and not only those who died while fighting the war. It is the position of the poet that all categories of Nigerians were originators, facilitators and victims of the national tragedy. The creative writer expresses his disgust and disappointment in a rather subtle and subdued tone, thereby heightening the poetic quality of a work referred to by some scholars as predominantly prosaic. The poet creatively begins by eliminating the obvious cases from the list of the casualties, and goes ahead to categorically state those he believes to be victims, taking time to digress on the propagandist role played by agents of both sides using the telling image of people beating on “the drums of the human hearts”. He goes ahead to give reasons why the casualty rate is all-inclusive. The last line of the poem seems to expand the bounds of the poem and make accomplice of non-Nigerians. This is an obvious reference to the global dimensions of the war.

### **Contextualizing *The Casualties* in Contemporary Nigerian Realities.**

This section of the paper shows in graphic terms, not just the contemporary nature of a poem that is more than four decades of existence, but perhaps more importantly, the prophetic nature of the creative work. It establishes the fact that the literary person, in this case the poet, beyond being a language expert, is substantially a seer, who can project into the future and pontificate accurately. To a very large extent, some of the issues raised by the contending forces of the Nigerian civil war episode are still finding expression in the socio-political structure of the country today. A close x-ray of the national terrain in the last five years (2007-2012) would validate this submission.

Jijji (2012) notes that in 1970 when John Pepper Clark - Bekederemo, the Ijaw- born poet wrote the poem, *Casualties*, it was to the many casualties of the Nigerian civil war, adding that a dispassionate watch of the April 2007 elections explains how true the poet was!. According to him, the casualties of these elections were so many and widespread that the families of the policemen and civilians killed in the run-off to, during and after the elections, merit special condolences. It is certainly not out of place to add here that the Nigerian nation and its quest for democratic rule were also casualties. While most Nigerians thought they were making progress in their democratic development, the 2007 April elections were a rude awakening to a somewhat collective delusion

Similarly, within the context of J.P. Clark's *Casualties*, and current tides, it is possible to agree with Dickson (2011) that there is no clear blueprint for addressing the developmental and poverty issues such as security, education, water, agriculture, health-care, desertification, Niger river dredging, jobs, housing, etc in the Northern and Southern Nigeria. While lives are cut short, there is still no form or developed system of injecting some accountability mechanism / process that will make all States and Local Governments answerable on budgetary implementation and on stemming out excessive corruption and abuses. People have continued to do the same thing over and over again and yet still expecting different results. That's absolutely irreconcilable.

It is possible, like some researchers and analysts like Dickson have also done, to agree that a number of Nigerians voted for President Jonathan, but then, it must also be acknowledged that there is a geopolitical map of Nigeria that establishes that the citizens are strange bedfellows, and not by any fault of theirs but essentially, by a substantially selfish political class. It may

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have been a miracle for a General Buhari to have won the 2011 general elections for many reasons. While some voted for Jonathan on purely ethnic grounds, others promoted his interest on religious grounds. Those who believed that Goodluck Jonathan keeps making good out of other people's misfortune voted for him on superstitious grounds, while an appreciable number of Nigerians voted for him on sympathy grounds. Unfortunately, only very few voted for him on the grounds of his record or performance chart as Deputy Governor, and Governor of Bayelsa State, Vice President, Acting President, and eventually, President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

It has been noted, and rightly too, that the Niger Delta, the poet's home, poses an increasingly troubling problem to the current leadership of Nigeria. The importance of wise and delicate handling of the affairs of the delta to the continued existence of Nigeria is not in doubt. However, it is a historical fact that the peace of the region has been shattered on several occasions. Nevertheless, it is not out of place to hope that the Nigerian nation can be rescued from a series of governmental challenges. To say that tensions have not really ebbed in the Niger Delta region over the years, is to state the obvious. (cf. Daniel, 2008, Mba, 2003; Osakwe, 2005).

It is important to state that the Nigeria of 2012/2013 is in a state of 'war', technically speaking. The war we are confronted with currently is compartmentalized, sectionalized, and departmentalised. There is war in the oil sector, chaos in the creeks, and visible turbulence in the north. The minority groups are crying of marginalization and exploitation and several questions are begging for answers. Posers like: How long shall we continue to live as strange bedfellows in the name of national unity? Are the minorities truly having their say, let alone their way? Who

are actually in control of the country's resources? Where lies the future of the Nigeria in this near state of anarchy?

It is quite clear that those who boasted of making Nigeria ungovernable if the 2011 national elections didn't go as they anticipated are now overwhelmed by the unprecedented political crises presently plaguing Nigeria. Those political gladiators obviously got more than their outburst. They are the contemporary war mongers who, like J P Clark puts it, started the fire they could not extinguish. Those selfish politicians precipitated the violence and then go into hiding. The bold ones among them are now playing the sage instead of leaving the stage.

Today, people are caught up in frenzied drama of hatred. The people of Jos are no longer just. Citizens who once lived together in peace and love have suddenly become bitter and malicious enemies. We are all casualties of the war. For some sections of the country, the night is no longer a time of rest and peace. It has become a season of mass massacre. Statistics of the activities of the Boko Haram in the last two years show that the political arrangement in Nigeria is a very fragile one.

The phenomenon of Boko Haram is becoming, not just a threat to the continued existence of the Nigerian state, but indeed, a time bomb. This semi-mythical group has succeeded, not only in painting the country black in international affairs, but also in making the entire nation a shadow of her former self. In a situation where a religious sect, an ethnic group, or even a political clan, is holding the entire nation to ransom, in a country where those who produce the resources do not have access to them, in a context where families now live in fear, not knowing what might happen next, we have all suddenly become casualties of a kind of war.

## Findings

1. Some of the factors that led to the Nigerian civil war of 1966 are still prevalent in the contemporary Nigerian State.
2. Some of the issues bordering on minorities and ethno-religious militia are yet to be addressed till now
3. Nigeria is a complex state with a lot of complicated challenges.
4. There is a lot of discontent in the Nigerian State.
5. Boko Haram, which has been tagged a terrorist group of some sort, has a strong political undertone.
6. The poem published over 40 years ago is as relevant today as it was when it was originally written.

## Conclusion and Recommendation

The *Casualties* is not just a poem but indeed a prophetic statement of national interest. While it is true that Nigeria is not currently in a full-blown conventional civil war, the indices are glaring. In other words, the poem is not just a sad reminder of the past; it is a pointer to a possible future. There is therefore, the need for all stakeholders to have a roundtable conference to discuss the future of the Nigerian state and the critical place of the minorities. We cannot shy away from the contending issues and expect peace to reign. This is perhaps the only way to avert a recurrence of the bloody Nigerian civil war.

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# Technology and Teachers

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## Language Education and Second Language Acquisition

The field of education has changed much in the last few decades. Traditional ways of education are giving way to newer, more innovative ways of thinking about how we learn, teach and acquire knowledge.

Language education, the teaching and learning of a language, which includes improving a learner's mastery of her or his native language, is more commonly used with regard to second language acquisition, which means the learning of a foreign or second language. Learning a second language has become very important today as we are in a world where globalization and cultural diversity are becoming part of our daily lives. People need to learn a second language as they need common languages in business, tourism, technology, media, science and other fields. Whereas in countries like Japan and China, teaching of one foreign language at primary and secondary level has been made essential, the countries like Malaysia and Philippines, Singapore and India, have made English a second official language.

## Impact of Software Development

The upcoming of software industry has changed style and movements of life. The field of teaching is also getting so much affected by technology that debates have started on replacing classroom teaching to online instruction. Technology serves as a storehouse of contents that a learner can access from anywhere and at anytime.

With the coming of technology, Language education has also been changing at a very high rate. Technology is opening up many new possibilities for language learning, and the internet has come with enormous potential. We see many technological tools for language learning today. The types of technology include social networking tools (where one has screen capture, audacity,

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slide share, social bookmarking, polling, blogs and discussion groups); applications and games for learning; and other activities that use technology.

## **Chatterbot**

One area the internet has opened up lately is the use of chatterbots for language practice. A ‘chatterbot’ is a computer program designed to simulate an intelligent conversation with one or more human users via auditory or textual methods. As far as the teaching/learning of a foreign language in schools and colleges is concerned, so far language labs are considered most useful. Modern day language labs or language learning centers empower teachers to organize activities where the students are able to practice all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in an interactive, personalized fashion.

## **Language Learning and Language Lab**

Language Learning is an interactive process. To learn a language, all the four skills - listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) are equally important. Among these four, Listening and Speaking skills are paramount. It is an open fact that in Indian context, Listening and Speaking are grossly neglected. Modern language labs with their powerful multimedia and interactivity capabilities help a lot in enhancing Listening and Speaking skills. They also provide an ideal way for teachers to connect with their technology-savvy, new-generation students.

The language laboratory is an audio or audio-visual installation used as an aid in modern language teaching. Different teachers will describe a language lab in different ways depending upon their own individual experiences. Most would probably think about a dedicated room with desktop computers at each student station, with some type of control console at the teacher’s desk. Those without a dedicated room might describe a portable system with laptops that can be wheeled to room, often referred to as a COW (computers on wheels). Teachers with younger students might envision a system where students don’t even have individual computers. The teacher simply plays audio-visual materials on a single station connected to a projector or large screen TV. In universities and colleges, there might not even be a room at all. Perhaps students

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work on a self-study basis and communicate with their instructor via e-mail, or perhaps students do work synchronously with their instructor but using a virtual classroom, where everyone connects from home or dorm rooms via the Internet. But no matter what the physical format of the lab, the common bond that separates the *lab* from the *classroom* is that students are equipped for hands-on practice of their language skills. What does *hands-on practice* mean for language learning? In a language lab, students do not play a passive role.

### **A Digital Language Lab**

A digital language lab is a network of computers plus appropriate software. It provides most of the functions of a conventional (tape based) language lab along with integration of video, word-processing and other computer applications. A Digital Language Lab incorporates the following basic objectives – Listen, Speak / Respond, Read, Write / Type, Recording and Evaluating. A digital language lab provides:

- ⊙ **Versatility**- Text, Images, Audio, and Video can easily be integrated and the teacher can remodel and alter materials.
- ⊙ **Interactivity**- Students can record their own voice and play back the recordings, interact with each other and the Teacher, and store results.
- ⊙ **Teacher Intervention**- The teacher has control of students' computers via Teacher's Console, track student work etc.
- ⊙ **Independent Learning** - Access to resources beyond the timetable encourages independent learning.

### **Use of the Digital Language Lab for 'Listening' Skill**

- ⊙ Learners listen in order to pinpoint the main idea, a segment or listen for specific facts.
- ⊙ The use of headphones gives a sense of isolation, equal clarity of sound and facilities complete concentration.
- ⊙ Authentic, consistent, untiring models of speech for imitation and drill are provided in a Language Lab. Listen-repeat-record pattern is followed.
- ⊙ Students listen to a variety of Native Speakers.
- ⊙ Structured Listening Tests are administered.

## **Use of the Digital Language Lab for ‘Speaking’ Skill**

- ⦿ Dialogues are effectively used in pairs.
- ⦿ Videos play an important role; they can be controlled.
- ⦿ Allows learners to see lip movements, facial expressions and body language.
- ⦿ Also observe stress, intonation and rhythm of target language.
- ⦿ Reducing Mother Tongue Influence (MTI) through voice recording.

## **Fundamental Role of a Language Laboratory**

Practice is essential to understanding and speaking a foreign language. It is very difficult for a live teacher to repeatedly provide the consistently authentic model and carefully sequenced progression of drills. To provide this hands-on practice with the subject materials is the fundamental role of the language laboratory.

The students can improve the basics of grammar and vocabulary by running repeat-after-me drills, but more importantly, students can improve their communication skills by being exposed authentic communication scenarios. This helps them to know how the language skills can be used in a practical fashion.

## **Portable Language Lab Systems**

There are several different types of systems that fall under the heading of portable language labs.

### **➤ *COWs (Computers On Wheels):***

Typically, a COW is a large lockable box on wheels capable of holding a teacher workstation and console, plus having up to 30 shelves for storing student laptop computers and student headsets.

There are a couple of potential issues with COWs, the first being that it takes a finite amount of time to hand-out and collect the laptops at the beginning and end of class, so there is some lost productivity. Also, students and teachers must be diligent about plugging in laptop power supplies, or one will discover the occasional dead laptop at the beginning of class.

There is also a technical limitation, and this has to do with interconnecting the stations via a wireless network rather than a wired network. Wireless networks – even those compliant with the latest “wireless-n” standards support considerably less bandwidth (as much as 80 times less bandwidth) as their wired counterparts. From a language lab perspective, this severely limits the number of students that can participate in an activity at any given time.

In some cases, the expectation is that students will carry their own laptops, but even when all students are required to purchase a standardized laptop, this increases the potential problems for the school IT department to manage software revisions and avoid conflicts with 3rd party software.

➤ ***LLIAB (Language-Lab-in-a-Box):***

The language-lab-in-a-box differs from the COW in that students are not normally equipped with individual computers. Instead, student terminals comprise a small box that serves as a connection point for their headset and in some cases includes some interactive controls.

LLIAB systems are supplied in both wired and wireless variations. The wired versions include greater functionality, but the student terminals are tethered to the teacher’s console with cables that are typically stored on large spools in the box. The wireless systems offer greater freedom, but are usually quite limited in functionality – often even lacking a basic recording capability. Several manufacturers provide language-learning systems that are sometimes characterized as a *language-lab-in-a-box*. These systems can be literally packed into a large box with casters, and wheeled from room to room.

In some cases, wireless communication technologies are used to simplify the set-up of portable systems in any available room.

### **Multi-Discipline Labs**

Multi-discipline labs are most often implemented as general computer labs, capable of being used to facilitate hands-on activities in several different subject areas. The same lab might be used for Math at 08:00 a.m., for French at 09:00 a.m., and for Computer Science at 10:00 a.m. In some cases, the headsets and interfaces that students require for language activities are mounted in motorized trays that can be raised to the ceiling when non-language classes are in session, or lowered to desk height for language classes.

### **Virtual Language Labs**

For older students in universities, colleges, and even senior high schools, it is not always practical to conduct language lab activities in a fixed room at a fixed time. Instead, educators are often adopting a *virtual* language lab model, in which teachers post assignments for their students on a central *file server*, and students access these assignments from a computer in a self-study lab, a library, or even from home, on an anytime/anywhere basis. Completed assignments are again saved to the file server, and teachers are able to review student work at their convenience.

### **What about Teachers?**

Language Labs have of course come up as substantial aid in language teaching. Listening to all types of English with its respecting style, pronunciation, and diction is not at all possible in traditional classroom setup. Teachers cannot do that multiple task inside the classroom due to various restrictions like time constraint, burden of syllabus. But, it has not replaced the teachers for various reasons like cost, efficiency, and practicability. The firms that establish language labs themselves believe in manual training to their staff rather than training solely through

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technology.

With all the positive features, technology cannot surpass the teachers in providing sensible learning because teaching and learning is connected with human emotions where technology has no role to play. For example, teaching grammar and vocabulary is impossible without using the mother tongue of the students. For creating better understanding, the teacher has to be bilingual since the classroom includes students of different levels of intelligences. The teacher perceives the difficulty of the students through their face reaction and immediately translates the concept into their mother tongue. The students respond to this greatly and become more attentive. However powerful it is, multimedia cannot do this. It is so because for an instrument, all the learners are alike. It cannot bother about the physical or psychological reactions of the learners. The students are exposed to the native speakers of English language but the fact remains that students in India, especially in small towns, do not find themselves comfortable with the native accent of English speakers. Also, in India, there is no uniformity of using English pronunciation. English used in each state varies due to the influence of its mother tongue. In such cases, using native speakers' accent in India or in our native town will appear to be flamboyant. Language is after all a medium of communication and it's not appropriate to imitate and use others style of speaking in the society that is not familiar to such utterances. Only a teacher can guide his students how much to take from the technology.

### **Other Problems**

Then there is the problem of 'monotony' which automatically comes in multimedia lessons as compared to regular class rooms. In a classroom the teacher functions as a facilitator in providing all sort of information by collaborating the concept with current affairs, history, literature, science, psychology, medicine, geography, politics, philosophy, etc. which builds the aptitude of the students in all fields. Moreover, only a teacher can bring live and realistic learning experiences because he can adapt with the requirements of a situation for having the students' attention towards him. According to the need, he can come up with a story, a riddle, a joke, a comment along with regular lessons which definitely brings interest among the students.

And even though the latest chatterbots seem to have their uses, there is as yet no chatterbot designed from the bottom up to meet the needs of foreign language learners. There are a number of directions such chatterbot designs could and almost certainly will take in the years to come.

Manufacturing technologies or establishing Language Labs as per the need is justifiable today but these cannot and never be the substitute for teachers. Teaching involves conversing with the minds. Technology alone can never bring creative and realistic learning environment. Modern and advanced technological tools are just aids for teaching creatively and realistically but the complete innovative component are the teachers themselves. There will always be some students who are able to work individually and master any subject – including the learning of a foreign language. That being said, most students will benefit immeasurably when they have someone to help guide them through the learning process.

Just like nature remains undefeated in spite of the evolution of artificial intelligences because of its longevity, stability and power, all the technology including the modern digital language labs, with its powerful interactive, multimedia capabilities, has not been designed to replace teachers, but rather to provide teachers with a powerful set of tools for orchestrating progressive language learning activities with their students.

## **The Future**

All the advanced technology is and always will be just a teaching aid. It surely can never be a substitute for the teacher. The future of it entirely depends on the teacher because the more effective is the teacher, the more effective will be the technology.

*“Soft skills like language learning can be practiced to a certain extent using technology delivery, but final mastery cannot be assured without some instructor interaction.”* (Effectiveness of Learning Technologies, Tom Carey, Carole Farber, & Lynn Davie; OISE, et al.)

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## **Works Consulted**

1. [http://www.robotel.com/en/documents/Whitepaper\\_LanguageLabsDemystified\\_2011-01-13.pdf](http://www.robotel.com/en/documents/Whitepaper_LanguageLabsDemystified_2011-01-13.pdf)

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# The Arabic Origins of "Animal Terms" in English, German, and French: A Lexical Root Theory Approach

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## Abstract

This paper examines the Arabic cognates and/or origins of *animal* terms in English, German, French, Latin, and Greek from a lexical root theory perspective. The data consists of about 200 *animal* terms such as *cow*, *sheep*, *horse*, *lion*, *swine*, *bird*, *duck*, *snake*, and so on. The results show that all such words are true cognates in Arabic and such languages, with the same or similar forms and meanings. The different forms amongst such words are shown to be due to natural and plausible causes of phonetic, morphological and semantic change. For example, English *sheep* comes from Arabic *kabsh* 'male sheep' where /k & sh/ merged into /sh/. Similarly, Latin *bov*, Greek *bous*, French *beef*, English *cow* (*bull*, *bullock*), German *Kuh*, Lithuania *karve*, and Church Old Slavonic *krava* derive from Arabic *baqara(t)* 'cow' via different routes, including reordering, shortening, and turning /q/ into /k & s/ (or merging it with /b/ into /v & w/), and /r/ into /l or Ø/. This implies that Arabic, English and so on belong not only to the same family but also to the same language, contrary to traditional Comparative Method claims. Due to their phonetic complexity, huge lexical variety and multiplicity (e.g., 500+ *lion* words), Arabic words are the original source from which they emanated. This proves the adequacy of the lexical root theory according to which Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and

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Greek are dialects of the same language with the first being the origin.

**Keywords:** Animal terms, Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek, historical linguistics, lexical root theory

## 1. Introduction

The genetic relationship between Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit has been firmly established in a good number of papers (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-f), which cover the three main areas of language study: phonetics/phonology, morphology/grammar, and semantics/lexis. At the lexical level, the first study was Jassem (2012a: 225-41), which showed that numeral words from *one* to *trillion* in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit share the same or similar forms and meanings in general, forming true cognates with Arabic as their end origin. For example, *three* (*third*, *thirty*, *trio*, *tri*, *tertiary*, *trinity*, *Trinitarian*) derives from a 'reduced' Arabic *thalaath* (*talaat* in Damascus Arabic (Jassem 1993, 1994a-b)) 'three' through the change of /th & l/ to /t & r/ each. This led to the rejection of the claims of the comparative 'historical linguistics' method which classifies Arabic, on the one hand, and English, German, French, and so on, on the other, as members of different language families (Bergs and Brinton 2012; Algeo 2010; Crystal 2010: 302; Campbell 2006: 190-191; Crowley 1997: 22-25, 110-111; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 61-94). Therefore, he proposed the lexical root theory to account for the genetic relationships between Arabic and English, in particular, and all (Indo-)European languages in general for three main reasons: namely, (a) geographical continuity and/or proximity between their homelands, (b) persistent cultural interaction and similarity between their peoples over the ages, and, above all, (c) linguistic

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similarity between Arabic and such languages (see Jassem 2013b for further detail).

All subsequent studies gave a decisive and clear-cut linguistic evidence. Jassem (2012b: 59-71) traced the Arabic origins of common contextualized biblical or religious terms such as *Hallelujah*, *Christianity*, *Judaism*, *worship*, *bead*, and so on. For instance, *hallelujah* resulted from a reversal and reduction of the Arabic phrase *la ilaha illa Allah* '(There's) no god but Allah (God)'. That is, *Halle* is *Allah* in reverse, *lu* and *la* 'not' (pronounced *lo* also) are the same, *jah* is a shortening of both *ilaaha* 'god' and *illa* 'except' which sound almost the same. Jassem (2013d: 126-51) described the Arabic cognates and origins of English, German, and French *water* and *sea* terms like *water*, *hydro*, *aqua*, *sea*, *ocean*, *ship*, *navy*, *fish*, all of which derive from Arabic sources. Jassem (2013e: 631-51) traced back the Arabic origins of *air* and *fire* terms in English and such languages. Finally, Jassem (2013f) traced back the Arabic origins of *celestial* (e.g., sky, star, sun) and *terrestrial* (e.g., earth, mountain, hill) terms in English and such languages.

At the morphological level, three papers have appeared. Jassem (2012f) showed that inflectional 'plural and gender' markers as in *oxen*, *girls*, *Paula*, *Charlotte* formed true cognates in all. Similarly, Jassem (2013a: 48-72) demonstrated the Arabic origins of English, German, and French derivational morphemes as in *activity*, *activate*, *determine*, *whiten*, whose identical Arabic cognates are *ta* (e.g., *salaamat(i)* 'safety', *takallam* 'talk') and *an* (e.g., *wardan* 'bloom'). Finally, Jassem (2013b: 234-48) dealt with the Arabic origins of negative particles and words like *in-/no*, *-less*, and *-mal* in English, French and so on.

At the grammatical level, three papers have been conducted so far. Jassem (2012c: 83-103) found that personal pronouns in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin and Greek form true cognates, which descend from Arabic directly. For example, *you*

(*ge* in Old English; *Sie* in German) all come from Arabic *iaka* 'you' where /k/ changed to /g (& s)/ and then to /y/; Old English *thine* derives from Arabic *anta* 'you' via reversal and the change of /t/ to /th/ whereas *thou* and *thee*, French *tu*, and German *du* come from the affixed form of the same Arabic pronoun *-ta* 'you'. Jassem (2012d: 323-59) examined determiners such as *the*, *this*, *a/an*, *both*, *some*, *all* in English, German, French, and Latin which were all found to have identical Arabic cognates. For instance, *the/this* derive from Arabic *tha/thih* 'this' where /h/ became /s/. Jassem (2012e: 185-96) established the Arabic origins of verb *to be* forms in all such languages. For example, *is/was* (Old English *wesan* 'be'; German *sein*; French *etre*, *es*, *suis*) descend from Arabic *kawana* (*kaana*) 'be' where /k/ became /s/.

At the phonological level, Jassem (2013c) outlined the English, German, French, Latin, and Greek cognates of Arabic back consonants: i.e., the glottals, pharyngeals, uvulars, and velars. For example, *church* (*kirk*, *ecclesiastical*) all come from Arabic *kanees(at)* where /k & n/ became /ch & r (l)/ each. In all papers, the phonetic analysis is central, of course.

In all the above studies, the lexical root theory was used as a theoretical framework, which is so called because of employing the lexical (consonantal) root in examining genetic relationships between words like the derivation of *overwritten* from *write* (or simply *wrt*). The main reason for that is because the consonantal root carries and determines the basic meaning of the word regardless of its affixation such as *overwrite*, *writing*. Historically speaking, classical Arabic dictionaries (e.g., Ibn Manzoor 1974, 2013) used consonantal roots in listing lexical entries, a practice first founded by Alkhaleel (Jassem 2012e).

The lexical root theory is structurally simple, which comprises a theoretical construct, hypothesis or principle and five practical procedures of analysis. The principle states that Arabic

and English as well as the so-called Indo-European languages are not only genetically related to but also are directly descended from one language, which may be Arabic in the end. In fact, it claims in its strongest version that they are all dialects of the same language, whose differences are due to natural and plausible causes of linguistic change. The applied procedures of analysis are (i) methodological, (ii) lexicological, (iii) linguistic, (iv) relational, and (v) comparative/historical. As all have been reasonably described in the above studies (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-f), a brief summary will suffice here.

At the outset, the methodological procedure concerns data collection, selection, and statistical analysis. Apart from loan words, all language words, affixes, and phonemes are amenable to investigation, and not only the core vocabulary as is the common practice in the field (Crystal 2010; Pyles and Algeo 1993: 76-77; Crowley 1997: 88-90, 175-178). However, data selection is practically inevitable for which the most appropriate way would be to use semantic fields such as the present and the above topics. Cumulative evidence from such findings will aid in formulating rules and laws of language change at a later stage (cf. Jassem 2012f, 2013a-f). The statistical analysis employs the percentage formula (see 2.2 below).

Secondly, the lexicological procedure is the initial step in the analysis. Words are analyzed by (i) deleting affixes (e.g., *overwritten* → *write*), (ii) using primarily consonantal roots (e.g., *write* → *wrt*), and (iii) search for correspondence in meaning on the basis of word etymologies and origins as a guide (e.g., Harper 2012), to be used with discretion, though.

Thirdly, the linguistic procedure handles the analysis of the phonetic, morphological, grammatical and semantic structures and differences between words. The phonetic analysis examines sound changes within and across categories. In particular, consonants may change their place and manner of articulation as

well as voicing. At the level of place, bilabial consonants ↔ labio-dental ↔ dental ↔ alveolar ↔ palatal ↔ velar ↔ uvular ↔ pharyngeal ↔ glottal (where ↔ signals change in both directions); at the level of manner, stops ↔ fricatives ↔ affricates ↔ nasals ↔ laterals ↔ approximants; and at the level of voice, voiced consonants ↔ voiceless. Similarly, vowels may change as well. The three basic long Arabic vowels /a: (aa), i: (ee), & u: (oo)/ (and their short versions besides the two diphthongs /ai (ay)/ and /au (aw)/ which are a kind of /i:/ and /u:/ respectively), may change according to (i) tongue part (e.g., front ↔ centre ↔ back), (ii) tongue height (e.g., high ↔ mid ↔ low), (iii) length (e.g., long ↔ short), and (iv) lip shape (e.g., round ↔ unround). These have additional allophones or variants which do not change meaning (see Jassem 2013). Although English has a larger number of about 20 vowels, which vary from accent to accent (Roach 2009; Celce-Murcia et al 2010), they can still be treated within this framework. Furthermore, vowels are marginal in significance which may be totally ignored because the limited nature of the changes do not affect the final semantic result at all. In fact, the functions of vowels are phonetic like linking consonants to each other in speech and grammatical such as indicating tense, word class, and number (e.g., *sing, sang, sung, song; man/men*).

Sound changes result in processes like assimilation, dissimilation, deletion, merger, insertion, split, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. In addition, sound change may operate in a multi-directional, cyclic, and lexically-diffuse or irregular manner (see 4. below). The criterion in all the changes is naturalness and plausibility; for example, the change from /k/ (e.g., *kirk, ecclesiastic*), a voiceless velar stop, to /ch/ (e.g., *church*), a voiceless palatal affricate, is more natural than that to /s/, a voiceless alveolar fricative, as the

first two are closer by place and manner (Jassem 2012b); the last is plausible, though (Jassem 2013c).

Some overlap exists between the morphological and grammatical analyses. The former examines the inflectional and derivational aspects of words in general (Jassem 2012f, 2013a-b); the latter handles grammatical classes, categories, and functions like pronouns, nouns, verbs, and case (Jassem 2012c-d). Since their influence on the basic meaning of the lexical root is marginal, they may be ignored altogether.

As for the semantic analysis, it looks at meaning relationships between words, including lexical stability, multiplicity, convergence, divergence, shift, split, change, and variability. Stability means that word meanings have remained constant. Multiplicity denotes that words might have two or more meanings. Convergence means two or more formally and semantically similar Arabic words might have yielded the same cognate in English. Divergence signals that words became opposites or antonyms of one another. Shift indicates that words switched their sense within the same field. Lexical split means a word led to two different cognates. Change means a new meaning developed. Variability signals the presence of two or more variants for the same word.

Fourthly, the relational procedure accounts for the relationship between form and meaning from three perspectives: formal and semantic similarity (e.g., *three*, *third*, *tertiary* and Arabic *thalath* 'three' (Damascus Arabic *talaat* (see Jassem 2012a)), formal similarity and semantic difference (e.g., *ship* and *sheep* (see Jassem 2012b), and formal difference and semantic similarity (e.g., *quarter*, *quadrant*, *cadre* and Arabic *qeeraaT* '1/4' (Jassem 2012a)).

Finally, the comparative historical analysis compares every word in English in particular and German, French, Greek, and Latin in general with its Arabic counterpart phonetically,

morphologically, and semantically on the basis of its history and development in English (e.g., Harper 2012; Pyles and Algeo 1993) and Arabic (e.g., Ibn Manzour 2013; Altha3aalibi 2011; Ibn Seedah 1996) besides the author's knowledge of both Arabic as a first language and English as a second language.

In this paper, the lexical root theory will be used as a theoretical framework for the investigation of the Arabic genetic origins and descent of *animal* terms in English, German, French, Latin, and Greek. It has five sections: an introduction, research methods, results, a discussion, and a conclusion.

## 2. Research Methods

### 2.1 The Data

The data consists of 200 *animal* words or so, selected on the basis of the author's knowledge of their frequency and use and English thesauri. Animal terms relate to *cattle* (cow, sheep, goat), *chivalry* (horse), *canines* (dog, lion), *fish* (eel), *avians* (duck, bird), *rodents* (rat, mouse), *reptiles* (snake, turtle), and *insects* (bee). They have been arranged alphabetically within each section for quick reference together with brief linguistic notes in (3.) below. All etymological references to English below are for Harper (2012) and to Arabic for Altha3aalibi (2011: 179-204, 237-250), Ibn Seedah (1996 (6 & 8), Ibn Khaalawaih (2013), and Ibn Manzoor (2013).

The data is transcribed by using normal spelling. For exotic Arabic sounds, however, certain symbols were used- viz., /2 & 3/ for the voiceless and voiced pharyngeal fricatives respectively, capital letters for the emphatic counterparts of plain consonants /t, d, th, & s/, /kh & gh/ for the voiceless and voiced velar fricatives each, and /' for the glottal stop (Jassem 2013c).

### 2.2 Data Analysis

The data will be analyzed theoretically and statistically. The above-surveyed lexical root theory is used as the theoretical framework. The statistical analysis employs the percentage formula, obtained by dividing the number of cognates over the total number of investigated words multiplied by a 100. For example, suppose the total number of investigated words is 100, of which 95 are true cognates. Calculating the percentage of cognates is obtained thus:  $95/100 = 0.95 \times 100 = 95\%$ . Finally, the results are checked against Cowley's (1997: 173, 182) formula to determine whether such words belong to the same language or to languages of the same family (for a survey, see Jassem 2012a-b).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Cattle Terms (for Cows, Sheep, and Goats)

**Animal** (*anima, animate, animation, inanimate*) via Latin *anima/animus* 'breath, soul, a current of air' and Greek *anemos* 'wind' from Arabic *naseem, nasma(t)* 'air, person' where /s/ merged into /n or m/, or *ni3am, an3aam* (pl.) 'animals' via reordering, /3/-loss and /l/-insertion. (Cf. **Man** (*human, humanity*) from Arabic *nama, 'anaam* (pl.) 'child, humans, men' via reversal and turning /' into /h/ in *human* or from *insaam* 'human' where /' became /h/ while /s & n/ merged into /m/; **mean** from Arabic *maheen* 'despised' via /h/-deletion or *ma3na* 'meaning' via /3/-loss; **mine** (**undermine**) from *manjam* where /j/ became /y/, *ma3een* 'resource, container, endless', *manee3* 'strong' via /3/-loss, or *ana* 'me, I' via /m/-split from /n/ (Jassem 2012d)).

**Beef** (*bovine, buffalo*) from Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' via shortening and turning /q/ into /f (v)/ while /r/ into /n/ in *bovine* and /l/ in *buffalo*.

**Bellow** from Arabic *bala3* 'swallow' via /ʒ/-deletion and lexical shift or *baa3* 'sound of sheep' via /l/-insertion and the change of /ʒ/ to /w/.

**Buffalo** (*beef*) from Arabic *baqar(at)* where /q & r/ turned into /f & l/ each.

**Bull** (*bullock*) from a reduced Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' (*ba'ar(at)*) in Damascus Arabic (Jassem 1993, 1994) via /q/-deletion and turning /r/ into /l/, *ibl* 'camels' via reordering and semantic shift, or *ba3l* 'husband' via /ʒ/-deletion.

**Bullock** (*bull*) from Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' via reordering and turning /q & r/ into /k & l/ each.

**Butter** from Arabic *zubda(t)* 'butter' via reordering, merging /z & d/ into /t/, and /r/-insertion.

**Calf** from Arabic *khilfa(t)*, *khilf* 'a female camel' via lexical shift and turning /kh/ into /k/ or *khaarooḥ* 'lamb, sheep, calf' via lexical shift and turning /kh & r/ into /k & l/ each.

**Cattle** from Arabic *shiliat* or *thallat* 'group of animals' through reordering and changing /sh & th/ to /k/, *qaṭee3*, *quṭ3aan* (pl.) 'cattle' via /ʒ/-loss and turning /q, T, & n/ into /k, t, & l/ in that order.

**Cheese** from Arabic *qishda(t)*, *qasheed* 'top coagulated milk surface' through lexical shift, merging /q & sh/ into /sh/, and turning /d/ into /s/.

**Churn** from Arabic *shanna*, *shaneen* 'shake yogurt to separate butter from it; churn' where /n/ became /r/.

**Cow** (Greek *bous*, Latin *bov*, French *beef*, Lithuanian *karve*, Church Old Slavonic *krava*, German *Kuh*) from Arabic *baqara* 'cow' through reordering and the evolution of /q & b/ into /k & v/ in Lithuanian, /s & k/ in Greek and English, /v & w/ in Latin and English, besides /r/-loss in English (cf. *3ijl*, *3ujool* (pl.) 'bull' in which /ʒ/ was deleted or merged with /j/ into /k/ whereas /l/ became /w/, and *khuwaa'*, *khuwaar* 'sound of cows' where /kh/ became /k/ (cf. *coward*,

*cowardice, cower* from Arabic *khawwaar, khuwaar* 'coward, cowardice' in which /kh/ became /k/ whereas /d/ split from /r/; **cow** 'intimidate' from Arabic *khawf* 'fear' where /kh/ became /k/ while /w & f/ merged into /w/ or *khuwaar* 'fear' via /r/-loss).

**Cream** from Arabic *karma(t)* 'best part of milk'.

**Dairy** from Arabic *darr* 'milk'.

**Ejaculate** (*ejaculation*) from Arabic *shakhkha(t), shikhaakh* (n) 'urinate' where /sh & kh/ changed to /j & k/ besides /l/-insertion or *shakhal* 'of water, to drip from a sieve or cloth' where /sh & kh/ changed to /j & k/ each.

**Emulsifier** (*emulsification, milk*) from Arabic *maSl* 'cheese and yogurt liquid' via reordering and changing /S/ to /s/ (see **milk** below).

**Ewe** (*ovine*) via Latin *ovis* and Greek *ois* 'sheep' from Arabic *shaa(t/h), shiyaah* (pl.) 'sheep' via reversal and the merger of /sh & h/ into /w/ (cf. **way** from Arabic *wajh* 'face, way' where /j & h/ merged into /y/ (Jassem 2013c)).

**Fibre** (*fibrous*) from Arabic *zabr* 'fine wool, hair, feather' or *wabr* 'fine wool' where /z & w/ changed to /f/.

**Foul** from Arabic *ba3r* 'foul' where /b, 3, & r/ became /f, Ø, & l/ in that order or *bawl* 'urine' where /b/ changed to /f/ .

**Fur** from Arabic *farw(at)* 'fur, wool'.

**Gazelle** from Arabic loan *ghazaal* 'deer' in which /gh/ became /g/.

**Giraffe** from Arabic loan *zaraafa(t)* 'giraffe' in which /z/ became /j/.

**Goat** (*kid, tragedy*) from Arabic *jadee* 'baby male goat' in which /j & d/ passed into /g & t/ respectively.

**Hair** from Arabic *sha3r* 'hair' via /sh & 3/-merger into /h/.

**Herd(sman)** from Arabic *3arra(t)/3eer* 'herd' in which /3 & t/ became /h & d/ each or from *raa3i(at)* 'shepherd, grazing' via reordering and turning /3 & t/ into /h & d/ each.

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**Hide** from Arabic *jild* 'skin' where /j/ passed into /h/ besides /l/-loss (cf. *2aad* 'keep away, avoid' in which /2/ became /h/).

**Horn** from Arabic *qarn* 'horn' in which /q/ became /h/ (cf. *crown, coronation, coroner* 'horn' where /q/ became /k/ (Jassem 2013c)).

**Italy** (*Italian*) via Latin *vitalus* 'bull' from Arabic *3ijl, 3ujool, 3ijlaan* (pl.) 'bull' via lexical shift and turning /3/ into /v & Ø/ and /j/ into /t/ (cf. **veal** below).

**Kid** (*goat*) from Arabic *jadee* 'baby male goat' in which /j/ passed into /k/ (cf. *child(ren)* from *kid* in which /k/ became /ch/ whereas /l/ split from /d/).

**Lamb** from Arabic *laboon* 'milk-giving, milking' via reordering, changing /n/ to /m/, and lexical shift, *2aml* 'baby sheep' via reordering, /2/-loss and /b/-insertion, *buhm* 'baby sheep' via reversal, /h/-loss and /l/-insertion, or *hulaama(t)* 'lean sheep' via /h/-loss and /l/-insertion (cf. **lamp** from Arabic *lama3(an)* 'shine' via /3/-deletion and /p/-insertion; and **lame** from a reversed Arabic *maal, maayel* 'incline, inclined, lame' (Jassem 2013d)).

**Lipid** from Arabic *2aleeb(aat)* 'milk' via /2/-loss, *laban* '(processed) milk' where /n/ became /d/, *libaa'* 'birth delivery milk' via /d/-insertion, or *zubda(t)* 'butter' where /z/ turned into /l/.

**Mammal** (*mamma, mum, mummy, ma*) from Arabic *maama, ma* 'mother, mum' via /l/-insertion.

**Masticate** (*mastication*) from Arabic *maDagh(at)* 'masticate, chew' where /D/ split into /s & t/ while /gh/ became /k/, *maTTaq* 'to manipulate tongue and mouth' where /T/ split into /s & t/ and /q/ changed to /k/, or *majak(q)a* 'of aroused animals, to open and close mouth and tongue' where /j/ split into /s & t/ and /q/ became /k/.

**Milk** (*emulsification*) from Arabic *maSl* 'milk liquid' via reordering and changing /S/ to /k/ or *Samgh* 'birth milk' via reversal, /S & gh/-merger into /k/, and /l/-insertion.

**Mutton** from Arabic *Da'n* 'sheep' via reordering, /n/-split into /m & n/ and turning /D/ into /t/ or *na3jat* 'sheep' via /3/-loss, /m/-split from /n/, and /j/-merger into /t/.

**Moo** from Arabic *ma33a*, *maa3* 'sound of cows' via /3/-loss.

**Ox** (*oxen*; Old High German *Ohso*) from Arabic *3ijl*, *3ujool* (pl.) 'bull' in which /3 & j/ merged into /k (or /h)/ while /l/ became /s/, *3uksh(i)* 'of cows, bread for meat and work' where /3 & k/ merged while /sh/ changed to /s/, *khaisi* 'type of (Syrian) cow' where /kh/ became /k/, *3ais* 'camel' via lexical shift and turning /3/ into /k/, or *2aashi* 'young camel' via lexical shift and turning /3 & sh/ into /k & s/.

**Piss** (*pass*) from a reduced Arabic *basbas* 'flow water; walk fast' or *bazz* 'of liquids, to come from the inside out' where /z/ became /s/.

**Rabbit** from Arabic *arnab(at)* 'rabbit' via /n & r/-merger.

**Ram** 'male sheep; push' from Arabic *ghanam* 'male sheep' through changing /gh/ to /r/ and /n/-merger into /m/ (cf. *qa2am* 'push, advance, attack' where /q & 2/ merged into /r/).

**Regurgitate** from Arabic *qarqaT* 'regurgitate, cut' where /q/ became /g/.

**Ruminant** (*ruminant*) from Arabic *ramma*, *ramram* 'of animals, to hay-eat' where /m/ became /n/.

**Sheep** (*sheepish*, *shepherd*) from Arabic *kabsh* 'adult male sheep' via /k & sh/-merger into /sh/.

**Shit** from Arabic *shaTTa*, *shiTaaT* (n) 'of animals, loose shit'.

**Stag** from Arabic *tais* 'male goat' where /s/ split from /t/ while /s/ turned into /g/.

**Tail** from Arabic *thail* 'tail'; /th/ changed to /t/.

**Taurus** from Arabic *thawr* 'male cow' in which /th/ became /t/ (cf. Spanish **mat-a-dor** from Arabic *maat a(l)-thawr* 'literally, died the bull= the Taurus or bull died', where /th/ became /d/).

**Teat** from Arabic *thadi* 'teats' where /th & d/ became /t & d/ each.

**Udder** from Arabic *Dir3, Duroo3/aDru3* (pl.) 'udder' via /3/-loss.

**Unicorn** (*coronation, crown, horn, corner*) from Arabic *qarn* 'horn' where /q/ became /k/ (Jassem 2013c); for *uni-*, see Jassem 2012a).

**Veal** (*Italy*) via Latin *vitelus*, French *videl (veau)* from Arabic *3ijl, 3ujool* (pl.) 'bull' via turning /3/ into /v/, /j/ into /t (d)/ in Latin and French, subsequent /j & d/-merger into /y (ee)/, and (lexical shift).

**Venison** from Arabic *3anza(t), maa3iz* (pl.) 'goat' in which /3/ turned into /v/.

**Veteran** (*wether*) 'old' from Arabic *maaDi* 'old, past' where /m & D/ changed to /v & t/, *farw(at)* 'fur, wool' via reordering and lexical shift, or *baiTari* 'animal doctor' where /b & T/ became /v & t/ each.

**Virile** (*virility*) from Arabic *dhakar* 'male (organ)' where /dh & k/ merged into /v/ while /l/ split from /r/, *i2leel, 2aleel* 'penis' via lexical shift and turning /2 & l/ into /v & l/ each, or *fa2l* 'male animal, virile' via /2 & h/-merger into /v/ and /r/-insertion.

**Wether** 'sheep' from Arabic *kharooof* 'young sheep' via reordering and turning /kh & f/ into /w & th/ or *wabar* 'wool' via lexical shift and turning /b/ into /th/.

**Yogurt** from Arabic *iqT (higT* in my dialect (Jassem 1993, 1994a, b)) 'dried yogurt' via /r/-insertion.

**Zoo** (*zodiac, zoology*) via Greek *zoion* 'animal' from Arabic *2aiwan* 'animal' where /2/ became /z/ (Jassem 2013f).

### 3.2 Chivalric (Horse) Terms

**Ass** from Arabic *ja2sh* 'ass' in which /j, sh & 2/ merged into /s/ or *3ees* 'camel' via /3/-loss and semantic shift (cf. Arabic *3ajuz*, *3uSS* 'coccyx, ass, back hole' where /3, j, & z/ merged into /s/, *ist* 'ass, back hole' where /t/ became /s/, and **arse** from Arabic *sharj* 'arse' in which /3/ was lost and /sh (z) & j/ merged into /s/).

**Baa** from Arabic *baa3* 'sound of sheep' via /3/-loss.

**Bray** from Arabic *baa*, *boo* 'sound of sheep and cows' via /r/-insertion or *barakh* 'sound of sheep' via /kh/-loss.

**Cavalry** (*cavalier*, *chivalry*) from Arabic *khail*, *khuyool* (pl.), *khaiyal* 'horse, horseman' where /kh & w/ turned into /k & v/ each.

**Cayuse** from Arabic *ja2sh* 'a huge male donkey' in which /j/ became /k/ while /2 & sh/ merged into /s/ or *kadeesh* 'hybrid horse, mule' where /d & sh/ merged into /s/.

**Chivalry** (*chivalric*, *cheval*, *chevalier*, *cavalry*) from Arabic *khail*, *khuyool* (pl.) 'horse, horses' where /kh & w/ became /ch & v/ each.

**Donkey** from Arabic *kand(a/ee)r* 'donkey' through reordering and /r & n/ merger, *khindeed* (*khindheedh*) 'type of horse' via reordering and changing /kh/ to /k/, *naaqat* 'she-camel' via lexical shift, reordering and turning /q & t/ into /k & d/, *ataan* 'donkey' where /t/ became /d/ for the first syllable (cf. Harper 2012).

**Equine** (*Equestrian*) from Arabic *2iSaana*, *2uSn*, *a2Sina(t)* (pl.) 'male horse' via /2 & S/-merger into /k/ or from *khail* 'horses' where /kh & l/ became /k & n/ each (cf. *chivalry* & *cavalry* above).

**Filial** (*affiliation*) via Latin *filus* 'son' from Arabi *filu* 'baby horse'.

**Hee-Haw** from Arabic *2aa-2aa*, *2ee-2oo* 'sound of donkey' in which /2/ became /h/.

**Hey** from Arabic *haa3*, *2aa* 'sound of donkey' via /h & 3/-merger into /h/.

**Hoof** from Arabic *khuff* 'hoof'; /kh/ became /h/.

**Horse** from Arabic *faras* 'female horse'; /f/ changed to /h/.

**Gallop** from Arabic *ghalab* 'outrun' where /gh/ became /g/.

**Jack** (*Jackass*) from Arabic *ja2sh* via /2 & sh/-merger into /k/.

**Knight** via Old English *cneht* 'boy, servant' from Arabic *khaadim* 'servant' via reordering, /kh/-split into /k & g/, and /d & m/-mutation into /t & n/ or *Saani3at* 'female servant, maker' where /S & 3/ changed to /k & g/ each.

**Mare** from Arabic *muhr(at)* 'young or baby horse' via /h/-loss.

**Mount** from Arabic *maTiya(t)* 'riding animal, horse' through /n/-split from /m/ (cf. *mount a horse* from *maTa*, *imtaTa* 'to ride'; *mate/mating* 'sexual intercourse in animals' from *maTa* or *naTTa* 'mount, jump' where /m/ split from /n/ (Jassem 2013f)).

**Mule** from Arabic *2imaar* 'donkey' via /2/-deletion and turning /r/ into /l/ or *baghl* 'mule' via turning /b/ into /m/ and /gh/-loss or merger into /l/ (cf. **male** from Arabic *fa2l* 'male' or *ba3l* 'husband' via changing /f & b/ into /m/ and /2 & 3/-loss or *mar'*, *imri'* 'male' where /r/ became /l/).

**Neigh** from Arabic *na3eeq* 'sound and cry of animals' or *naheeq* 'sound of donkey' via /3 & h/-loss and changing /q/ to /gh/.

**Pony** from Arabic *bunai*, *ibn* 'boy, son, male baby horse'.

**Stallion** from Arabic *Sall*, *Salool*, *SalSal*, *muSalSal* 'fast horse' where /t & n/ split from /t & l/ each, *Safoon/Safen* 'horse' where /f/ became /t/ while /l/ split from /n/, *Saldam* 'strong horse' via reordering and turning /S, d, & m/ into /s, t, & n/, *Saql(awi)* 'horse' where /S & q/ became /s & t/ each and /n/ split from /l/, or *2iSaam* 'male horse' in which /2 & S/

merged into /s/ from which /t/ split while /l/ split from /n/ (cf. *equestrian* above).

**Steed** from Arabic *jawaad*, *jiyaad* (pl.) 'horse' in which /j/ split into /s & t/ (cf. *stead* from Arabic *Sahwat* 'horse back' where /S & h/ merged into /s/ while /t/ became /d/).

**Swirl** from Arabic *Sal(eel)*, *Saheel* 'to sound, to neigh' where /l/ split into /r & l/.

**Whinny** (*whine*) from Arabic 'anna, *3anna*, *3an3an* 'whine' where /' & 3/ became /w/, *wanna*, *wanwan* 'moan, cry', or *2anna* 'sound of horses/camels' where /2/ became /w/.

**Zebra** from Arabic *2imaara(t)* where /2 & m/ became /z & b/ each or *Dhabee*, *Dhibya(t)* 'deer' in which /Dh/ became /z/ from which /r/ split besides lexical shift.

### 3.3 Feline and Canine Terms

**Ape** from Arabic *rabaa2* 'ape' via /r & 2/-loss, *abb* 'father' via lexical shift, or *2aba* 'walk on all fours, especially hands' via lexical shift and /2/-loss.

**Baboon** from Arabic *maimoon* 'monkey'; /m/ became /b/.

**Bark** from Arabic *naba2* 'bark' via reordering and the change of /n & 2/ into /r & k/ each.

**Bear** from Arabic *ba3eer* 'camel' via lexical shift and /3/-deletion, *babr*, *buboor* (pl.) 'lion' via reversal and lexical shift, or *dubb* 'bear' via reversal and turning /d/ into /r/.

**Beast** (*bestial*, *bestiality*) from Arabic *daabba(t)* 'beast, animal' via reordering, turning /d & t/ into /t & s/, *dheeb(at)* 'wolf' via reversal and changing /dh/ to /s/, or *bai'as* 'lion' via lexical shift, /'-loss, and /t/-split from /s/.

**Bitch** from a reversed Arabic *kalba(t)* 'she-dog, bitch' in which /k & l/ became /t & ch/ each (cf. *qa2bat* 'lewd woman' via reordering, the passage of /q/ into /ch/, and /2/-loss).

**Cat** (*kitten*, *catty*) from Arabic *qiTT* 'cat' in which /q & T/ turned into /k & t/ each (cf. **cut** from *qaTTa* 'cut' or *qaTa3* 'cut' via

/3/-deletion; **kit** from *2awD* 'tub' via /2/-deletion and turning /D/ into /t/, **kite** from *khaiT* 'string' in which /kh & T/ became /k & t/; and **coat** from *ghiTaa* 'cover' via turning /gh & T/ into /k & t/ each or *qaTeefa(t)* 'coat' where /q/ became /k/ while /T & f/ merged into t/).

**Canine** 'Latin pointed tooth (dog)' from Arabic *sin, sunoon* (pl.) 'teeth' where /s/ changed to /k/.

**Claw** from Arabic *khilb, makhlab* 'claw' where /kh & b/ changed to /k & w/ each.

**Cub** from Arabic *kalb* 'dog' through /l/-loss or *shibl* 'baby lion' via /l/-loss and turning /sh/ into /k/ (cf. *cube* from Arabic *ka3b* 'cube' via /3/-loss).

**Cur** from Arabic *jaroo* 'bay dog' through the passage of /j/ into /k/.

**Dog** (*dogged, doggie, doggy*) from Arabic *asad/seed* 'lion, dog' via lexical shift, reversal, and turning /s/ into /g/, *dawsak/dawkas* 'lion' via lexical shift and merging /k(s)/ into /g/, or *ghaadi* 'lion' via lexical shift, reversal, and turning /gh/ into /g/.

**Feline** from Arabic *hirr* 'cat' through turning /h & r/ into /f & l/ respectively or *firfir* (*farfoor, firfaar, furaafir(at)*) 'lion' via lexical shift, syllable loss and turning /r/ into /l/.

**Fox** (*vixen*) from Arabic *wa2sh, wu2oosh* (*2eeshaan*) (pl.) 'wolf, wild animal' where /w/ became /f/ while /2 & sh/ merged into /ks/ or *fal2as* 'dog' via lexical shift, turning /2/ into /k/, and /l/-loss.

**Gorilla** from Arabic *ghoula(t)* 'ghoul' via lexical shift and /r/-insertion or *qird(at)* 'monkey' where /d/ became /l/.

**Grivet** from Arabic *qirda(t)* 'ape' where /d/ became /v/.

**Hare** from Arabic *hirr(at)* 'cat (f)' via lexical shift.

**Hound** (*hunt, hunter*) from Arabic *naahid, naahiD, or hundus* (*haadi*) 'lion' through reordering and lexical shift, or *rahdoon* 'dog' via reordering and /r & n/-merger (cf. *hind*,

- behind* from Arabic *ba3d* 'after' via /3/-deletion and /n/-insertion).
- Howl** from Arabic *3aweel* or *3uwa* 'howl, sound of beast' via turning /3/ into /h/.
- Hyena** from Arabic *hamh(a/oo)m* (*hammaam*) 'lion' via lexical shift and turning /m/ into /n/, or *3ilyaan* 'big hyena' where /3/ became /h/ and /l & n/ merged into /n/ (cf. *nahhaam* and *na22aam* 'lion' via reordering, /m & n/-merger, and turning /2/ into /h/, and *2aami* 'lion' via turning /2 & m/ into /h & n/ each).
- Leopard** from Arabic *labwat* 'she-lion' where /t/ became /d/ besides /r/-insertion, or *abradat* 'female tiger' in which /l/ split from /r/.
- Lion** (*lioness*) from Arabic *nahal* 'lion' via reversal and /h/-loss, *la2m* 'lion' via /2/-loss and changing /m/ to /n/, or *nimr* 'tiger' via reversal, turning /r/ into /l/, and merging /m/ into /n/.
- Mew** from Arabic *mau*, *muwaa* 'mew'.
- Monkey** (Spanish *mona*, French *monne*) from Arabic *mai* 'female monkey' where /n/ split from /m/ besides /k/-insertion (cf. **baboon** above)
- Panda** from Arabic *saban(d/t)a* 'lion' via /s/-insertion and lexical shift, *fahd* 'tiger' via lexical shift and /f & h/- merger into /p/ and /n/-split from /d/, or *dub(at)* 'she-bear' via reversal and /n/-insertion.
- Pig** from Arabic *kalb* 'dog' via lexical shift, reversal, turning /k/ into /g/, and /l/-loss or *sab3* 'tiger, wild animal' via reversal and /s & 3/-merger into /g/.
- Pork** from Arabic *kalb* 'dog' via lexical shift, reversal, and turning /l/ into /r/.
- Pussy** (*pussycat*) from Arabic *biss(at)* 'cat (f)' (cf. *bizz* 'teats').

**Roar** from Arabic *za'ar* 'roar' in which /z/ turned into /r/.

**Swine** from Arabic *khanzeer* 'pig' via reordering, turning /kh & z/ into /w & s/ and /n & r/-merger (cf. **swoon** from *nu3aas* 'sleepiness' via reversal and changing /3/ to /w/; **swan** from Arabic *2azeen* 'sad' where /2 & z/ merged into /s/ or *3awwaam* 'swimmer' where /3 & m/ became /s & n/ each).

**Shriek** from Arabic *Sarakh, Sareekh* 'cry' where /S & sh/ turned into /sh & k/ each.

**Tiger** from Arabic *Diraak* 'lion' via reordering and changing /k/ to /g/, *arqaT* 'tiger, spotted' via reversal and turning /q & T/ into /g & t/, *juraidi* 'wild animal' via reordering and turning /j & d/ into /g & t/, or *qaswar(at)* 'lion' via reordering and merging /q & s/ into /g/, or *qird* 'monkey' via lexical shift, reordering, and turning /q & d/ into /g & t/ each.

**Wolf** from Arabic *laith* 'lion' via reversal, lexical shift and turning /th/ into /f/ or *dheeb* 'wolf' through the passage of /dh & b/ into /w & f/ besides /l/-insertion.

**Yowl** from Arabic *wal(wal)* 'sound of dog' in which /h/ became /y/ whereas /l/ split from /w/ or *ya3wee* 'sound of dog' via /3/-loss and /l/-insertion.

### 3.4 Aviary (Bird) Terms

**Aviary** (*avian, aviation, avionics, aviary*) from Arabic *3aSfoor* 'bird' via /3, S, & f/-merger into /v/ and /r/-mutation into /s/, or from *hawaa'* 'air' through lexical shift and turning /h & w/ into /s & v/ each (Jassem 2013d).

**Bird** from Arabic *lubaid* 'bird' via reordering and turning /l/ into /r/.

**Bat** from Arabic *waTwaat* 'bat' through syllable loss and changing /w & T/ to /b & t/ respectively.

**Chick** (*chicken*) from Arabic *dajaaaj, da(waa)jen* (pl.) 'chickens, hens' in which /d & j/ merged into /ch/ whereas /j/ became

- /k/ or from *SooS*, *SeeSaan* (pl.) 'chicken' in which /S/ turned into /ch & k/.
- Cock** from Arabic *qooq* 'sound of chicken' via lexical shift and turning /q/ into /k/, *SooS* 'baby chicken' where /S/ became /k/, or *deek* 'rooster' where /d/ became /k/.
- Crane** from Arabic *nasr* 'eagle' via lexical shift and changing /s/ to /k/, *qarn* 'a hook, horn' where /q/ became /k/, or *karawaan* 'chicken-like bird'.
- Crow** from Arabic *ghuraab* 'crow' in which /gh & b/ turned into /k & w/ each.
- Deer** from Arabic *Tili*, *Tilaa'*, *Tilyaan* (pl) 'baby deer, baby sheep' where /T & l/ passed into /d & r/ each or *Dhi'r* 'baby of animal' where /Dh/ became /d/.
- Dove** from Arabic *Do3a(t)* 'chicken-like bird' where /3/ became /v/, *dafdaf* 'of birds, fly close to land and move wings' via syllable loss and lexical shift, or *wadda* 'type of bird' via reversal and turning /w/ into /v/.
- Drove** from Arabic *wird* 'bird group' via reversal and turning /w/ into /v/, *difr* 'group' via reordering, and *dafar* 'to kick-drive' via reordering.
- Duck** from Arabic *deek* 'rooster' via lexical shift or *ghaaq* 'duck' via reversal and turning /gh & q/ into /k & t/ each.
- Eagle** from Arabic *jeer* 'eagle' via reordering and turning /j & r/ into /g & l/ or *Saqr* 'eagle' in which /S & q/ merged into /g/ while /r/ passed into /l/ (cf. **falcon** below).
- Egg** from Arabic *kaika(t)* 'egg' where /k & k/ merged into /g/ or *qai'a(t)* 'egg skin' where /q/ became /g/.
- Falcon** (*falconer*, *falconet*, *falconry*) from Arabic *Saqr* 'falcon' via reordering, turning /S & q/ into /f & k/ each, and /r/-split into /l & n/.

**Feather** from Arabic *farwat* 'wool, fur' via reordering and turning /t/ into /th/ or *wabr(at)* 'wool' in which /w & b/ merged into /f/ and /t/ became /th/.

**Fledgling** (*fly*) from Arabic *farrooj* 'young chicken' where /r/ became /l/ or *walad* 'boy, young' in which /w/ changed /f/ whereas /j/ split from /d/.

**Fly** (*flight*) from Arabic *farra* 'fly' through the change of /r/ to /l/ (cf. **fowl** below).

**Fowl** via Old English *fugol* from Arabic *3aSfoor* 'bird' via reordering and the change of /3/ to /g/ in *fugol* but its merger with /S/ into /f/ in *fowl* and turning /r/ into /l/, or from *farkh* 'baby bird' where /r & kh/ became /l & g/ each besides /g/-loss later.

**Game** from Arabic *qanS* 'to game-hunt' via /q & S/-merger into /g/ and turning /n/ into /m/ (cf. Arabic *qimaar* 'gamble, usury' via /r/-deletion or merger into /m/).

**Goose** from Arabic *'awz* 'goose' in which /' / became /g/.

**Hatchling** from Arabic *khadsh* 'scratch' where /kh & d/ became /h & d/ or *faqas* 'hatch' in which /f, q, & s/ turned into /h, t, & ch/.

**Hawk** from Arabic *3aaq, 3aq3aq* 'crow-like bird' via reduction and changing /q/ to /k/ or *3awhaq* 'crow' where /3 & h/ merged into /h/ and /q/ became /k/, *ya3ooq* 'hawk' via /y & 3/-merger into /h/ and the change of /q/ into /k/, *wa'q* 'sea bird type' via lexical shift and merging /w & ' / into /h/, or *3uqaab* 'hawk' where /3 & b/ merged into /h/ and /q/ became /k/.

**Hen** via Old English *hana* 'cock, bird who sings' from Arabic *2amaam* 'dove, pigeon' via lexical shift and changing /2 & m/ to /h & n/ each, *na2aam* 'goose-like bird' via reordering, turning /2/ into /h/ and /n & m/-merger, *2innaaya(t)* 'type of bird' in which /2/ became /h/, or *'umm(aiat)* 'egg-laying hen, little mum' where /' & m/ became /h & n/ each.

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**Heron** from Arabic *Zaran* 'obstinate' or *Zazeen* 'sad' where /z/ & z/ changed to /h & r/ or *Zurr* 'eagle' where /z/ & r/ became /h & n/ each.

**Owl** from Arabic *boom* 'owl' wherein /b & m/ turned into /w & l/ each or rather merged into /l/, or *lail* 'night' via lexical shift.

**Peep** from Arabic *beeb* 'peep'.

**Pelican** from Arabic *bula2(aan)* 'big bird' where /z/ became /k/ or *ablaq, bulqaan* 'spotted black and white' where /q/ passed into /k/.

**Penguin** from a combination of Arabic *banaan* 'finger' and *janaa2* 'wing' via /z/-loss and /j/-mutation into /g/ or from *baja3* 'sea bird'; /j & 3/ turned into /g & n/ each (cf. Harper 2012).

**Pigeon** from Arabic *nujub* 'dove; the best of all animals' via reversal or *bajam* 'speechless animal' via lexical shift; /j & m/ turned into /g & n/ each.

**Pheasant** from Arabic *Zabash, Zubshaan* (pl.) 'turkey; grey' via lexical shift, /z/-loss, and the change of /b & sh/ to /f & s/ each or *Tawoos* 'pheasant' through reversal and turning /T & w/ into /t & f/ (cf. *peasant, peasantry* from a reordered Arabic *bustaan(i)* 'orchard (man)' or *baseeT* 'simple man, soil man').

**Quack** from Arabic *qaaq, qooq* 'quack, sound of birds'.

**Rooster** via Old English *hrost* 'wooden ... roof; perch' from Arabic *3areesha(t)* where /3 & sh/ became /h & s/ each or *reeshat* '(head) feather' via lexical shift and turning /sh/ into /s/ (cf. *3aSfoor* 'bird' where /3, S, & f/ turned into /r, s, & t/ together with lexical shift).

**Sea Gull** from a reversed and reduced Arabic *laqlaq* 'kind of bird' in which /q/ became /g/.

**Secretary** (*secretaire*) from a combination of Arabic *Saqr* 'hawk' and *Tair* 'bird', yielding *Saqr Taayer* 'flying eagle' according to a Sharjah TV programme aired around mid-2002.

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**Sing** from a reduced Arabic *saqsaq* or *zaqzaq* 'of birds, to sing' via syllable loss, changing /z & q/ to /s & g/, and /n/-insertion or split or *nashaq* 'nose-weep; blow nose in' via reordering and turning /sh & q/ into /s & g/ each.

**Soar** from Arabic *Taar* 'fly' through the change of /T/ to /s/.

**Sparrow** from Arabic *subar* 'bird', *3aSfoor* 'bird' in which /3 & S/ merged into /s/ and /f/ turned into /p/, or *qubbara(t)* 'type of bird' where /q/ became /s/.

**Spread** from Arabic *basaTa* 'to spread' via reordering, turning /T/ into /d/, and /r/-insertion.

**Swallow** from Arabic *sunoonoo* 'swallow' in which /n/ turned into /l/ (cf. *zala3* 'to swallow' through turning /z & 3/ into /s & w/ or /3/-loss).

**Thrush** from a shortened Arabic *zarzoor* 'thrush' where /z/ turned into /th & sh/.

**Turkey** from Arabic *deek* 'male chicken'; /d/ turned into /t/ while /r/ was inserted.

**Tweet** (*twitter*) from Arabic *TooT* 'tweet'.

**Wing** from Arabic *janaa2* 'wing' via reversal and turning /j & 2/ into /g & w/ each.

### 3.5 Reptiles and Rodents

**Adder** via Old English *naddre* 'snake' and Latin *natrix* 'water snake' of *nare* 'to swim' from Arabic *nahr* 'river' via lexical shift and /h/-loss or *aqra3* '(bald-headed) snake' via /3/-loss and changing /q/ to /d/.

**Boa** from Arabic *af3a* 'snake' where /f & 3/ became /b & w/ each or *2ubaab* 'snake' via /2/-loss.

**Chameleon** via a combination of Greek *khamai* 'on the ground, dwarf' from Arabic *qazam* 'dwarf' via /q & z/-merger into /k (ch)/ and *lion* (see 3.3 above) or *sulaimania(t)* 'lizard' via reordering and changing /s/ to /k/.

- Cobra** from Arabic *raqeeb* 'snake type' via reordering and changing /q/ to /k/ or *Zirbaa* 'chameleon' via lexical shift, reordering, and turning /2/ into /k/.
- Crawl** from Arabic *rakal* 'kick' via reordering and lexical shift, *harwal* 'to run' via /2/-mutation into /k/ and lexical shift, *rijl* 'leg, walk' via /j/-mutation to /k/ and reordering, *qa2ar* 'crawl, bottom-walk' via reordering, /q & 2/ merger, and /l/-split from /r/, or *harkal* 'cross-walk aimlessly' via reordering and turning /h/ into /k/.
- Creep** from Arabic *2arba* 'to creep' via /2/-mutation to /k/.
- Eel** from Arabic *ilaaha(t)* 'big snake' via /h/-loss or *2aiat* 'snake' via /2/-loss and changing /t/ to /l/.
- Hedgehog** from a combination of Arabic *siyaaj* 'hedge' where /s/ became /h/ and *shawk* 'prick' where /sh & k/ changed to /h & g/ each.
- Hiss** from Arabic *hass(ees)*, *2ass(ees)* 'hiss' where /2/ became /h/.
- Jerboa** from Arabic *jarboo3* (*yarboo3*) 'rat' via /3/-loss.
- Lizard** from Arabic *si2liyat* 'lizard' via reordering, /2 & s/-merger into /z/, and turning /t/ into /d/ besides /r/-insertion.
- Mole** from Arabic *3ama* 'blind' via /3/-loss and /l/-insertion.
- Mouse** (*mice*) from Arabic *qawaam* 'mice, rats, snakes' via reversal and turning /q/ into /s/ (cf. *mawwaS* 'sound of mouse' via lexical shift and changing /S/ to /s/, (*fa'r al-*) *misk* 'musk rat' where /k/ merged into /s/, *Samm(aa')* 'deaf (rat); ductless (gland)' via reversal and lexical shift, *3amaS* 'hard of sight' via /3/-loss and lexical shift, or *nims* 'snake-and rat-eating animal' via lexical shift and /n & m/-merger).
- Poison** 'drink in French' from Arabic *beesh* 'of babies, drink' via lexical shift, turning /sh/ into /s/, and /n/-insertion or *shirb* 'drink' via reordering and turning /sh & r/ into /s & n/ each.

**Python** from Arabic *thu3baan* 'snake' through reordering and /3/-elision (cf. **serpent** below.)

**Rat** from Arabic *fa'r* 'mouse' via reversal and turning /f/ into /t/ or *jurdh(ee)* 'rat' where /j & dh/ merged into /t/ (Cf. *rate*, *ratio*, *route*, *rite* in Jassem (2013c)).

**Reptile** via Latin *reperere* 'creep' from Arabic *2arba*, *2irbaia(t)* 'creep, creeper' via /2/-loss, *2aba*, *2aabiyat* 'to creep, creeper' via /2/-mutation into /r/ and /l/-insertion, or *baTn* 'abdomen' via lexical shift and /n/-split into /r & l/.

**Rodent** from Arabic *qaraD* 'bite' or *qaraT* 'grind, bite' in both of which /q/ merged into /r/.

**Serpent** (*serpentine*) from Arabic *thu3baan(at)* 'snake' in which /th & 3/ turned into /s & r/ (cf. *silb* 'baby snake' where /l/ split into /r & n/) (cf. **python** above).

**Snake** from Arabic *2anash*, *2aneesh* 'snake' where /2 & sh/ became /s & k/ each (cf. **sneak** from a reversed Arabic *khanas* 'lie low, sneak' in which /kh/ became /k/; **snicker** and **snooker** from Arabic *zanaqa* 'to corner' or *zaraqqa* 'move in stealthily' wherein /z/ became /s/ and /r/ split into /n & r/, or *in2aSar* 'confine, snooker' in which /2/ became /s/ whereas /S/ became /k/; **snack** and **sink** from a reversed Arabic *ghamas*, *ghumaas* 'dip, submerge, food' where /gh & m/ became /k & n/.

**Swish** from Arabic *SawwaS* 'to sound-annoy' via /S/-mutation into /s & sh/.

**Tortoise** from a reversed Arabic *adrad* 'toothless; turtle' via turning /t/ into /d/ and inserting /s/, *raqq* 'male turtle' via reordering and splitting /q/ into /t & s/, or *TarTooza(t)* 'round-shaped back or top' via lexical shift (cf. **Turtle** below.)

**Turtle** from Arabic *daldaal* 'male turtle' where /d & l/ became /t & r/ (cf. **tortoise** above) or *lajjat* 'turtle' via reversal and turning /j & l/ into /t & r/.

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**Venom** from Arabic *samm*, *sumoom* (pl.) 'poison' where /s & m/ became /v & n/ each, *thumaal* 'poison' where /th & l/ became /v & n/ each besides reordering, or *dheefaan* 'poison' where /dh & f/ merged into /v/ and /m/ split from /n/.

**Viper** via a combination of Latin *vivus* 'alive' and *parere* 'bring forth, bear' from Arabic *2ai* 'alive' where /2/ became /v/ and *bara'a* 'bring forth' (Jassem 2012b, 2013c); *dabboor* 'spider' via lexical shift and turning /d/ into /v/; *thu3baan* 'snake' through /th & 3/-merger into /v/ and turning /n/ into /r/; or *abtar* 'short-tailed snake' via reordering and turning /t/ into /v/.

**Whiz** from Arabic *'azz* 'whiz' in which /'a/ became /w/.

**Whoosh** from Arabic *wash(wash)* 'whisper', *waS(waS)* 'of animals, to sound', or *'ishsh* 'sound of silence' where /S & ' became /w & s/ each.

### 3.6 Insects and Flies

**Ant** from Arabic *naml(at)*, *annulat* 'ant' via /n, m, & l/-merger into /n/ (cf. **aunt** (German *Amt*) and Old English **eom** 'uncle' from Arabic *3ammat* 'aunt' and *3amm* 'uncle' via /3/-loss and /m/-mutation into /n/).

**Bee** from Arabic *dhubaab* 'fly' via /th & b/ merger into /b/.

**Bite** from Arabic *baTTa* 'of wounds, to burst' where /T/ became /t/ or *dhaba2a* 'kill' via reversal, lexical shift and turning /th & 2/ into /t & Ø/ each.

**Bug** from Arabic *buqq* 'bug' where /q/ turned into /g/.

**Fly** from Arabic *farr* 'to fly' in which /r/ became /l/.

**Entomology** via Greek *entomon* 'insect of *en* + *temnein* 'cut' from Arabic *jamma* 'collect-cut' where /j/ became /t/ or *qaTama* 'cut' where /q & T/ merged into /t/.

**Insect** (*section, dissection, vivisection*) via Latin *insectium* 'animal with a divided body' of *in* + *secare* 'cut') from

Arabic *shaqq(at)*, *inshaqq(at)* 'divide, cut' in which /sh & q/ became /s & k/ each

**Gnat** from Arabic *namoosat* 'gnat' via reordering, /n & m/-merger into /n/, and turning /s/ into /g/ (cf. *mosquito* below).

**Honey** (*bee*) from Arabic *na2l(at)* 'honey bee' via lexical shift, reordering, turning /2/ into /h/, and /l/-loss or turning it into /y/.

**Hornet** from Arabic *na2l(at)* 'honey bee' via lexical shift, reordering, and turning /2 & l/ into /h & r/.

**Locust** from Arabic *jaraad(at)* 'locust' via reordering and turning /r/ into /l/ and splitting /j/ into /k & s/.

**Louse** (*lice*) from Arabic *qaml* 'lice' via reversal and /m & l/-merger into /l/.

**Mosquito** from a reordered Arabic *namoos(at)* 'mosquito' in which /n & m/ merged and /s/ split into /s & k/.

**Scorpion** from Arabic *3aqrab(un)* 'scorpion' in which /3 & q/ turned into /s & k/ each.

**Spider** from Arabic *dabboor* 'wasp' via reordering and /s/-split from /d or r/ or *zanboor* 'wasp' where /z & n/ became /s & d/ each.

**Sting** from Arabic *naghaz*, *naghzat* (n) 'sting' via reordering and turning /gh & z/ into /g & s/ respectively.

**Wasp** from Arabic *ya3soop* 'male bee' via reordering, /3/-loss or merger into /w/.

**Worm** from Arabic *2alam(at)* 'worm' where /2/ became /w/ (cf. **warm** from Arabic *2aami* 'hot' where /2/ passed into /w/ besides /r/-insertion (Jassem 2013c-d).

### 3.7 Fish Terms

**Cod, crab, fish (catfish, swordfish), mermaid, shark, shrimp, snail, whale** (see Jassem 2013d).

**Dolphin** via Greek *delphis* 'womb, child-bearing' from Arabic *Tifl(at/h)* 'baby' in which /T & t/ turned into /d & s/ besides lexical shift.

**Eel** from Arabic *ilaah(at)* 'snake' via /h/-loss, *Zaiya(t)* 'snake' via /2/-deletion and /t/-mutation into /l/, or '*aim/ain* 'snake' where /m & n/ became /l/.

**Frog** from Arabic *wirriq* 'frog'; /w, l, & q/ became /f, r, & g/.

**Salmon** from Arabic *sulayman, salmaan* 'Prophet Solomon, proper name, safe'.

**Sea lion** from Arabic *sai2* 'water area' via /2/-loss or merger into /s/ (Jassem 2013d) and *nahal* 'lion' via reversal and /h/-loss (see below).

**Toad** from Arabic *Difda3* 'frog' via /D & f/-merger into /t/ and /3/-loss.

In summary, the above animal terms amount to 200 or so, all of which have Arabic cognates. That is, the percentage is 100%.

#### 4. Discussion

Two or three main points merit further discussion, which are the relationship of the present study to the previous ones and the relevance of the lexical root theory to the data at hand.

Concerning the former, the results show that *animal* terms in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek are true cognates, whose differences are due to natural and plausible causes of linguistic (phonetic, morphological and semantic) change. Therefore, the results agree with Jassem's (2012a) investigation of numeral words, common religious terms (Jassem 2012b), pronouns (Jassem 2012c), determiners (Jassem 2012d), verb *to be* forms (Jassem 2012e), inflectional 'gender and plurality' markers (2012f), derivational morphemes (2013a), negative particles (2013b), back consonants (2013c), *water* and *sea* words (2013d), *air* and *fire* terms (Jassem 2012e), and

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*celestial* and *terrestrial* terms (Jassem 2013f) in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic which were found to be not only genetically related but also rather dialects of the same language. The percentage of shared vocabulary or forms between Arabic and English, for instance, was 100% in all studies. Such ratio indicates that they belong to the same language (i.e., dialects), according to Cowley's (1997: 172-173) classification,

In light of such results, the lexical root theory has been found as adequate for the present analysis as it was for its forerunners. Therefore, the main principle which states that Arabic, English, and so on are not only genetically related but also are dialects of the same language is verifiably sound and empirically true. There can be no clearer proof to that than tracing back English *animal* terms to true Arabic cognates.

The operation of the lexical root theory's applied procedures was neat, smooth, and straightforward. At the lexicological level, the lexical root proved to be an adequate, analytic tool for relating *animal* words in Arabic and English to each other by focusing on root consonants and overlooking vowels because the former carry word meaning while the latter convey phonetic and morphological information as described in section (1.) above (see Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-f). For example, *chivalric* and *cavalier* are stripped down to their 'underlined' roots first.

The historical origin and meaning of lexical items- i.e., etymology, cannot be underestimated. In fact, tracing the Latin, Greek, French, and German roots of English words facilitates locating their Arabic origins a lot. For example, English *cow* (*kine*) and *bull* (*bullock*), German *Kuh*, Latin *bov*, French *beef*, Greek *bous*, Lithuania *karve*, Church Old Slavonic *krava* all come from Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' via different sound change routes: (a) reordering, (b) turning /q & b/ into /k & v/ in Lithuania and Old Church Slavonic, and (c) merging /q & r/ into /v (f, w)/ in Latin (French and English) or /s/ in Greek; in all, /q/

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evolved into /k, v, or Ø/; English *ewe*, Latin *ovis*, Greek *ovi*, and Arabic *shaa(t/h)*, *shiyaaah* (pl.) 'ewe' have a similar story via reversal and turning or merging /sh & h/ into /s, v, or w/ (see 3.1 above).

The linguistic analysis showed how words can be genetically related to and derived from each other phonetically, morphologically, grammatically and semantically. The phonetic analysis was pivotal in this regard in view of the enormous changes which affected Arabic consonants especially in English and other European languages as well as mainstream Arabic varieties themselves (e.g., Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b). These changes included deletion, reversal, reordering, merger, split, insertion, mutation, shift, assimilation, dissimilation, palatalization, spirantization (velar softening), duplication, syllable loss, resyllabification, consonant cluster reduction or creation and so on. The commonest such changes were reversal, reordering, split, and merger, some of which may be the result of changing the direction of Arabic script from right to left at the hands of its first adopters or borrowers, the Greeks (Jassem 2013g). Although the results (3.1-7) are rife with examples, Jassem (2013c) provided an outline of the major sound changes in the realm of *back* consonants (pharyngeals, velars, uvulars, and glottals) in particular.

In addition, the results clearly demonstrate that sound change proceeds in three different courses (Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-f). First, it may be multi-directional where a particular sound may change in different directions in different languages at the same time. For example, Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' led to *cow* (*kine*) and *bullock* (*bull*) in English, *bov* (*beef*, *bovine*) in Latin

and French, *bous* in Greek, *karve* in Lithuanian and *krava* in Church Old Slavonic via different sound changes as has just been mentioned above (3.1 above). *Ewe* in English, Latin *ovis*, and Greek *os* are another example, which all come from Arabic *shaa(t/h)* 'sheep' through the merger of /sh & h/ into /h & v/ in Latin but their merger into /s/ in Greek and /w/ in English. Secondly, it may be cyclic where more than one process may be involved in any given case. The changes from Arabic *kabsh* 'male adult sheep' to English *sheep*, for example, included (i) reordering, (ii) merging /k/ into /sh/, and (iii) vowel shift. Finally, it may be lexical where words may be affected by the change in different ways- i.e., lexical diffusion (see Phillips 2012: 1546-1557; Jassem 1993, 1994a, 1994b for a survey). That is, a particular sound change may operate in some words, may vary in others, and may not operate at all in some others. For example, the different forms of Greek *bous*, Latin and French *bov*, *beef* (*bovine*), English *cow* (*kine*), *bullock* (*bull*), Lithuanian *karve*, and Church Old Slavonic *krava*, are a case in point, which descend from Arabic *baqar(at)* 'cow' (3.1 above). All such factors render Arabic, English, German, and French to be mutually unintelligible despite the use of the same word roots (Jassem 2012a-b).

It is worth noting that all the sound changes above are natural and plausible; for example, the change of /k/, a voiceless velar stop, in Arabic *kabsh* 'male sheep' to /sh/, a voiceless alveolar fricative in *sheep*, is natural as both are closer by place, manner and voice (cf. Jassem 2012b). Likewise, the change of /q/ in *baqar(at)* to /s & v/ in *bous* (*bov*), *beef* is plausible but natural to /k/ in *krava*. (For further detail, see Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b).)

As to the major morphological and grammatical aspects (inflectional and derivational affixes), all relate to number,

gender, and verb- or adjective-making ones. Jassem (2012f, 2013a) has already described them in detail, to which the curious reader can be referred. In fact, since all such differences do not alter the meaning of the root itself, they can be ignored right away.

Finally, on the semantic plane, lexical relationships had a paramount role, all of which were reported in Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-f). Lexical stability was obvious in a great many words such as *cow, bullock, bull; sheep, ewe, ram, lamb; horse, cavalier, chivalric, donkey, mule, zebra; swine, rabbit; leopard, lion, bitch, cur; avis, aviation, hawk, eagle, duck; snake, rat; fish, cod, etc.*, the cognates of all of which still retain the same or similar forms and meanings in Arabic, English, French, and so on. Lexical shift was very common here especially in *wild* animal terms like *lion, hyena, wolf, dog, pig, pork*; also *aviary* terms involved a lot of that as well like *duck, hen, eagle*, and so on. Their meanings shifted within the same broader category such as Arabic *seed/asad* 'lion' and *dog*, its current meaning in English; *duck* came from Arabic *deek* 'rooster'; Spanish *patos* 'duck' derives from Arabic *baTTa(t/h)* 'duck' where /t (h)/ became /s/ (cf. Campbell 2006: 204-206; Crowley 1997: 174ff). Lexical change goes hand in hand with lexical shift such as the absence of *camel* terms in European languages due to habitat change, some of which may have shifted their reference to newer, similar creatures in Europe such as *bear* and *ba3eer* 'male camel' via /3/-loss. Lexical split took place in words like *Saqr, Suqoor* (pl.) 'eagle' which might have yielded *eagle, hawk* and *falcon* through different phonetic processes: in *eagle* /S & q/ merged into /g/ while /r/ became /l/ whereas in *falcon* /S & q/ passed into /f & k/ while /l/ split into /n & r/; *2imaar* 'donkey' split into *mule* where /2 & r/ became /Ø & l/ and *zebra* where /2 & m/ became /z & b/ (3.2 above).

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Lexical convergence was also very common due to the existence of several formally and semantically similar words in Arabic. For example, *hyena* might derive from Arabic *hammam*, *hamhoom*, or *2aami* 'lion' through turning /m/ into /n/ and /2/ into /h/; *tiger*, *bear*, *hen*, etc. are other examples (see 3.3-5 above). Lexical multiplicity occurred often in words like *bear* 'wild animal; carry; give birth' which might derive from Arabic *babr* 'bear', *bara'a* 'give birth', or *rabba* 'bring up' via reversal; *dove* and *cow* are other examples (see 3.1-3.4 above). Like convergence, multiplicity is due to formal and semantic similarity between words. Finally, lexical variability shows in the presence of alternative words for *lion* and *bird* in both Arabic and English, which are utilized in different ways. For example, English *eagle*, *hawk*, *falcon*; *cow*, *bull*, *bullock*, *ox*; *sheep*, *ewe*, *ram*, *lamb* are a few such examples (see 3.1-7 above); Arabic *asad* 'lion' has no less than 500 variants (Ibn Khalawaih 2013); Ibn Seedah 1996 (6 & 8) whereas *zimaar* 'donkey' and *kalb* 'dog' has 70 each (Ibn Seedah 1996 (8)). Many such terms underwent lexical or semantic shift within the same broader category, of course, as shown above.

As to the relational procedure, many of the above lexical cognates are both formally and semantically similar, for example, *bullock* and Arabic *baqar* 'cow' via reordering and turning /r/ into /l/; *sheep* and Arabic *kabsh* 'male sheep' where /k & sh/ merged into /sh/; *horse* and Arabic *faras* 'horse' where /f/ passed into /h/; *cavalry* and Arabic *khail*, *khuyool* 'horses' where /kh & w/ changed to /k & v/ each. Some, however, are formally different but semantically similar such as *force*, *ferocious*, *fierce*, and *horse*, all of which derive from Arabic *faras* 'horse, strong, powerful'. Others still are formally similar but semantically different such as *mare* and *more*, *mere* in English, all of which

derive from similar Arabic cognates: i.e., *muhra(t)* 'mare' and *marra(t)*, *miraar* (pl.) 'once, times' via different sound changes such as /h/-loss (see 3.2 above). Thus Arabic cognates can be clearly seen to account for the formal similarities and/or differences between English words themselves.

In summary, the foregoing *animal* words in Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek are true cognates with similar forms and meanings. Arabic can be safely said to be their origin all for which Jassem (2012a-f, 2013a-b) offered some equally valid reasons such as phonetic complexity, lexical multiplicity and variety. Of course, English, German, French, and Latin do have lexical variety and multiplicity but not to the same extent as Arabic does. One can compare for himself the number of terms for *lion*, *horse*, *donkey*, *camel*, and *dog* in English dictionaries and thesauri and Arabic ones with between 500-1500 for *lion* alone (e.g., Ibn Khalawaih 2013).

## 6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The main findings of this paper can be summed up as follows:

- i) The 200 *animal* terms or so in English, German, French, Latin, Greek, and Arabic are true cognates for being similar in form and meaning.
- ii) The different forms amongst such words across those languages stem from natural and plausible phonological, morphological and/or lexical factors (cf. Jassem 2012a-f, 2013a-f). Reversal, reordering, split, and merger were very common sound changes.
- iii) The main recurrent lexical patterns were stability, convergence, multiplicity, shift, and variability; the abundance of convergence and multiplicity are because of

the formal and semantic similarities between Arabic words from which English words emanated.

- iv) The huge lexical variety and multiplicity of Arabic *animal* terms (e.g., 500 for *lion*) as well as their phonetic complexity compared to those in English and European tongues point to their Arabic origin in essence.
- v) The lexical root theory has been as adequate for the analysis of the close genetic relationships between Arabic, English, German, French, Latin, and Greek *animal* terms of all types.

The current work agrees with Jassem's (2012a-f, 2013a-f) calls for further research into all language levels, especially vocabulary, to substantiate these findings. Furthermore, the application of such findings to language teaching, lexicology and lexicography, translation, cultural (including anthropological and historical) awareness, understanding, and heritage is urgently needed for the dissemination and promotion of linguistic and cultural understanding, cooperation, acculturation, enrichment, tolerance and peaceful coexistence, besides human equality.

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# Pronunciation Problems of the Marathi Speakers

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## Abstract

This paper tries to find out the problem areas in pronunciation faced by Marathi speakers of English and it also tries to find out the causes of these problems of mother tongue (L1) interference/ pull. After taking into consideration the problems of the learners, it also tries to suggest some pedagogical measures so that the problem of L1 interference will be not eradicated totally but certainly will be reduced to some extent. The sample taken for this paper is from S.N.D.T. Arts and Commerce College for girls, Pune. The students are from B.A. (Marathi medium).

- Introduction/ Importance of English

In the present world perspective, English is an important language. It is an international language. It is spoken and understood by a vast majority of people living on the globe. It is, therefore, a world language. Knowledge of English is essential for establishing intellectual, cultural, economic, commercial and political relations with the rest of the world. Therefore, English serves as a link language.

For such an active participation, study of English is a must, for it is a window to the world. Thus, it has been assigned the role of a library language. More and more knowledge produced through English language has made it a living stream of growing knowledge. Mastery of English means an easy access to the vast treasures of knowledge. Hence, everyone should have the knowledge of English.

The importance of speech in language learning: a language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols adopted by a whole community. It has its own patterns of pronunciation, arrangement of words, and the association of meaning with words. A child acquires the frame work of his spoken language with constant exposure to the spoken form.

Pronunciation is the way in which a particular language or a dialect is spoken. It is much concerned with speech sounds as with features like stress, rhythm and intonation. My research concentrates on the pronunciation and also on use of the language in different situations. This paper is an attempt to outline the difficulties of Marathi speakers learning to speak English with special reference to the pronunciation and to suggest remedial measures and provide practice material to improve pronunciation. This paper has some limitations. As not much study is done on the suprasegmental features of Marathi, this paper does not focus on the suprasegmental features of Marathi and the syntactic problems faced by the Marathi speakers of English.

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- Background of the Sample

A sample of 30 students was taken from Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey (SNDT) Arts and Commerce for Women, Pune. These students are from B.A. As I have been working in the same institute for the last 11 years, I am aware of the learners' background and the problems they face while speaking in English I have observed that the students of B.A. are unable to communicate in English and they are unable to form simple sentences in English. Even if they try and speak in English, the pronunciation is mixed with their Mother tongue and it has their mother tongue interference in it.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to find out what the needs of the learners are as far as the Spoken English is concerned. This paper tries to find out why they are not able to communicate in English and it will also concentrate on the problems faced by the Marathi speakers while speaking English. Some remedial measures will be suggested so that it will help the Marathi speakers of English to improve pronunciation and tone. The improvement in the pronunciation and tone will make the students confident to use the language especially while facing the interview and get the job.

- The Problems faced by the Marathi Speakers

Every language has a fixed number of speech sounds or a phonetic system, it has a number of meaningful symbols made of a succession of these sounds, it has devices to give these symbols distinctive forms and roles in an utterance to enable them to convey a particular meaning in a given situation i.e. it can bestow definite functions on the various forms. In short, every language has a grammar of its own. Marathi has its own grammar and a phonetic system. Similarly, English has its own grammar and a phonetic system. While speaking English, the speaker's mother tongue interferes. We can say that there is a mother-tongue pull while speaking second language (i.e. English). They tend to pronounce words the way they say them in Marathi. It becomes hardly intelligible to either native speakers of language or to other foreign speakers of it. If the level of intelligibility is low the language breaks down as a system of communication and does not serve the purpose intended.

- About letters of Marathi and English

English has Roman script. A, B, C, D down to Z are letters of the Roman alphabet. They are not sounds. A, E, I, O, U are not vowels sounds and the rest consonants sounds as is popularly supposed. They are the letters used to represent the sounds. English has twenty six letters of alphabet but it has twenty vowel sounds and twenty four consonant sounds. There is no one to one relationship between letters and sounds.

Marathi makes use of a slightly modified variety of Devanagari script. They are not sounds. Marathi too has more sounds than it has letters to represent them. The letter च for instance, represents two sounds, /tʃ/ as in the word 'wheel' and /ç/ as in the word 'four'. This shows that the pronunciation has to be learnt independently. The letters do not offer adequate help in learning the pronunciation. Compared with English, Marathi is largely phonetic. But no language can absolutely be phonetic. Marathi is not completely phonetic either. In a phonetic language all the words are spelled very much as they are sounded.

- The difference between Marathi and English , and the problems faced by the Marathi speakers

The distinctive sounds of Marathi can be tabulated as under:

Consonants							
	Labial	Dental	Alveolar	Retroflex	Alveopalatal	Velar	Glottal
<b>Voiceless stops</b>	p p <sup>h</sup>	t t <sup>h</sup>		ʈ ʈ <sup>h</sup>	ç ç <sup>h</sup>	k k <sup>h</sup>	
<b>Voiced stops</b>	b b <sup>h</sup>	d d <sup>h</sup>		ɖ ɖ <sup>h</sup>	ʃ ʃ <sup>h</sup>	g g <sup>h</sup>	
<b>Voiceless fricatives</b>			s		ç		h
<b>Nasals</b>	m m <sup>h</sup>	n n <sup>h</sup>		ɳ ɳ <sup>h</sup>	ɲ	ŋ	
<b>Liquids</b>	l l <sup>h</sup>		l l <sup>h</sup> r <sup>h</sup>	ɭ ɭ <sup>h</sup>	ʎ		

Phonetic table of English Consonants (24)

(Chart A)  
Phonetic Table  
English Consonants (24)

Place →	Bilabial		Labio-dental		(Inter-dental)		Alveolar		Post-alveolar		Palato-alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal		
	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	VI	Vd	
<b>Plosive (Stop)</b>	p	b					t	d									k	g	
<b>Fricative</b>			f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ	ç	ʝ							h
<b>Affricate</b>												tʃ	dʒ						
<b>Lateral</b>							l												
<b>Nasal</b>		m						n											ŋ
<b>Semi-Vowel</b>				w															j

A comparison between the Marathi consonantal system and English consonantal system shows that Marathi has a large number of plosive sounds (8) and a very small number of fricative sounds. Marathi has eight plosive sounds all of which could be aspirated thus a total number of 16 plosive sounds (aspirated and unaspirated).

It has only 3 or 4 fricative sounds but English has only six plosive sounds. And because of this difference, the Marathi speakers often tend to substitute plosive aspirates for English fricatives. This confusion affects the intelligibility. They substitute /f/ with /ph/, /θ/ with /th/, /v/ with /wh/ and /z/ with /dzh/.

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e.g. when /p/ occurs in a stressed syllable it is pronounced with aspiration, the word 'pun' is pronounced as [phʌn] which is often equated by the Marathi speakers with the word 'fun'. Because of the wrong pronunciation, it leads to confusion.

Most of the Marathi speakers get confused with /v/ and the Marathi aspirated semi-vowel /wh/. The Marathi semi-vowel is a bi-labial sound while the English /v/ is a labio-dental sound. Aspiration in Marathi /wh/ weakens word-finally leaving a clear /w/ sound which is not the same as the English /v/ sound. Similarly, other difficult sounds for the Marathi speakers are /θ/ and /ð/. These are generally replaced by either by /tʰ/ and /d/ or //dʰ/.

Marathi speakers of English often substitute /z/ with /dzh/. And they find it very difficult to say a sound /ʒ/ like in measure, pleasure. It is difficult because /ʒ/ does not occur in Marathi.

Marathi has four nasal consonants i.e. **ड, ण, न, म**

There are some sounds which are already in Marathi so while saying these sounds the Marathi speaker of English does not face any problem. For example, while pronouncing /h/, /k/, /l/, /s/ and /ʃ/ since we have a corresponding sound in Marathi.

A comparative chart (chart A)

**Chart C**

	Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Velar
English		f v	θ ð	s z	r	ʃ ʒ	h
Marathi initial		ph wh	tʰ d [dʰ]	s - dzh	r	ʃ -	h
medial		ph wh	tʰ d	s dzh	r	ʃ ʃh	h
final	Φ β	ph w	tʰ d	s - dz, z	r	ʃ -	

## Vowels

The English alphabet has only five letters a, e, i, o, u to represent twenty vowel sounds, twelve are pure vowels (i.e. while articulating the sound the position of the organs of speech remains more or less unchanged) and eight are diphthongs.

English has twelve pure vowels. According to Yardi (1998:49) Marathi has only six pure vowels. These are /i, e, a, o, u, ə/ and he (1998) further adds that the reason why we do not have /r:, ʊ:/ is that they are no inherently long or short vowels in Marathi. Of these only one corresponds completely with the English vowel / ə/. Marathi has /æ/and

/ɒ/ which occur in loan-words and so they have become a part of its phonological system.

Marathi speakers often fail to make a clear distinction between the vowels /ɪ/ and /i:/. This is because Marathi has only one vowel /i/ which different from both the vowels /ɪ/ and /i:/.

Yardi (1978) in his article 'Teaching English Pure Vowels to the Marathi Learner: Some Suggestions' has mentioned that Marathi has less complex vowel system than that of English. All vowels can be short and long, depending on their positioning the word. The long vowel occurring almost exclusively indicates a pause at the end of meaningful sequence of sounds. The vowel in a monosyllabic word, open or closed, is generally long. For example, (mi) [I], (na:v)[name]. The last vowel of a word is long, except when followed by a combination of consonants such as nt, tr, kt. For example, (pɔ̃trɔ̃) [letter]. Otherwise vowels are short. It is unnecessary to indicate vowel length in Marathi. The Marathi speakers often find it difficult to pronounce a short vowel in word-final position and a long vowel in non-final position.

Marathi does not have pure long vowels like /ɑ:/ and /ə:/. (/ɑ:/ does not have its 'short' counterpart, while the opposition between / ə:/and / ə/ is mostly one of length, according to the present analysis). The quality of the English vowels /ɛ/,/ɔ:/, and /ʌ/ is slightly different from the quality of the corresponding Marathi vowels /e/,/o/ and /ʌ/, while the complex of quality and quantity which marks the opposition between pairs /i:/ /i/ / ɔ:/ / ɔ/ and /u:/ /u/ is foreign to the Marathi learner.

The Marathi learners substitute back open vowel /ɑ:/ with the central near-open vowel /a/. They fail to retain the vowel length in the non-final position. The English vowels /e/ and /ʌ/ have near equivalents in Marathi /e/ and /a/. The difference is /a/ is a bit open than /ʌ/.

The Marathi learners find it bit difficult to differentiate between / ɔ:/ and / ɔ/. This is because Marathi does not have sound analogous to either. e.g. in words like lord and hot respectively.

The Marathi speakers find it difficult to distinguish between /u/ and /u:/ so they pronounce /good/ or /book/ as / g u:d/ or /bu:k/ respectively instead of / gud/ or /buk/. In Marathi, vowels are nasalised. English does not use nasalised vowels. The words like 'and' /æ-n-d/, 'answer /ɑ:-n-s-a/.

Generally, the second language learners of English whose L1 is Marathi pronounce / ɒ/ in the word initial position as /a/.

## **Diphthongs**

English has eight diphthongs and in Marathi there are four (the debate is still on about the number) diphthongs.

English has eight diphthongs, all falling. These are /eɪ/ (as in day), /əʊ/ (as in go), /aɪ/ (as in buy), /aʊ/ (as in now), /ɔɪ/ (as in boy), /ɪə/ (as in here), /eə/ (as in hair), and /ʊə/

(as in sure). In Marathi, these four diphthongs are /əɪ/, əʊ, /aɪ/ and /aʊ/. (the debate is still on about the number).

While pronouncing /eɪ/, the Marathi speakers always make mistake. He cannot distinguish between the sound /e/ and /eɪ/. The Marathi speakers find it difficult to realize the RP pure /e/ (short) vowel in the words like 'get', 'wet'. They might make it long in the words like 'gate', 'wait'. They have problem with /eɪ/ and /aʊ/ they substitute these diphthongs with /e/ and /o/ respectively. For example, when the word 'way' is said as 'we/' and not as /weɪ/ and instead pronouncing 'go' as ' /gəʊ/ they pronounce it as /go/.

The diphthongs in English are one vocalic element but in Marathi two separate vocalic elements. eg /aɪ/ is aai, and /aʊ/ as aau. The learner might get confused with ऐ and औ. The Marathi speakers do not find it difficult to pronounce the diphthong /əɪ/ as there are many loan words, like boy and toy, in Marathi.

The Centring Diphthongs e.g. /ɪə/, /eə/, and /ʊə/ do not cause any difficulty to the Marathi speakers.

### Common Mistakes

Apart from the problems of pronunciation, the Marathi speakers have other problems too. Most of the Marathi speakers of English commit some common mistakes. When they use the past tense, they do not pronounce the way RP pronunciation expects. The past tense marker 'ed' after /d/ is pronounced /ed/ and not /ɪd/. The retroflexion is used in the production of /t/ and /d/.

The /r/ sound is used at the end of the word when it is not pronounced in RP. The Marathi speakers have a tendency to pronounce /r/ at the end of the words. e.g. ear, car, pure

As there is no article in Marathi, Marathi speakers may tend to omit it while speaking English. They omit the definite article ('world' in place of 'the world'). They have a problem in using prepositions as well. In Marathi, preposition comes after noun.

e.g.

pen (N)	tabla(N)	+	war (Prep.)	aahe (V).
Pen	table	+	on	is.

Pen is on the table.

A funny example of wrong usage of 'on' is ...in Marathi

Maze	tuzya	+	war	prem	aahe.
I	you	+	on	love	is/am.

I love you.

We may translate it as it is and say

\* 'I love on you'

We cannot distinguish between 'on' and 'above', as Marathi has only one word for 'on and above' i.e., war and 'under' and 'below' and one word for 'under and below'.

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Certain verbs like 'know', 'understand' are not used in the present progressive in English but the Marathi speakers say 'I am not understanding' in place of 'I do not understand'. They use singular in place of plural e.g. 'foreign thing' instead of 'foreign things)

Marathi is an SOV language i.e. a Marathi sentence has an SOV (Subject +Object +Verb) order. Any change in this surface order will only be possible with the change in pitch and intonation.

The normal unmarked word-order in Marathi is as shown in the example below:

- raam (subject)                                      šaalet (Object)                                      jaa-t-o (verb).  
Ram-n    (school- in)    go.  
Ram goes to school.

And English has a SVO pattern. So students often make mistakes while speaking. The speakers have problems with certain consonants and vowels of RP. They use their equivalents from their mother tongue. They should remember that both Marathi and English are two different languages with different sounds.

Marathi is a syllable-timed language and the accentual pattern of Marathi is different from English. All speakers of Marathi speech community have a tendency to use the pattern of Marathi language in their English speech.

In Awatade's (2007), he has come across one of the findings that no Marathi speaker (the sample taken for the study) had used stress, aspiration, weak forms and syllabic consonants in their speech.

- How to rectify the problems

From the above information, its quite clear that the Marathi speakers have problems while pronouncing English sounds. Following are some of the strategies used to rectify the problem.

Lots of practice should be given to the students so that while speaking, esp. in case of facing the interview, they will not face any problems.

To improve pronunciation, patient listening is very important. This listening will help the speaker (here the listener) to discriminate between sounds.

Students must be encouraged to use dictionary. It will help them with the pronunciation of English words.

A dictation exercise may appear in different forms. First, it may consist of a whole passage incorporating target words to be tested. It may also consist of a set of individual words incorporating the segmental or stress features being tested. A third interesting type of dictation consists in a cloze test: the testee is given a text from which target words have been removed and replaced by blanks; the examiner reads the full passage and the testee fills in the blanks with the words he has heard. One precaution to take

here is that the context should be as neutral as possible; a context that is too supportive will elicit the correct word even if the student's pronunciation of it is faulty.

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# Orthography Theories and the Standard Igbo Orthography

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## Abstract

The attempt to produce a good orthography assumes the five basic principles of accuracy, consistency, convenience, harmonization and familiarity (Williamson, 1984:7). These five principles are encoded in a number of orthographic theories.

In this paper we investigate the contribution of a number of orthographic theories to the standardization of Igbo orthography. The aim is to highlight the consistency or otherwise of Igbo orthography with these theories, and also, to make suggestions, if any, for reforms

**Key words:** orthography theories, standard Igbo, spelling rules,

## 1.0. Introduction

There are two approaches to the study of orthographies. The first is the *a priori* approach while the second is the *a posteriori* viewpoint. In the *a priori* study of orthographies, the concern is about written orthographies, while the *a posteriori* aspect deals with a language that has a long written tradition. The objectives of an *a posteriori* orthography study are to discuss the merits and demerits of an established orthography. In other words, the researchers interested in *a posteriori* orthographies investigate the consistency/inconsistency and accuracy of the written language and make recommendations for the updating of such orthographies, if the need arises. This means that *a posteriori* orthography research is aimed at drawing the attention of the users of the language to the need for correct spelling and writing rules.

On the other hand, an *a priori* approach is a pilot study of an emerging orthography of a language. Its concern is the linguistic analysis of the language in order to produce the orthography of the language. The researchers focus on the phonology, morphology and the syntax of the language. These studies would enable the spoken form of the language to be reduced to a written form that is easy to learn and efficient for communication.

The study of Igbo orthography is neither *a priori* nor *a posteriori*. This is because, although Igbo has been reduced to writing, it does not have a long written tradition, when compared to say Arabic, English and French. The earliest written form of the language began in 1861 (Oraka, 1983:25), when J.F. Schon, a Christian missionary adopted the Lepsius orthography of 1854 writing his *Oku Ibo: Grammatical Elements of the Ibo language*. The Church Mission Society (C.M.S) published *An Ibo primer*, written by a catechist, F.W. Smart in 1870. According to

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Oraka (1983), by 1883 about 50 books including the bible has been published in Igbo, all of them based on the Lepsius orthography.

However, by 1929, the Lepsius orthography was abandoned for the Africa orthography designed by the International Institute of African Languages and Culture (IIALC). This was because of the enactment of a decree by the colonial authorities which adopted the Africa orthography. This led to the now famous great Igbo orthography controversy that lasted for 32 years. This period was a setback for the development of a standard Igbo orthography. The resolution of this controversy came about in 1961, when the then Eastern Nigerian Government adopted a standard orthography, popularly known as the *Ọnwu* orthography. This orthography is made up of the following 36 graphemes <a, b, ch, d, e, f, g, gb, gh, gw, h, I, i, j, k, kp, kw, l, m, n, ñ, nw, ny, ọ, p, r, s, sh, t, u, ụ v, w, y, z>. There are 8 vowels in the Igbo and nine of the consonants are digraphs. These are ch, gb, gh, gw, kp, kw, nw, ny, sh. The rest of them are monographs. Emenanjo (1996) discloses that the consonant <sh> and <v> are not ‘freely found in words like others.’ They are mostly found in dialect words. See Emenanjo, (1996:4) for details of Igbo alphabets.

This brief history of Igbo orthography is to illustrate the fact that Igbo does not really have a long written tradition, if its standard orthography only came into existence in 1961. In this work, we situate Igbo standard orthography as not yet fully definitive due to its young history. It is still being learned and internalized. Again, the dominance of English affects its learnability. Nevertheless, a study of the Igbo orthography and its co-relation to orthographic theories would shed light on its learnability and standardization.

## **2.0 Traditional Orthographies and the Igbo Standard Orthography**

Traditional orthographies include the orthographies of Arabic, English, French and German and all other languages that have long written traditions. The designing of orthographies for unwritten languages take their cues from these traditional orthographies. A study of these established orthographies reveals some inconsistencies between the spoken form and the written form. These inconsistencies stem from the fact of their long history, where certain written forms have evolved without correspondence to the written form (for example, English). There are also linguistic reasons for these inconsistencies. However, the most glaring form of inconsistency is between the phoneme and the grapheme of English. The example in (1) below illustrates how the phoneme /i/ in English is inconsistent with the graphemes. <e>, <o>, <u>, <ui> and <y>. Koffi (2009:40).

1.

a. begin

b. women

- c. busy
- d. build
- e. abyss

In the spoken form of the words in (1a-e), the phoneme /i/ is represented by the graphemes, <e>, <o>, <u>, <ui> and <y>, respectively. This kind of inconsistency is termed the many-to-one correspondence (cited from Vallins, 1993 in Koffi (2009). This kind of inconsistency is not found in Igbo orthography as we shall illustrate shortly.

The other type of inconsistency and inaccuracy in traditional orthographies is the one-to-many correspondence. Here, one grapheme is used to represent a number of phonemes. We shall illustrate (2) below, where the grapheme <c> represents the phonemes /k/ and /s/.

2.

- a. character
- b. culminate
- c. Celtic
- d. census
- e. celebrate

In example (2a-e) the grapheme <c> is used to represent the phoneme /k/ in (2a-c) and the phoneme /s/ in (2d-e). Williamson, (1984) quoting Wolf (1954:8) emphasizes that ‘consistency means that any letter or letter combination should stand for the same sound or sounds throughout the system’. Examples (1) and (2) above show that the traditional orthography of English fails this test. In example (3) we demonstrate that Igbo orthography does not have the failings of the many-to-one correspondence and one-to-many correspondence of English.

3.

/i/ → <i>

- i. ìsé ‘five’
- ii. ìjè ‘journey’
- iii. àgìdì ‘corn meal’
- iv. nri ‘food’
- v. uhie ‘camwood’

The phoneme /i/ is pronounced the way it is spelt in examples (3i-vi). This emphasizes consistency in Igbo orthography. This consistency is further illustrated with the phoneme /I/, a central vowel, which is pronounced the way it is spelt.

4.

/I/ → <i>

a. ịtọ́ ‘three’

b. iba ‘malaria fever’

c. ntị ‘ear’

d. ahịa ‘market’

e. ụbịam ‘poverty’

The ability of Igbo orthography to represent one grapheme with only one phoneme coincides with the principles of consistency in a good orthography. It is an advantage to both the native speaker and second language learner who will find out that the knowledge of the phonetic chart and the phonemes of Igbo can be applied directly to its spelling rules.

The traditional orthography of English is also defective in the representation of mute letters. These letters are redundant in the spelling of words and add to the difficulty in learning the spelling rules of English. It is also one of the hallmarks of inconsistency of English. In example (5) we show the mute letters in the English words.

5.

a. pneumonia

b. gnome

c. subtle

d. knife

e. phone

In (5a) the mute grapheme <p> is redundant and serves no function in the spelling of that word. Likewise, the mute graphemes <g>, <b> and <k> in (5b-d) are also not useful. The grapheme <ph> is completely out of place because the pronunciation of the letter produces the phoneme /f/.

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Igbo orthography has done well to avoid these redundant letters because all the words in Igbo are spelt as they are spoken. Example (6) illustrates.

6.

/ada/ → àdà́ ‘first daughter’

/isi/ → isi ‘head’

/IsI/ → ísì ‘smell’

/ɔkɔ/ → òkú ‘fire’

/azɔ/ → azù ‘fish’

A careful look at examples (6a-e) indicates that the spoken form of the words in phonemic symbols correspond to the written form. There are no mute letters in the orthography. In other words, in terms of the principle of consistency, Igbo orthography is well structured for learners to avoid spelling errors.

### 3.0 Phonetic and Phonemic Orthography

A phonetic orthography aims at an accurate production of the spoken form of the language in writing, while a phonemic orthography is designed in such a way that a grapheme is pronounced the same way as its phoneme. Jones (1967) and Sgall (1987) subscribe to the view that orthography should be such that its phonemes enables the production of its graphemes. On the other hand, Koffi (2009) quoting Vachek (1945) and Smalley (1964) argue against a phonetic orthography. Their reason is that the objective of orthography is to produce a realistic representation of the spoken form of a language in writing while the aim of phonetics is to produce accurately the spoken language.

In other words, a phonemic orthography produces phonemes of a given language in the orthography. Sgall (1987) observes that in any orthography, the grapheme should be pronounced like the phoneme. Similarly, the phoneme should be written as the grapheme. In other words, phoneme and grapheme should have a consistent correspondence in sound. Jones (1967) and Sgall (1987) state that the phonemic orthography is the model orthography and should be used as the standard. Following Jones (1967) and Sgall (1987), we claim that the Igbo standard orthography is a phonemic orthography and this feature makes it close to other standard orthographies. The following examples in (7) below provide data to support our claim.

7.

a. /awɔ/ → áwò ‘frog’

b. /mgbIrIgba/ → mgbìrigba ‘bell’

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- c./ak<sup>w</sup>ɔ/ → àkwù 'palmfruit'  
 d. /og<sup>w</sup>ɔ/ → ógwù 'medicine'  
 e./ɔbɔtsɪ/ → ùbòchì 'day'

Note that the phonemes in (7) appear both in phonemic brackets and in the graphemes of Igbo. Note also that the pronunciation of the words in the phonemic brackets sound alike to the words in graphemes on the right. More so, the phonemes are written as the graphemes. This is why the light vowels (-ATR) have the sub-dot diacritic to differentiate them from the heavy vowels (+ATR) without the sub-dots. In addition, the doubly articulated consonants /g<sup>w</sup>/, /k<sup>w</sup>/ and /g<sup>b</sup>/ are written as the graphemes. These examples abound in Igbo words proving that it is a phonemic orthography which is the accepted standard for orthographies (Jones, 1967: Sgall, 1987).

#### 4.0 The Theories of Orthography

The adoption of a phonemic orthography also comes with the adherence to some orthography principles. This adherence makes for an orthography that is acceptable to all stakeholders especially, in cases like Igbo orthography where there still exist debates about the suitability of the orthography for the language. These principles have originated from the long study of orthographies over the years by linguists and enthusiasts. In the following sections, we shall discuss some of these principles and find out how they affect Igbo orthography

#### 4.1 The Easy Acquisition Theory

Wiseman (1989) is the advocate of this theory. He states that orthography should sound familiar to the native speaker. When the native speaker feels comfortable with the sound of the alphabets of the orthography, it makes it easier for learning. However, Ugorji (2002; 2005a; 2009) has frowned at the Igbo standard orthography for not representing the unique speech sounds of some Igbo dialects. Indeed, Ugorji, (2009) proposes a 'sociophonological model for Igbo orthography'. This position stipulates that the orthography should not contain phonemes but sociophonemes, which he defines as 'all properties of spoken language which bear sociolinguistic significance for language or dialect communities.' Ugorji (2009) position is more or less linguistic activism and the aim according to him is to vitalize dialect communities. This position is also an echo of Emenanjo, (1995) where he advises that

Written standard Igbo will have to grapple with the problems of handling dialect morphemes, words, phrases, idiomatic expressions,

proverbs, tongue twisters etc which by implication will come in expected avalanches into Standard Igbo.

Emenanjo (1995:221)

Emenanjo, (1995) believes that the Onwu orthography needs a number of ‘essential’ and ‘crucial’ changes to make it ‘morphophonemic, pan-dialectal and self-consistent’. The argument is that the standard Igbo orthography, for now, does not contain all the significant sounds in all Igbo dialects. The sound-letter correspondence is not consistent and familiar to the native speakers of some dialects. The adjustment needed in the orthography has to make it able to accommodate all dialectal phonemes and morphemes which will result in the enrichment of the orthography

#### 4.2 The Easy Learning of Other Languages

A good orthography should make it easy for the native speaker to learn other languages. In the same vein, foreigners should find it easy to learn the language. This is possible only if the design of the orthography follows standard orthography theories and principles. Fortunately, Igbo orthography adopts the Latin alphabets with minor variations especially in the representation of diacritics and digraphs. Therefore, a native speaker of Igbo, who has acquired the knowledge of the orthography, should be able to easily learn English, Yoruba and other Nigerian languages that have Latin alphabets in their orthographies.

The use of special symbols in other languages to represent sounds not found in Igbo should not be difficult to learn by the native speaker. These special symbols always almost have a Latin base. In the case of the second language learner of Igbo, the diacritics and digraphs in the orthography are basically derived from Latin. Therefore it is easy to learn.

#### 4.3 The Spelling and Alternate Spelling Theory

This spelling theory stipulates that each word should be written the way it is pronounced in isolation. Our examples in Section 3.0 illustrate these facts. In the alternate spelling theory, it is postulated that when two spellings have equal claims to representation in the orthography, it is advisable to admit the two spelling forms. This brings to mind the criticism of the standard orthography for not representing the sounds of some dialects. As Emenanjo, (1996) observes, in some dialects spoken in Central Igbo areas, ‘people use **v** where others use **b** as in Mbaise

<b>Mbaise</b>	<b>Standard Igbo</b>	
ìvù	ìbù	‘fatness’
mvọ	Mbọ	‘finger nails’
ìvọ	ìbọ	‘dissect’

According to the theory being discussed, the alternative spellings above should be admitted in the orthography since both letters **v** and **b** are represented in the orthography.

#### **4.4 The Simplicity Theory**

This theory stipulates that the dialect with the simplest phonological and morphosyntactic rules should form the basis of the orthography. The standard Igbo orthography is based on the dialects of Central Igbo and Onitsha (Emenanjo, 1975b:1996). The literature available to us has not indicated the phonological and morphosyntactic reasons supporting Central and Onitsha Igbo as the standard. There are only historical reasons to address this fact. In fact, Oraka (1983) citing Emenanjo, (1983) reveals that the Onwụ or Standard orthography was accepted because ‘the Catholics who favoured Onitsha were given the Onitsha letters of the alphabets, while the Protestants who favoured the central dialects were allowed to continue so but using the Onitsha sound system.’ By these words, it is clear that the standard Igbo orthography is a ‘pacifying’ orthography. It was not based on the fact that Central and Onitsha Igbo have the simplest morphophonological rules but simply to resolve an age-old issue that had hampered the development of Igbo. This leads us to the next theory of orthography.

#### **4.5 The Theory of Social Acceptability**

Simmons (1977) proposes the principle of social acceptability. This principle affirms that the most socially acceptable solution to an orthography problem is to be preferred. The resolution of the orthography crisis in 1961 by the Onwụ Committee was socially acceptable to both the government and the missionaries who were major stakeholders, and also to the generality of Igbo people represented by the Society for the Promotion of Igbo Language and Culture (SPILC). The SPILC was at the vanguard of popularizing the use of the Onwu orthography in schools, colleges and by examination bodies. The SPILC also organized seminars and published books that encouraged people to learn and use the standard orthography. Professor Nwanolue Emenanjo, a most excellent Igbo scholar contributed immensely to the popularization of the orthography by his profuse publications in Igbo studies based on the standard orthography.

#### **4.6 The Minimal Ambiguity theory**

The use of this theory is for the resolution of possible ambiguities in the spelling rules of the language. Simmons (1977) propounded the theory. The SPILC followed the stipulations of this theory when they introduced the mechanics of writing Igbo as discussed in the Volume 1 of their publication. The following example in (8) shows some of the recommendations made in order to resolve all potential ambiguities in the writing of Igbo.

8.

- a. nani instead of naani 'only'
- b. ndewo instead of ndeewo 'how is it'
- c. nwanyi instead of nwaanyi 'woman'
- d. ụnyahụ instead of ụnyaahụ 'yesterday'
- e. niile instead of niile 'all'

These recommendations were made because the committee believes that the elision of the vowels is unjustified. This is because Igbo words are spelt as spoken with all their syllables. The strong recommendation that tones should be fully marked also sets out to minimize ambiguities in words. As Emenanjo (1996:33) recommends, 'in a tone language, it is better to over-spell a word with all its syllables and tone marks than to under-spell with elided syllables and no tone marks.'

The solution proffered by the SPILC and Emenanjo (1996) tend to give the greatest contribution towards resolving spelling ambiguities.

#### **4.7 Tone Economy Theory**

Williamson (1984:42) recommends that in marking the tones of a language; the most common tone in the language may be left unmarked. This is where the Tone Economy theory is derived. For Emenanjo (1996) 'it is better to leave out marking high tones.' Other Igbo scholars (Green & Igwe, 1963; Uwalaka, 1997) also follow the Tone Economy theory leaving out the marking of all high tones.

#### **4.8 The Theory of Punctuation**

In designing Orthography, the punctuation system should have resemblance to the punctuation marks used in other familiar languages. This theory is from Mudhenk (1981) according to Koffi (2009).

Igbo derives its punctuation system from English. They include 'the full-stop, comma, semi-colon, colon, exclamation mark, question mark, quotation marks, apostrophe, parenthesis and square brackets' (Emenanjo, 1996:77). The function of these punctuation marks in Igbo is similar to their functions in English.

#### **4.9 The Etymology Demand Theory**

In this principle, a word's spelling must reflect its source (Cummings, 1988). The debate about writing compound words reflects the facts of this theory. While Ikekeonwu (2011) recommends

that compound words should be written together, Onukawa (2011) proposes that compound words should be written apart. We illustrate with examples taken directly from the works of these two scholars. First are the examples of compound words written together.

9.

- a. ùlò+ ùkà → ùlòùkà ‘church’
- b. élu + igwe → eluigwe ‘sky’
- c. ùlò + akwùkwò → ùlòakwùkwò ‘school’
- d. ùtò + ásùsù → ùtòásùsù ‘grammar’

Ikekeonwu (2011:4)

The examples in (10) are compound words written apart

10.

- a. nwa akwukwo ‘student’
- b. ezi okwu ‘truth’
- c. ahụ ọnụ ‘beard’
- d. aka ekpe ‘left hand’

Onukawa, (2011:12)

Following the Etymological demand theory, the two sets of examples have some words whose concepts are inherent to the Igbo speaker’s world view while other words have concepts that come from language contact. For example, (9a, c and d and 10a) are free translations which are sourced from the English language. These words should be written apart to show that their sources are from outside the language. Examples (9b, 10b, c and d) are concepts within the Igbo worldview and should be written together.

## 5.0 Conclusion

Section 4 above discusses in an extensive way the correlation between the standard Igbo orthography and a number of orthography theories that have emanated from long term research on the subject. Our discussion demonstrates that the design of the Igbo standard orthography wittingly or otherwise, follows the theories of orthography design. The various activities of Igbo scholars and language promoters also adhere to these theories and principles. This goes to show that although the orthography is not perfect; its design has a lot of merits in it.

One major contentious issue about the orthography is that it does not have room for all the sounds found in Igbo dialects. This is a major issue which has been addressed by a number of Igbo scholars (Emenanjo, 1995; Ugorji, 2005a; 2009). This problem in the orthography is also against the theory of easy learning of the writing rules by the native speakers, who may not find the sound-letter correspondence consistent with that of his dialect. One recurring solution that has been proffered is the convocation of a Pan-Igbo Orthography Summit where this issue can be evenly addressed. In this paper, we lend credence to this call based on our analysis of the conformity of Igbo orthography to orthography theories. Ohiri-Aniche (2007) affirms that an international workshop on Igbo orthography should be convened as quickly as possible. The aim of this workshop should be to ‘reconcile’ and ‘harmonize’ the conflicting observations on the writing and spelling of Igbo. She proposes that one of the terms of reference is for the summit to produce a separate orthography for writing in the dialects while the standard orthography remains for writing standard Igbo. Ugorji (2009) re-emphasizes this by stating that the new set of orthography should be seen as supplementary to the standard orthography and used mainly for teaching and learning the language. Emenanjo, (1995) asserts that this new set of orthography will not resurface the old orthography controversy but would establish a more inclusive orthography which will even make standard Igbo a more effective tool for writing literature in the dialects.

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# **Sports: A Universal Language of Cultural Exchange, Brotherhood and Empowerment**

**Dr. A. Kaleb Rajan, Ph.D. and Dr. C. Johnson Premkumar, Ph.D.**

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## **Universality of Sports**

- “Sport has a unique and irreplaceable capacity to unite people,  
going far beyond ethnic, religious or social differences.  
I am convinced that sport can be at the long-term service of peace”
- HSH Prince Albert II of Monaco

Sports is a universal language. At its best it can bring people together, no matter what their origin, background, religious beliefs or economic status are. When young people participate in sports or have access to physical education, they can experience real exhilaration even as they learn the ideals of teamwork and tolerance. That is why sports has always been used as a medium of help in the work for peace, and in the efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals of international importance. The United Nations General Assembly proclaimed 2005 as the International Year of Sport and Physical Education. The United Nations Fund for International Partnerships also merits recognition for the important role it plays in fostering sports-related programmes in developing countries.

## **Language and Sports – Opposite Ends?**

There was once a time when Languages and Sport were viewed as being opposite ends of the vocational spectrum, but with the international nature of sport today, there is now a much greater need for the two skills to exist side by side. The most common, and arguably most necessary reason for a sportsman or woman to learn a foreign language would be if they moved abroad to play for, or to represent a foreign team or organisation. Not only do language skills help when it comes to communicating, and successfully playing with new team mates, but learning about the language and culture is also essential when it comes to settling into the new environment. Getting to grips with a new

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language can be great fun, and learning so much about other people and what makes them tick, and immerse oneself in the culture is critical to making it work abroad.

### **Sports Rekindle the Desire for Learning a Foreign Language**

Another reason for sports stars to learn or re-ignite foreign languages is the international nature of so many of the large sporting events that they participate in. Lots of the meets and tournaments are held abroad, and they attract athletes from all kinds of different countries. Whilst it's not essential to be able to converse in foreign languages, given that the announcements and commentary are often conducted in English, it could help sportsmen communicate with foreign peers that they see on a regular basis, and also to overcome any practical language-related issues that apply to anyone visiting foreign cities and countries. Whilst choosing to learn foreign language skills is often born out of necessity for these sportsmen and women, there is no doubt that they are setting a great example for the young people today.

### **Language of Sports**

Sports are an international language everyone can relate to. This globally shared language of sports allows people of different cultures to interact in a way in which it is difficult to ignore another's hidden culture. The language of sports is like Hall's silent language, as it reveals the internal characteristics of a culture. The universal definition of the game is less important than the specific use of the language of sport that gives it meaning. Moreover, the common language of sports allows "outsiders" an access point to understand one another's local culture, as it provides a way to put local rules into practice in a way the "new" person can understand. Hence Americans can understand China through playing a different style of table tennis because they understand the language of the sport, while at the same time, can learn that a new style is reflective of both Chinese culture, as well as ping pong culture. It is here that language becomes a guide to social reality that conditions all of our thinking about social problems and processes and acts as a self-contained, creative symbolic organization that records experience in the truest sense of the word.

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## **Characteristics of Sports That Help Language Learning**

One must consider how sport takes on these characteristics. In the example of ping pong diplomacy, China and the US were unable to communicate effectively partially because they had never engaged in human interaction. The interaction through sports brought two nations together, both of which were unable to discover common grounds for communication. Since the Cold War, the US has developed an appreciation for the benefits of cultural relations. Since the end of the war, the US has seen the education of students from other countries as an essential element in worldwide ideological struggle against communism, especially the totalitarian system of the Soviet Union. According to the UNESCO statistical yearbook, between 1970 and 1978, the US saw an 82 percent increase in foreign student exchanges and in 1981, the Soviet Union saw a 125 percent increase over a ten year period. Apparently, the need to increase cultural relations was clear and present, and the influence of the ping pong diplomacy was instrumental in bringing this need to the forefront of international relations.

## **Empowerment through Sports**

The Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs' International Visitor Leadership Program led a parallel 10-day international exchange program for six sports management professionals. With an emphasis on the administration of women's and girls' soccer programs, the program allowed the visitors to exchange ideas and best practices in the management of sports and recreational programs with their American counterparts. They examined how athletic programs for women and girls promote leadership, teamwork, respect, self awareness and life skills, and how sports and recreation programs can make a positive impact on at-risk and underserved youth. According to a United Nations' 2007 report entitled "Women2000 — Women, Gender, Equality and Sport"- empowering women and girls through sports is an important social and economic empowerment tool.

- Women and girls acquire new interpersonal networks, develop a sense of identity and access new opportunities, allowing them to become more engaged in school and community life;
- Sports serve as a vehicle to improve women's and girls' leadership roles and participation in decision-making;
- Sports convene people across borders, cultures and belief systems, and can promote greater tolerance and understanding among individuals and communities;
- Girls' participation in sports can challenge gender stereotypes and break down entrenched discriminatory attitudes;
- Sports teams and organizations provide an excellent opportunity to provide information and promote dialogue on the importance of girls' education.
- Studies show a direct correlation between girls' participation in sports and higher education and employment attainment; and that a single year of primary education correlates with a 10 – 20 percent increase in women's wages later in life; a single year of secondary education results in a 15 – 25 percent increase.

## Conclusion

It is not that merely winning and losing matter in the objectives of sports, but the inborn credentials that it aims to propagate matters much more. The humane expressions and alarming climax of every international sporting tournament is the living witness of what sports is really all about.

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# Using Mechanical Technique versus Cooperating with Peers Vocabulary Learning Strategy: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners

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## Abstract

This article discusses the effect of Using Mechanical Technique as a direct vocabulary learning strategy versus Cooperating with Peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension skill in foreign language learning. To fulfill the purpose of the study, fifty students were selected and assigned into two groups. The first group (A) was taught vocabulary through Using Mechanical Technique and the second group (B) utilized Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy. Results showed that Structure Reviewing strategy can lead to higher achievement of vocabulary storage in reading comprehension of EFL undergraduate students.

**Keywords:** Vocabulary Learning Strategy, Using Mechanical Technique vocabulary learning Strategy, Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy

## Introduction

In order for students to become successful language learners, they should acquire a suitable amount of vocabulary, because vocabulary learning is unavoidable part of language learning. The students that lack the necessary knowledge of vocabulary storage are considered a sign of unsuccessful learners or may face problem in their communication (Nunan, 1995). As having a good command of vocabulary knowledge is an important element of second language acquisition (SLA), effective second language vocabulary acquisition proves important to English language learners (Hunt & Beglar, 2005, p.1). Also "Vocabulary acquisition is the largest and most important task facing the language learner." (Swan and Walter, 1984). "If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words!" (Thornbury 2002, p. 13).

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Using Mechanical Technique versus Cooperating with Peers Vocabulary Learning Strategy:

A Case of Iranian EFL Learners

By comparing different areas of language learning study, it is possible to state that vocabulary teaching/learning has been left to a position of secondary importance (Richards & Renandya, 2002). According to Decarrico (2001: 285), “vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching.” Applying language learning strategies in teaching is the focus of attention in different aspects in foreign and second language teaching (Cohen, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Oxford, 2002; Vilaca, 2008). Researchers have pointed out that strategies may help students *learn to learn* (Oxford, 2002; Cohen, 2003; Mariani, 2004; Chamot, 2004; Vilaca, 2008), contributing to a better development of linguistic, communicative and pedagogical skill, including autonomy and the management of the learning process.

Teaching language learning strategies (LLSs) is beneficial to both English teachers and learners. Language learning strategy instruction improves both the learning product and process because it enhances learners’ awareness of how to learn successfully and motivates them (Rasekh & Ranjbari, 2003). It helps teachers to become more aware of their learners’ needs and of how their teaching styles are appropriate to their learners’ strategies (Oxford, Crookall, et al, 1990), and to direct their teaching efforts (Kinoshita, 2003). Coady (1997) views that vocabulary learning strategies are beneficial to lexical acquisition.

Graves (1987) pointed that, since most learners actually do most of their learning of new words independently, it makes sense to encourage them “to adopt personal plans to expand their vocabularies over time” (p. 177). In fact, theorists now place considerable stress on the importance of foreign language students’ developing autonomous learning strategies (see, e.g., Rossini Favretti, Silver, Gasser, & Tamburini, 1994), and books aimed at teachers provide practical advice on teaching vocabulary and encourage student language-learning strategies (e.g., McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Jones (1998) believes that Oxford (1990) has developed a system of language learning strategies which is more comprehensive and detailed than earlier classification models. Oxford divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. Direct strategies, which “involve direct learning and use of the subject matter; Indirect strategies, which “contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning” (Oxford, 1990, p. 11-12). Indirect vocabulary learning is defined as a technique of vocabulary learning which occurs without the specific intent to focus on vocabulary.

As for strategies of focus on form studies regarding the dichotomy of direct and indirect focus on form, this question may come to mind, which is better and produces more beneficial effects. Researchers and teachers cannot seem to agree. With direct teaching methods, the teacher explicitly introduces the vocabulary and provides the definitions. With indirect teaching methods, on the other hand, a teacher provides various activities that lead students to specific outcomes (Klesius & Searls, 1991).

Cohen and Apeh (1981) found that training students to learn vocabulary using mnemonic associations was effective. Crow and Quigley (1985) used semantic field strategy training to enhance learning vocabulary. O’Malley (1987) found that training English Language as a foreign language (EFL) students to use a metacognitive strategy (self-evaluation) and two cognitive

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strategies (grouping and imagery) improved their vocabulary learning. Brown and Perry (1991) compared the effectiveness of three vocabulary learning strategies: keyword, semantic mapping (elaboration), and a combination of both. Alseweed's (2000) study showed that training students in using word-solving strategies increased high proficiency students' strategy use than low proficiency ones. Rasekh and Ranjbari (2003) found that metacognitive strategy training had a positive impact on enhancing EFL learners' lexical knowledge.

So far, many studies have been carried out in the field concerning vocabulary learning/teaching approaches. For instance, Huckin and Coady (1999) investigated the role of direct and indirect vocabulary acquisition. They conclude that indirect vocabulary learning is not entirely incidental in that learners pay at least some attention to individual words.

In a study, Qian (1996) compared the learning of second language words in lists and in contexts. He employed 63 Chinese university learners of English learning a set of 15 English target words. The No-Context group produced significantly better scores on an immediate recall test than the Context group did; and this difference was also observed on post-test administered one week and three weeks later. The findings of his study suggest that decontextualised L2 vocabulary learning with feedback is more effective for these particular students than contextualized vocabulary learning without feedback. He also provided a comprehensive review of research that compares the learning of L2 words in lists and in contexts. Based on the results of this review he argues that most of these data are equivocal, in that it fails to show significant effects for one method over the other. He also challenges the assumption that contextualized vocabulary learning always leads to superior retention.

Also, Rott (1999) studied the effect of frequency with which vocabulary occur in a reading text and the role of reading as an input resource in vocabulary acquisition. Her study examined whether intermediate learners incidentally acquire and retain unknown vocabulary by reading a text. The result of the study indicated that, regarding retention measures on productive vocabulary knowledge, only half of the subjects displayed a significant rate of retention, and on receptive knowledge, all but one experimental group retained vocabularies over four weeks.

Shmidth (1990; cited in Nyiazadeh, 2009), also states that indirect learning is surely passive in that it can occur when the focus of attention is on some relevant emphasize of input. However, he believes that since indirect learning is useful in task-based language, pedagogy is still a fruitful area of investigation. He further notes that there is an argument that maintains what is learned—whether indirect or direct—is what is noticed.

As far as the review of literature is concerned, there are very few studies which have focused on the effect of direct and indirect vocabulary learning strategies in a foreign language in reading comprehension ability in general and Using Mechanical Technique as a direct vocabulary learning strategy versus Cooperating with Peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension skill specifically, in Iran. So with the gap existing in the literature, the present study is aimed at identifying the effect of these two kinds of vocabulary attempting to

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find out which one serves better in enhancing vocabulary storage in reading comprehension skill among pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners.

## **Method**

### *Participants*

The researcher selected 120 EFL university students (mostly in the second semester) based on non-random judgment sampling. They participated voluntarily in a homogeneity test adapted from Objective Placement Test (Lesley, et al 2005) as a homogeneity test and fifty students whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean (M= 30) were selected. Then they were randomly divided into two groups; group A (11 female and 14 male) and group B (10 female and 15 male). The age of the participants generally ranged from 20 to 25.

### *Procedure*

In this study, 120 Iranian university students (mostly in the second semester) who study in a course other than English as their major in Islamic Azad University of Ahvaz, Khuzestan, Iran, were selected. To make sure of the homogeneity of the learners, the researcher used an Objective Placement Test as language proficiency test (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005). Having obtained the scores and the average mean (M = 30) of the scores calculated. Fifty learners whose scores were around the mean were selected. Therefore the twenty five homogeneous pre-intermediate students were selected to utilize Using Mechanical Technique for developing their vocabulary storage in reading comprehension and other twenty five students in group B were assigned as a group B to utilize Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy. In this study, the treatment period lasted for ten sessions. On the first session, the students in A Group received introduction on Using Mechanical Technique and students in group B taught Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy. The procedure was implied by the corresponding researcher (teacher) for both classes. The next section will introduce the treatment period of two strategies briefly.

### *Using mechanical techniques*

To remember what has been read, according to Oxford (1990), mechanical techniques were adjusted as a helpful technique in manipulating, flashcards, with the new word written on one side and the definition written on the other, are both familiar. To contextualize a new expression and get writing practice, learners wrote the new expression in a full sentence on a flash cards. Flashcards were moved from one pile to another depending on how well the learner knew them. Separate sections of the language learning notebook were used useful for words that have been learned and words that had been not reviewed by the learners. Following Oxford (1990), recommendations, the researcher asked students to read and practice the words when they had some free time. For example, they were required to read them on the bus, in lines, etc.

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### ***Cooperating with peers***

As Oxford (1990) mentioned, this strategy involves a concerted effort to work together with other learners on an activity with a common goal. Reading activity, simulations, and other active exercises challenged students to develop their ability to cooperate with peers while using vocabulary learning strategy.

Reading, through usually considered an independent activity, was a cooperative enterprise as well. For example, one student works with his/her group on a English- language on reading activity. Each group member had part of the story to read, and together they figured out the entire story through a process of negotiating, requesting, and cooperating (Oxford, 1990).

### **Results and discussion**

After the treatment, to find out the effectiveness of Using Mechanical Technique and Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension of two groups and compare the improvement in two groups, both groups took part in a post-test of the vocabulary and reading comprehension test after completing the course.

The researchers dealt with comparing vocabulary learning strategy regarding, a parametric technique for analyzing the descriptive data. In this way, the study investigated the role of the Using Mechanical Technique versus Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy through independent samples *t*-test analysis, in order to find out, whether these strategies influence students' vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL university students at the pre-intermediate level of English reading proficiency or not.

To begin with, an independent sample *t*-test analysis was run on the mean score of the two groups. The results of *t*-test analysis for the effect of this strategy in reading comprehension as an independent variable statistically indicated mean differences are shown in Table 1. The data obtained through post-test (Table 1) were analyzed (using SPSS 11.5 software) in different steps.

**Table 1 Result of the *t*-test (post-test of both groups)**

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Group A	25	9.00	26.00	37.00	29.2852	3.8312
Group B	25	13.00	24.00	32.00	25.3178	4.3346

The results of the post-test in the two groups were compared using independent samples *t*-test statistical procedure, whose result showed that the mean scores of the group A ( $M = 29.28$ ,  $SD = 3.83$ ) was significantly different from the group B ( $M = 25.31$ ,  $SD = 4.33$ ). Also the minimum and maximum scores in group A are 26 and 37 while in group B the minimum and maximum scores are 24 and 32. In other words; the group A outperformed the group B on the post-test. In other words, Using Mechanical Technique strategy was more effective than Cooperating with Peers in improvement of vocabulary of Iranian EFL learners at pre-intermediate level.

The findings of this research indicated that Using Mechanical Technique vocabulary learning strategy has positive impact on enhancing vocabulary on reading comprehension of EFL students at pre-intermediate level. With Using Mechanical Technique as a direct teaching strategy, the teacher explicitly introduces the vocabulary and provides the definitions of vocabulary directly and according to the results of this study, Using Mechanical Technique vocabulary learning strategy is an effective strategy comparing to Cooperating with Peers Strategy.

### **Conclusion and Implication**

In order to students match themselves with the suitable and effective strategies, the teachers play the focal role in helping them to select the most appropriate and useful strategy. Using Mechanical Technique strategy because of easy application is suitable and effective in first stages of developing vocabulary of EFL learners comparing to Cooperating with Peers strategy and we experienced it in this study. The results indicate that generally there is a great difference between the group A and the group B performance of the subjects in the learners who were instructed to use Using Mechanical Technique strategy and Cooperating with Peers vocabulary learning strategy. Direct vocabulary learning strategy is the strategies that suggested for learning vocabulary at a particular level of language proficiency such as pre-intermediate level. Concerning the implications related to curriculum developers and material producers it can be stated that they should definitely work in cooperation with both teachers and students. Together with teachers, they should decide what learning strategies they need to identify. It should be the curriculum developers' responsibility to allocate enough time in the curriculum for teachers to conduct strategies research in their classes.

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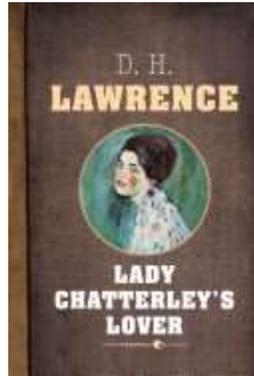
Using Mechanical Technique versus Cooperating with Peers Vocabulary Learning Strategy:

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# A Psychoanalytical Study of D.H. Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*

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## Introduction

D.H. Lawrence is a committed artist who has a great concern for the welfare of the modern generation. He attempts to bring out the unspeakable problems from the unexplored regions of women minds. He believes that modern industry has deprived people of individuality, making them cogs, in the industrial machine, a machine driven by greed. In these light factors, this research paper attempts to study D.H. Lawrence's Chatterley's lover psychoanalytically.

The story concerns a young married woman, Connie, whose upper-class husband, Clifford Chatterley, has been paralyzed from the waist down due to a war injury. Connie's dreams get shattered and she falls into despair. There is a growing distance between husband and wife. A nurse is appointed to take care of her paralyzed husband. Connie's uncontrolled sexual leads her to have an illegal affair with the game keeper, Oliver Mellors. The secret of her pregnancy comes to light when she begs her husband for divorce. But her husband does not accept her request. Mellors is a married man, who is not satisfied with the bedroom performance of his wife. He also expects divorce from his wife. Both Connie and Mellors wait for their betterment.

## Complexity in Human Relationships

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A Psychoanalytical Study of D.H. Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover*



D. H. Lawrence 1885-1930

Courtesy: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/D. H. Lawrence](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/D._H._Lawrence)

D. H. Lawrence explores a wide range of different types of relationships, the void in the relationship between Clifford and his wife Constance Chatterley which is due to the sexual frustration of Lady Chatterley. She realizes that she cannot live with unfulfilled desire. The brutal relationship between Mellors and his wife Bertha is another fine example. Marriage is an important stage in a woman's life which brings all the heavenly pleasures. The Married life of Connie and Clifford is disturbed by the World War I. Clifford is paralyzed from waist down and becomes impotent. Connie is the loser here and her dreams of sex get shattered. They appear happy at day but not at night. Connie is no longer in harmony with the false domestic life. Mellors is also having the same domestic problem. His wife has a poor opinion about his strength at bed and does not want to continue life with him. Connie pleads her husband for divorce but gets rejected. Her husband is content with the company of his nurse. But Connie's relationship with Mellors is so transforming that she comes to reject her old way of life and everything her husband represents. Mellors had given her an exquisite pleasure and a sense of freedom and life. Her choice of Mellors is unavoidable. This kind of complexity in domestic relationships can be seen in every corner of English society. This novel works as an eye-opener for the decaying modern family.

## Depression

Depression is one of the most common mental illness in which a person experiences deep, unshakable sadness and diminished interest in nearly all activities. It affects all people, regardless of sex, race, ethnicity, or socio economic standing. However, women are two to three times more likely than men to suffer from depression. Experts disagree on the reason for this difference. Some cite experiences in hormones, and others point to the stress caused by society's expectations of women. Connie and Bertha are no exceptions. They lead unsuccessful domestic life and their depression is not understood by their husbands.

Living a happy and peaceful life in the earth is not an easy task. Man cannot deny the universal idea that sex is the essence of life. Marriage should bring pleasures to both the body and the mind. Connie and Bertha are disappointed when they realize that their sexual desire is unfulfilled. The Depressed women find no way to make their lives better except rejecting their husbands.

## Conclusion

One may think that Lawrence is sensualist who takes delight in the blatant deception of sex. But nothing could further from the truth. The fact is that Lawrence believes sex and peace of mind to be the centre point of life and an undisputable reality. The psycho sexual emotion is universal. Lawrence encourages us to reassess our place in society and seek out our true natures by experiencing the close, intimate joy two people share in an equal, loving relationship. Few experiences leave us so susceptible and open as when we are in love when the essential truth of being is exposed to another human for evaluation, judgment and hopefully acceptance. The author strongly opposes modern man's way of domestic life.

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# A Good Way for Teaching Vocabulary

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## Abstract

The present research was intended to investigate the effectiveness of foreign language vocabulary acquisition through pictures and short stories. The subjects were divided into four groups as follows:

- a) 15 males in age range of 8-10
- b) 15 females in age range of 8-10
- c) 15 males in age range of 20-30
- d) 15 females in age range of 20-30.

All the participants came from the same linguistic background. In all the groups vocabulary items were presented through pictures and short stories. The treatment of the study took five sessions. The researcher used two similar tests as pretest and posttest. Each of them consisted of 40 vocabularies. After the treatment, the posttest was administered. Then the statistical technique of two-way ANOVA was utilized to analyze the collected data. The results revealed that:

1. Both pictures and short stories are useful in teaching vocabulary items.

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2. Vocabulary acquisition is more facilitated through the use of pictures than short stories.

**Key words: vocabulary, picture, short story**

## **1. Introduction**

Although vocabulary has been the subject of many studies, few researchers have revealed the effective techniques of vocabulary teaching. In this paper, the researchers aimed to do that. Different techniques are used by teachers, such as teaching the word through lists, translation, context, realia and so on. Vocabulary is an inseparable part of any language learning process. It would be impossible to learn a language without vocabulary. "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (Harmer 1993.153). We should keep in our mind, as Ur (1996) stated, one item of vocabulary can consist of more than a single word, e.g. 'mother-in-law' consist of three words and still expresses one idea (p.60). Poor vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL students is a matter of serious concern among those in and around education. Therefore, this study presents short stories and pictures methods in order to find one of the most effective techniques of vocabulary teaching. The best way of teaching can be helpful for teachers, because by using it students and adults learn vocabulary items better.

English is the international language, which is used throughout the world and also English is used in many fields of life such as: in politics, economics, sociology and education. Therefore, English as a language in international communication is clearly needed by many learners to deliver thought and interact in a variety of situation.

Edward (1997) believed vocabulary is one of the important aspects in teaching a language. Therefore, student must keep on learning words as they learn structure and as they practice sound system". Laufer (1997) stated that vocabulary learning is at the heart of language learning and Language use. In fact, it is what makes the essence of a language. Raimes (1983) pointed out that pictures can help the teachers and students in teaching and learning vocabulary, and other components of Language. As a matter of fact pictures can help students to imagine the real Object. There are several advantages of pictures, such as availability in magazines or on the internet. They are cheap, personal( teachers selects them), flexibility- easily kept, useful for various types of activities(comparing, etc), they are always fresh and different, which means they come in a variety of formats and styles and moreover the learner often wonders what comes next (Hill,1990). There are many reasons for using pictures in language teaching. They are motivating and draw learners' attention. And also pictures, being suitable for any group of learners independently on age or level, can be used in lots of various ways.

O'Harra (1984) claimed that context is the statement that includes the word. Sometimes we read words in a written context. So, the paragraph may tell us what the new word means, or enough clues may be provided in the sentence which contains the word; or even one or two nearby words may explain the meaning of a new word we find in the text when reading.

Haji Maibodi (2008) pointed out "Language students need large amounts of comprehensible input, and reading materials provide the most readily available source. Baleghizadeh and et.al. (2011) stated that "there are many techniques employed by teachers in teaching vocabulary and they can improve their learners' knowledge of vocabulary by helping them in building a large number of words to choose from anytime they want to

convey their intended message in different contexts.” Therefore, familiarize English learners with useful strategies is necessary for them to expand their vocabulary knowledge.

Rashidi and et.al. (2010) pointed out “Recent research on second language vocabulary learning confirms the great contribution of reading to incidental vocabulary learning (Nagy, Anderson, and Herman, 1987). “During reading, new word meanings are derived and learned even though the purpose is not the learning new vocabulary” (Swanborn and de Gloppe, 2002, pp. 95-6). Collie and Slater (1991), list four advantages of using short stories for language teachers. “First, short stories are practical as their length is long enough to cover entirely in one or two class sessions. Second, short stories are not complicated for students to work with on their own. Third, short stories have a variety of choice for different interests and tastes. Finally, short stories can be used with all levels (beginner to advance) all ages (young learners to adults) and all classes” (p.196)

Because of the significant role and effect of vocabulary in language learning, moreover the present study, several studies have been done by educational researchers in this area, e.g. Mohseni-far (2008) has revealed that “vocabulary acquisition can be best conceived as a process in which L2 learners negotiate word meaning from a text level to a word level. This shift is necessary so that the learner can form a mental connection between the word form and his/her meaning premise.” Haji Maibodi (2008) has done a research around current topic and concluded that “the narrative text genre is more effective than an expository genre especially during the beginning stages of language learning.”

Bromley (2007) in his research about vocabulary instruction has reached to this conclusion “overuse of dictionary hunting, definition writing, or teacher explanation can turn students off learning new words and does not necessarily result in better comprehension or learning. Word learning is a complicated process. It requires giving students a variety of

opportunities to connect new words to related words, analyze word structure, understand multiple meanings and use word actively in authentic ways. The goal of vocabulary instruction should be to build students' independent word learning strategies that can empower them for lifelong learning.”

In line with the pedagogical objectives of the study, the present researcher has formulated the following hypotheses:

1. The use of pictures and short stories is very effective in vocabulary acquisition.
2. Vocabulary acquisition through pictures differs significantly from vocabulary acquisition through short stories.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1. Subjects**

The participants of this study were 60 children and adults (30 males and 30 females). They were selected randomly from some elementary and high schools of Arak (one of the industrial cities of Iran). Children were divided into two groups as: 15 males and 15 females within the age range of 8-12. The adults were also divided into 15 males and 15 females within the age range of 20-30. By the use of proficiency test, the current researcher homogenized the subjects' proficiency level.

### **2.2. Instruments**

The different instruments used in this thesis include:

1. **A Background questionnaire** that elicits demographic information concerning the subjects' socio-educational backgrounds.

2. **A vocabulary test** that used as a pre-test before the treatment and also post-test after the treatment. It was contain 40 vocabulary items. Exactly 20 relevant pictures and a short story that used in the part of treatment of this research, too.

### **2.3. Procedure**

Students were divided into 4 groups as follows:

- a) 15 males in age range of 8-10
- b) 15 females in age range of 8-12
- c) 15 males in age range of 20-30
- d) 15 females in age range of 20-30.

All these groups were invited to take part in pretest which took half an hour. Through a pilot test on the 40 mentioned words the present researchers separated the total number of appropriate words according to the subjects' level. Its reliability was also estimated by the KR-21 formula. After that, teacher taught the words in three sessions. Each session took one hour and a half. Some of the identified words were presented by pictures while some others were taught in short stories. At the end of the treatment, the subjects were invited to take part in the post-test. On the basis of these tests the efficacy of the two methods of vocabulary teaching was determined.

### **3. Results and Discussion**

**Table 1**

**The mean of English vocabulary acquisition through pictures and short story between males and females**

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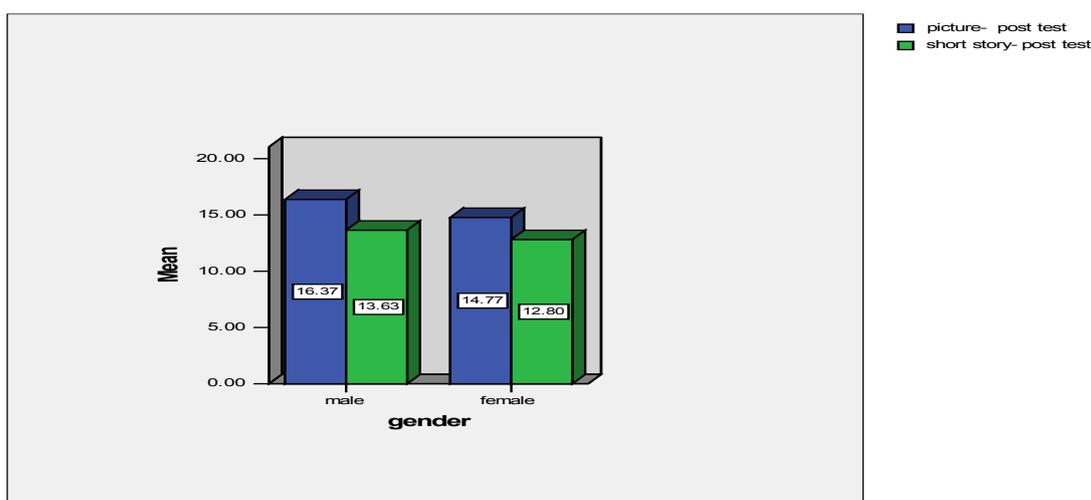
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**Group Statistics**

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
picture- post test	male	30	16.3667	3.53781	.64591
	female	30	14.7667	3.57851	.65334
short story-post test	male	30	13.6333	4.02992	.73576
	female	30	12.8000	3.80924	.69547

**Figure 1**



As shown in table 1, there is a difference between males and females mean scores on "picture posttest" (16.36 and 14.76) and "short story posttest" (13.63 and 12.80). These scores have proved that both males and females have performed better in picture-posttest than in short story one.

**Table 2**

**The mean of English vocabulary acquisition through picture and short story between children and adults**

**Group Statistics**

	age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
picture- post test	children	30	16.6000	2.98964	.54583
	adults	30	14.5333	3.93686	.71877
short story- post test	children	30	14.3333	3.98561	.72767
	adults	30	12.1000	3.55596	.64923

**Figure 2**

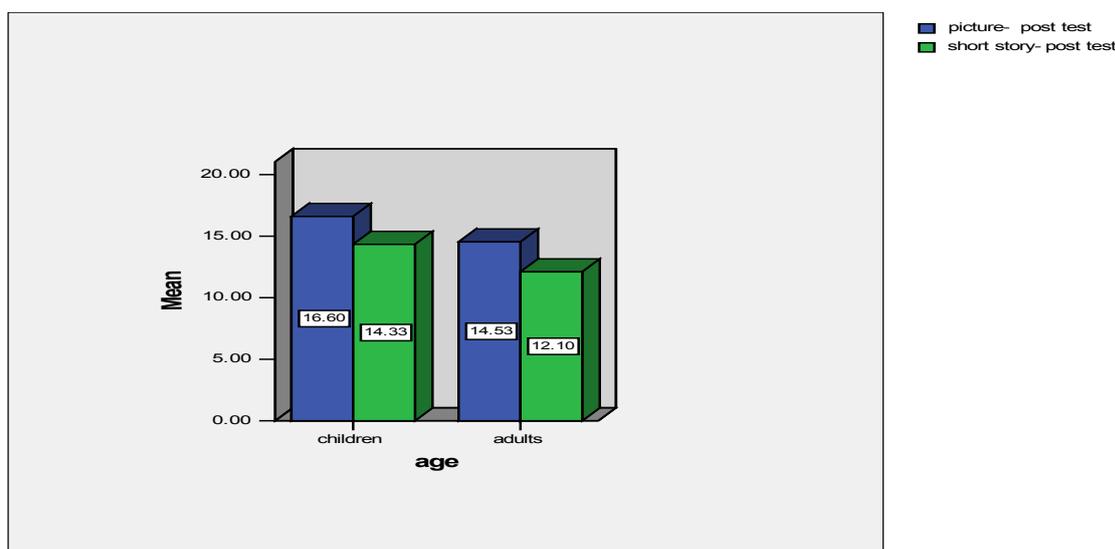


Table 2 indicates the difference between children and adults in picture-posttest and short story-posttest. Children have performed better in acquiring vocabulary through the use of pictures rather than the use of short story. That is the same with adults in both the use of pictures and short story in vocabulary acquisition. That is, adults who learned vocabulary through the use of pictures surpassed the adults who learned the vocabulary through the use of short story.

**Table 3**

**The use of pictures and short stories is very effective in vocabulary acquisition.**

**T-Test**

**Paired Samples Statistics**

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 pre test	3.2667	60	1.13297	.14627
post test	28.7833	60	7.01594	.90575

**Paired Samples Test**

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pre test - post test	-25.5167	6.86305	.88602	-27.2896	-23.7438	-28.799	59	.000

According to table 3, it was understood that the mean score of posttest ( $\bar{x}=28.78$ ) was significantly more than that of pretest ( $\bar{x} =3.26$ ). As  $\text{sig}=0 < 0.05$ , the assumption of equal mean in pretest and posttest was rejected. So the H1 is accepted. It means that both pictures and short stories have effect on vocabulary acquisition.

**Table 4**

**Vocabulary acquisition through pictures differ significantly from vocabulary acquisition through short story**

**T-Test**

**Paired Samples Statistics**

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 picture- post test	15.5667	60	3.61900	.46721
short story-post test	13.2167	60	3.91040	.50483

**Paired Samples Correlations**

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 picture- post test & short story-post test	60	.736	.000

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	picture- post test - short story-post test	2.35000	2.74834	.35481	1.64003	3.05997	6.623	59	.000

Another T-test was done to examine second research hypothesis (vocabulary acquisition through pictures differ significantly from vocabulary acquisition through short stories). Table 4 "paired samples statistics", shown that the mean score of pictures ( $\bar{x} = 5.56$ ) was more than that of short story ( $\bar{x} = 13.21$ ). Table "paired samples correction" confirmed the correlation between these two variables. According to "paired sample test" sig = 0 < 0.05 therefore, the supposition of equal mean in picture and short story was rejected. Hence, the second hypothesis was accepted.

Regarding the third hypothesis (learners' age and gender have effect on their English vocabulary acquisition), the researcher applied two-way ANOVA to analyze related data. There must be two stipulations to use this statistic analyses:

- 1- The dependent variable is normally distributed in each group.
- 2- Variance in the dependent variable is the same in all cells.

### Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors				
			Value Label	N
age	1.00		children	30
	2.00		adults	30
gender	1.00		male	30
	2.00		female	30

Table 5

## Learners' age and gender have effect on their English vocabulary acquisition

### Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: post test

age	gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
children	male	30.2667	7.34328	15
	female	31.6000	5.86515	15
	Total	30.9333	6.56497	30
adults	male	29.7333	6.99456	15
	female	23.5333	5.37011	15
	Total	26.6333	6.89069	30
Total	male	30.0000	7.05153	30
	female	27.5667	6.88168	30
	Total	28.7833	7.01594	60

As the table 5, "descriptive statistics", shows the mean score of vocabulary acquisition in children ( $\bar{x} = 30.933$ ) is higher than that of adults ( $\bar{x} = 26.633$ ). Mean score of females is ( $\bar{x} = 31.6$ ) and in males is ( $\bar{x} = 30.266$ ). The difference is not statically meaningful. That is even though the mean scores of females were higher than that of males, indicated that females outperformed the males on vocabulary acquisition. But in adults this difference was statistically meaningful. The mean value in males was  $\bar{x} = 23.53$  that indicated males were better than females in learning vocabulary. Finally, it is understood that males' mean score ( $\bar{x} = 30.00$ ) were higher than that of women ( $\bar{x} = 27.56$ ) in vocabulary acquisition.

#### 4. Conclusion and Implication

The main aim of the present study was to reveal the best and useful way of teaching English vocabulary items to children and adults. To carry out this study, first 60 participants (males and females) were randomly selected from elementary and high schools of Arak. A pretest was administered to all subjects, then the treatment was applied for three sessions. After a week break, the subjects were invited to the posttest. Statistical analysis including t-

test, two-way ANOVA and descriptive statistic revealed that there were significant differences in teaching English vocabulary through pictures and short story.

In this research, there were two hypotheses as given below:

*H<sub>1</sub>- The use of pictures and short stories is very effective in vocabulary acquisition.*

*H<sub>2</sub>-Vocabulary acquisition through pictures differs significantly from vocabulary acquisition through short story.*

The results and findings of the statistical analyses are as follows:

1. H<sub>1</sub> was accepted, indicating that both pictures and short stories are useful in teaching vocabulary items.
2. H<sub>2</sub> was accepted. It means the use of picture in teaching vocabulary is more effective than that of short story.

In order for the learners to achieve the best results, all teachers must equip themselves with up-to-date techniques. So, the results of present research can be valuable for language teachers and those dealing with foreign language teaching. Also, it is useful for parents to know how help their children to learn vocabulary better. In addition, people can know in every level of age, which method is more helpful.

Therefore, the best way to teach English vocabulary items is the use of picture.

Based on the results of the current study, it was found out that:

1. The use of pictures makes class more active and alive.
2. The use of pictures could attract the students' curiosity in learning vocabulary.

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# Language Acquisition Forum through Communicative Language Teaching

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## Abstract

Communication is essentially personal, the expression of personal needs, feelings, experiences and knowledge, in situations that are never quite the same. Language is the most important tool of communication. The ever growing need for good communication skills in English has created a huge demand for English teaching around the world. The world- wide demand for English has created demand for quality language teaching and language teaching materials. Learners set themselves demanding goals. The demand for an appropriate teaching methodology is therefore as strong as ever. Perhaps the majority of language teachers today identify “Communicative” as the methodology of choice. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the class room. Our understanding of the processes of second language learning has changed considerably in the last 30 years and CLT is partly a response to these changes in understanding. In this paper we will examine the methodology known as CLT, its trends and classroom activities to language teaching today.

## Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has enormous intuitive appeal. A great deal of CLT is based on essentially a view of second language (L2) acquisition. CLT sets as its goals the teaching of communicative competence. Perhaps we can clarify this term by first comparing it with the concept of grammatical competence. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language. It refers to knowledge of the building blocks of sentences (e.g. parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses, sentence patterns) and how sentences are formed. Grammatical competence is the focus

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of many grammar practice books, which typically present a rule of grammar on one page, and provide exercises to practice using the rule on the other page. The unit of analysis and practice is typically the sentence. While grammatical competence is an important dimension of language learning; it is clearly not all that is involved in learning a language since one can master the rules of sentence formation in a language and still not be very successful at being able to use the language for meaningful communication. It is the latter capacity which is understood by the term *communicative competence*.

### **Communicative Competence**

Communicative Competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge:

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants(e.g. knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication)
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts(e.g. narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge(e.g. through using different kinds of communication strategies)

### **Language Learning Process through CLT**

Language Learning was viewed as a process of mechanical habit formation. In recent years language learning has been viewed from a very different perspective. It is seen as resulting from processes of the following kind:

- Interaction between the learner and the users of the language
- Collaborative creation of meaning
- Creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language
- Negotiation of meaning as the learner and his or her interlocutor arrive at understanding

- Learning through attending to the feedback learners get when they use the language
- Paying attention to the language one hears( the input) and trying to incorporate new forms into one's developing communicative competence
- Trying out and experimenting with different ways of saying things.

### **Classroom Activities in CLT**

Since the advent of CLT, teachers and materials' writers have sought to find ways of developing classroom activities that reflected the principles of a communicative methodology. The main activity types that were one of the outcomes of CLT are:

- Accuracy versus fluency activities
- Mechanical, meaningful and communicative practice
- Information-gap activities
- Jig-saw activities

#### ➤ **Accuracy versus fluency activities**

One of the goals of CLT is to develop fluency in language use. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence. Fluency practice can be contrasted with accuracy practice, which focuses on creating correct examples of language use. Difference between activities that focus on fluency and those that focus on accuracy can be summarized as follows:

#### **Activities focusing on fluency**

- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable

- Seek to link language use of context

### **Activities focusing on accuracy**

- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language
- Do not require meaningful communication
- Choice of language is controlled

### ➤ **Mechanical, Meaningful and Communicative Practice**

**Mechanical practice** refers to a controlled practice activity which students can successfully carry out without necessarily understanding the language they are using. Examples of this kind of activity would be repetition drills and substitution drills designed to practice use of particular grammatical or other items.

**Meaningful practice** refers to an activity where language control is still provided but where students are required to make meaningful choices when carrying out practice. For example, in order to practice the use of prepositions to describe to describe locations of places, students might be given a street map with various buildings identified in different locations. They are also given a list of prepositions such as across from, on the corner of, near to, next to. They then have to answer questions such as “Where is the book shop? Where is the café?”etc. The practice is now meaningful because they have to respond according to the location of places on the map.

**Communicative practice** refers to the activities where practice in using language within a real communication context is the focus, where real information is exchanged, and where the language used is not totally predictable. For example students might have to draw a map of their neighborhood and answer questions about the location of different places in their neighborhood, such as the nearest bus stop, the nearest café, etc.

### ➤ **Information-gap Activities**

An important aspect of communication in CLT is the notion of information gap. This refers to the fact that in real communication people normally communicate in order to get information they do not possess. This is known as an information-gap. More authentic communication is likely to occur in the classroom if students go beyond practice of language forms for their own sake and use their linguistic and communicative resources in order to obtain information.

### ➤ **Jig-Saw Activities**

These are also based on the information-gap principle. Typically the class is divided into groups and each group has part of the information needed to complete an activity. The class must fit the pieces together to complete the whole. In doing so they must use their language resources to communicate meaningfully and so take part in meaningful communication practice.

## **Current Trends in Communicative Language Teaching**

Since the 1990's the communicative approach has been widely implemented. Because it describe the set of very general principles grounded in the notion of communicative competence as the goal of second and foreign language teaching. Current communicative language teaching theory and practice thus draws on a number of different educational paradigms and traditions.

The following core assumption or variance of them underlies current practices in CLT:

- Second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication
- Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful intrapersonal exchange.
- Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting and engaging.

- Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities
- Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.
- Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.
- Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.
- Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies
- The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.
- The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

## Conclusion

Communicative Language Teaching sources of influence will doubtless continue to shape other approaches to language teaching in the future. However, CLT depends ultimately on the extent to which major stakeholders in the language teaching enterprise feel that is successful in achieving the goals set for language teaching programs in their contexts.

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# The Comparison between Executive Interpreting and Simultaneous Interpreting in Learning Vocabulary by EFL Learners

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## Interpreting is a Language Skill

Interpreting is a language skill that a student can acquire consciously or unconsciously through an intensive process of learning, training, and experiencing in a formal classroom, in a set-up situation, or in a real-life situation. In consecutive interpreting the interpreter listens to a speech while taking notes. When the speaker has finished, the interpreter stands up and delivers the speech in his or her native language. In simultaneous interpreting the listener hears the interpretation at the same time as the speech is made.

## Focus of This Study

In this study the effect of teaching executive interpreting in comparison to simultaneous interpreting on vocabulary acquisition in respect of gender of the subjects was investigated. To meet the aim, sixty four Iranian EFL students (32 males and 32 females), majoring in translation English as a Foreign Language at the Arak University participated in this study. Up to this level, students are exposed to a semi-real life situation where they are listening to different English native speaker dialects through the prepared tapes/CDs and VCDs. After that one group which has written notes about their listening, spoken based on their notes and another group spoken about what they are heard. Then on the basis of special vocabulary which both group listened, the researchers have taken vocabulary test. By employing t-test, students differed significantly in their vocabulary scores. It means students who are exposed to executive interpreting gained better score than another group. On the other hand, female had better scores in vocabulary test rather than male students.

**Key terms:** Executive Interpreting, simultaneous interpreting, vocabulary acquisition, English as a foreign language.

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## 1. Introduction

Translation is a two-way device because it involves a comparison between two languages. Different approaches have been taken to Translation Studies, from the earlier workshop approach, the philosophical and linguistic approach, the functionalist approaches, to Descriptive Translation Studies, the post- structuralism and post-modernist approaches, and the cultural studies approach (Munday,2001; Richard Xiao,2008). Translation theories develop quickly, but practice, especially the translation teaching, is lagging far behind the theories. (Dai Guangrong, 2009). Today, interest in the field has never been stronger and the study of translation is taking place alongside an increase in its practice all over the world. Translators Through History (1995), Margareta Bowen, David Bowen, Francine Kaufmann and Ingrid Kurz provide fascinating and detailed account of interpreters down through the ages (Mary Phelan,2001).

Translation demands attention to detail and a complete mastery of language. If you have these attributes, translation is a rewarding and varied career choice. It simply involves translating a text from one language into another language. The source material may range from subtitles for an advert, to a death certificate, and everything in between ( Ben Davies,2010).

Interpreting takes place when one person translates orally what he or she hears in another language. Many people are confused about the difference between translating and interpreting. The difference is quite simple: a translation is written down whereas interpreting is spoken. There are two types of interpreting which are as given below:

### 1.2.Simultaneous Interpreting

In simultaneous interpreting the listener hears the interpretation at the same time as the speech is made. The interpreter sits in a booth wearing headphones with a microphone. There is a booth for each language and two or sometimes three interpreters in each booth.

The interpreter hears the speech through the headphones and simultaneously interprets. In some cases interpretation is recorded but the interpreters' permission is required for this. The booth contains a button for volume control, a mute button and a relay button. If the interpreter needs to cough he or she presses the mute button so that the audience will not hear. Meanwhile the listeners are equipped with headphones that they can switch to the language they require. The relay button is switched on to listen to an interpretation from another booth. Simultaneous interpreters need to have a clear view of the speaker and of any slides, transparencies or videos that may be shown at the conference. Laptop computers are being used more and these allow the interpreter to access terminology bases very quickly (Mary Phelan, 2001).

### **1.3. Consecutive Interpreting**

In consecutive interpreting the interpreter listens to a speech while taking notes. When the speaker has finished, the interpreter stands up and delivers the speech in his or her native language. The speech could be as long as fifteen minutes nowadays although in the past thirty minutes was not unusual. The interpretation is not a summary; it is a complete rendition of the original speech in another language. Obviously this method is time consuming as the time element is almost doubled.

In consecutive interpreting, a clear division of the skills involved in interpreting can be seen. Apart from knowledge of the language, memory, concentration and understanding are important factors (Mary Phelan, 2001).

Margareta Bowen *et al.* relate how in the 1920s another milestone was reached with the invention of equipment for simultaneous interpreting by Edward Filene, a businessman, Gordon Finlay, an electrical engineer and Thomas Watson, the president of IBM. Simultaneous interpreting was first used at the International Labour Organization Conference in Geneva in 1927. However, technical difficulties meant that almost twenty years would elapse before simultaneous interpreting was provided in English, French, German and Russian at the Nuremberg Trials, which lasted from November 1945 to October 1946.

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#### **1.4. Focus of This Study**

This study is trying to find out the different effect of two types of interpreting on enhancing the process of learning vocabulary in EFL learners .There fore, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H1:There is significance difference between Executive interpreting and Simultaneous Interpreting vocabulary scores of EFL learners.

H2:Learners who use Executive interpreting can gain better score in vocabulary test rather than learners who use Simultaneous Interpreting.

H3:By regarding to teaching vocabulary by Executive interpreting and Simultaneous Interpreting, female learners have better score in vocabulary test than male learners.

## **2. Method**

### **2.1. Participants**

The subjects of this study were sixty-four Iranian EFL students (32 males and 32 females), majoring in translation English as a Foreign Language at the Arak University .

### **2.2. Instrumentation**

The following instruments were used in this study:

#### **a) Language Proficiency Test**

In order to make sure of the homogeneity of both groups in terms of their English language knowledge, Nelson test of proficiency was employed. The time allotted was 45 minutes. The reliability of the test scores according to the KR-21 formula turned out to be 73.75.

#### **b) A background questionnaire**

In order to elicit subjective information about participants, a background questionnaire was developed by the investigator. It covered issues such as the subjects' age, their parents' socio-educational background and occupation.

#### **c) Tape Player / CD Player**

In order to check the effect of Executive and Simultaneous Interpreting, students are exposed to listening different English native speaker dialects through the prepared tapes/CDs and VCDs.

#### **d) Vocabulary test**

After listening to CDs and VCDs based on different English native speaker dialects, the researchers took vocabulary test. So, the vocabulary was taken from the tape which learners have listened to before the test.

### **2.3. Procedure**

In the process of carrying out the study, the researchers took the following procedures to achieve the objectives of the current study. So, the whole study was completed in five phases as given below:

*Phase 1:* In this phase the Nelson Proficiency Test (Series 400B) was administered to 95 male and female students who have studied English translation in university. They answered questions in 30 minutes. Out of this number 64 of students whose scores were above the mean were selected for the purpose of this study.

*Phase 2:* In order to know some main characteristics of participants , the researchers first have used background questionnaire which was included some questions about age , their parents' socio-educational background and occupation. On the basis of their answers, they divided into two groups that each group was consist of 32 students , half of each group were male and other half were female.

*Phase 3:* All subjects were exposed to a semi-real life situation where they are listening to different English native speaker dialects through the prepared tapes/CDs and VCDs .This part took for 25 minutes.

*Phase 4:* Half of the subjects have spoken after their listening and others also spoke but by using their notes.

*Phase 5:* In next stage, the researchers administered vocabulary test which based on special content in tapes and CDs.

## 2.4. Results and discussions

Independent samples 't' test was employed to compare the mean scores of subjects who were exposed to Executive and Simultaneous Interpreting. As represented in table1, the mean score for vocabulary test for students was 21.02 and also standard deviation was 3.689, but in table2, the difference in score between two groups was clear.

### T-Test

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	64	21.02	3.689	.476

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**Table1:Mean vocabulary scores for all students.**

In general, for test value of 20 because Mean difference was 1.017 , so sig=.037<.05 which shows that there is significance difference between score of two groups .Therefore the hypothesis

**Table2:One-Sample Test for each group who were exposed to executive and Simultaneous Interpreting.**

1 was accepted . on the other hand, as its clear in table2, students who were exposed to executive interpreting could get better score than another group who were exposed to Simultaneous interpreting.

As its clear in table3,females score in vocabulary test was better than males score. So  $t_1=9.179$  was belong to female and  $t_2=8.643$  was belong to male. The researchers concluded that:

, so hypothesis3 was accepted because female could get better result in vocabulary  $|t_1| > |t_2|$  test than male students.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	32	20.60	3.549	.648

	Test Value = 15					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Value	8.643	29	.000	5.600	4.27	6.93

**Table3 :T-Test for male**

$|t| = 8.643$

Sig=.000<.05

### One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	32	21.43	3.839	.701

### One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 15					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Value	9.179	29	.000	6.433	5.00	7.87

**Table4:T-Test for Female**

$$|t| = 9.179$$

$$\text{Sig}=.000<.05$$

### 3. Conclusions and implications

This study was intended to increase awareness about two types of interpreting method and difference between executive and simultaneous interpreting. So, there were three hypotheses which all of them were accepted.

First hypothesis has shown the significance difference between learner's vocabulary scores by regarding to their teaching vocabulary by executive and simultaneous interpreting. The researchers have used t-test for measuring interval scores between two groups. As table 1 indicated this distinction was clear .In second hypothesis, the researchers have emphasized the priority of executive interpreting than simultaneous interpreting in vocabulary scores of learners. This claim was verified by vocabulary test after learners were exposed to two types of interpreting which it's obvious in table 2. So, writing main points can improve learning

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vocabulary in learners. In third hypothesis, the researchers have focused on gender of learners. They assumed that female can get better mark than male in vocabulary test. As its clear in table 3, female could get better score than male , so the third hypothesis was accepted too.

By considering three hypotheses, it has been found that through executive interpreting, students could learn more vocabulary than simultaneous interpreting. However, the interesting thing in this study is that females had better score in vocabulary test than male learners.

It is concluded that when learners have this opportunity to write down main points and vocabularies while they are listening to tapes or VCDs, they could memorize materials better than when they express materials simultaneously.

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# The B.Ed. Institutions in Assam: A Need Based Analysis

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## Abstract

Teacher education as its name suggests is meant for prospective and in-service teachers and is considered as a highly professional course in India to pursue quality training for effective teaching at school after completing the graduation (10+2+3) with minimum qualifying marks. Each society needs effective teachers for the young generation to grow with meaningful education. The constitution of India and the central and state policies have given special emphasis on teacher development and on effective teaching. On the basis of importance assigned, a society also requires the appropriate amount of teacher training institutions to develop the personality of the teachers as well as their teachings. In Assam, such institutions are very few in comparison to most of the states of India and also these colleges are not properly distributed in every part of Assam. Some of the important parts/places are still unnoticed. The present study aims to explore such places with the study of population and need. Along with this, she also intends to state the opinions of outside teacher-trainees who are attending the training programme with much struggle. To collect the relevant data the researcher has visited 15 B. Ed Colleges out of 51 in different places of Assam. In this paper, she also discusses some ongoing problems of pupils due to the limited teacher education institutions (B. Ed) in this state that could be a barrier for continuing professional development of a teacher.

**Key Words:** Teacher education, professional development, intake, population, in-service teacher, pre-service teacher etc.

## Introduction

The teaching profession is an area where largest numbers of teachers are recruited

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compared to other professions in India. It is a noble profession for the ideal persons. The teacher serves education which is an effective instrument of man-making. He/she reflects the socio-cultural ethos in the society. Infact the development of society is dependent on the effectiveness of his/her teaching. A teacher-training offers various teaching skills for effective teaching along with career up gradation.

Teaching of a teacher is not an inborn quality nor does a teacher know teaching craftsman of his own. He/she needs to study the techniques and methods of teaching. According to Broko and Putnam (1995), “Professional development programmes play an essential role in teachers’ career, and changes teachers’ methodologies. It revolutionizes the entire education system and makes the classroom active than ever before.”

In Assam, the first teacher education institution was St Edmund College established in 1936 at Shillong when Shillong was in Assam. In 1937, the St Mary’s College had started B.T. classes. Gauhati University established the B.T. section in 1949. During this period, the growth of B.Ed. colleges was very poor. Only a few colleges were established to impart the B.Ed. programme. In 1957, the first full-fledged B.T. College was set up at Jorhat. Dibrugarh University established the B.T. section along with the education department in 1965. However, B.T. course under Assam University was established far later. In Assam, first private B.T. College was Banikanta B.T. College established at Guwahati in 1966. Now it is upgraded as Institute of Advanced Studies (IAS). The growth of teacher education was mushrooming after the late eighties when many B.Ed. colleges under private sector were established. As a result the quality assurance of these colleges degraded the training programme. Meanwhile, the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) as a non-statutory body (1973-1993) took several steps for quality improvement in teacher education. It began to grant recognition on the basis of certain laid down norms and standards. Hence, the number of B.Ed. colleges started declining in Assam, i.e. from 65 to 51. (NCTE document, 2012). Of these colleges, only 9 are run by the govt. of Assam under CTE scheme sponsored by MHRD dept. of Education. Assam has only 27 districts (2012), yet, the 51 colleges are found not distributed uniformly. Some districts of Assam have got more teacher training institutions while some others do

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not have many. It is also a regrettable fact that some of the important places do not have a single institution to carry this professional course.

The Secondary Education Commission (1953) observed that a major factor responsible for the educational reconstruction at the secondary stage is teachers' professional training. (Khan, 2010). This professional training can be pursued by the teachers mainly on two conditions: its availability and its applicability. A teacher can attempt to continue his/her continuing professional development at any time if it is available closely. And secondly, the teachers will always be motivated to join those programmes which are applicable in the real situation, such classroom practice, unit plans or useful in getting promotion, etc. During the last few years, lots of changes are seen around us such as social, economic, political, cultural, scientific and technological, etc. These changes directly/indirectly pressurize the entire education system. It necessitates the type of education to be developed at every stage of education, i.e., in the elementary education, secondary education and in the higher education. For the secondary stage, in Assam, like all the states of India, teacher education is made compulsory for the recruitment of teachers. In the other schools like Kendriya Vidyalayas and Nabodaya schools, without meeting the qualification requirements, nobody is appointed. To fulfill these requirements, the B.Ed. Institutions need to be increased with proper intake and equipments.

### **Rationale of the Study**

The teacher education institutions in Assam are less in number and these institutions are not equally distributed to the different parts of Assam. The rationale for these critical statements has emerged because of the insufficient number of colleges with insufficient intake as against the population and educational needs.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The following objectives are formulated to provide structure to my paper. It aims-

1. To explore the areas of Assam where disparity occurs in the establishment of

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- B. Ed colleges. (Document study)
2. To explore the prospective and in-service teachers' view on the extension of B.Ed. colleges in Assam. (Sample survey)
  3. To explore some ongoing problems due to the limited number of teacher education institutions in Assam. (Sample survey)

## **Methodology**

As this work is in the nature of an analytical study, the researcher has adopted the following methodology to study the problem, choosing the sample and collecting and analyzing the relevant data:

- a. **Document analysis:** The researcher has studied the recent NCTE document to collect records of NCTE recognized B.Ed. colleges in Assam with the population of each district. The analysis is concerned with the explanation of present problems only.
- b. **Sample:** The researcher had selected 15 NCTE recognized B.Ed. colleges out of 51 from the different parts of Assam. She has collected relevant data and information from pre-service and in-service trainees of those particular institutions.
- c. **Tools:** For conducting the field study, the following tools and techniques were used:
  - Questionnaire
  - Opinionnaire, and
  - Interview

## Analysis of Document

**Table 1:** District wise distribution of B. Ed colleges in Assam

Sl. No.	District	Total no. of B. Ed Institutions	Total Intake	Total Population(2011)
1.	Baksa	0	0	9,53,773
2.	Barpeta	3	250	16,93,190
3.	Bongaigaon	1	100	7,32,639
4.	Cachar	3	240	17,36,319
5.	Chirang	0	0	4,81,818
6.	Darrang	4	360	9,08,090
7.	Dibrugarh	3	210	13,27,748
8.	Dima Hasao	0	0	2,13,529
9.	Dhemaji	1	60	6,88,077
10.	Dhuburi	1	100	19,48,632
11.	Goalpara	1	70	10,08,959
12.	Golaghat	1	100	10,58,674
13.	Hailakandi	2	150	6,59,260
14.	Jorhat	2	160	10,91,295
15.	Kokrajhar	2	170	8,86,999
16.	Kamrup (M)	7	700	12,60,419
17.	Kamrup (R)	5	500	15,17,202
18.	Karbi-Anglong	1	100	9,65,280
19.	Karimganj	2	120	12,17,002
20.	Lakhimpur	2	120	10,40,644
21.	Morigaon	1	100	9,57,853
22.	Nagaon	4	360	28,26,006
23.	Nalbari	1	60	7,69,919
24.	Odalguri	0	0	8,32,769
25.	Sibsagar	0	0	11,50,253
26.	Sonitpur	2	120	19,25,975

27.	Tinisukia	2	160	13,16,948
		51	4310	3,11,69,272

**Table 1:** Here, we have seen that the five districts: Baksa, Chirang, Dima Hasao, Odalguri and Sibsagar do not have single B.Ed. Colleges. The population in these districts is high. Nagaon district has the highest population in Assam, i.e. 28.3 lakh, where we get only four B.Ed. colleges. On the contrary Kamrup (M) has less than half of the total population of Nagaon i.e. 12.6 lakh, but the highest number of B.Ed. colleges, i.e., 7 colleges, are established here. It may be a matter of fact that Gauhati is the capital of Assam and it is in Kamrup district, so definitely it could have such large number of colleges. But it is a matter of regret that though Sibsagar is a place of historical importance, culturally rich and has many fields for educational researches, does not have any B. Ed. Institution whereas the population of this district is 11.5 lakh. The districts Baksa, Chirang, Dima Hasao, and Odalguri are places where many deprived social groups or backward people live. Education of these people is very poor. They are also geographically affected by flood and erosion. Apart from this, the most important thing is that this north part of Assam is considered red alert area where many incidents of terrorism, clashes and riots among or between the people of different social groups living here took place. They need special attention from the educationists, policy makers, social thinkers, political thinkers, and of course government of state as well as from the central government. The special education for teachers may help them to improve the society along with constant introspection of their thinking attitude and behaviour. The B. Ed Colleges in these areas of about 24.7 lakh people are highly recommended.

### **Findings from the Sample Survey**

1. Cent percent students opine that there should be more B. Ed Colleges in Assam, at least 2 Institutions in each district, to offer quality training to the trainees, to get easy access to it, to fulfill the government criteria and to meet the prospective teachers' requirement.
2. 100% students agree that Teacher Education is an important way for continuing

- professional development of teachers. They need better institution to improve their personality as well as practical knowledge of effective teaching.
3. In-service teachers have a hectic schedule in their schools. To obtain this qualification they need nearby institutions, available study materials and evening shift classes. Because once entering into the job means to stick to that. No teacher would be permitted to take leave for one year and complete the course. This necessitates the extension of B. Ed College in the adjacent area.
  4. 50% of the trainees opine that they have to face lots of struggle to get admission for the course. Since the B. Ed programme is made compulsory to appoint a teacher, the prospective teachers need to go different places in search of admission. Because in most of the places or in rural areas the B. Ed colleges are not available and the intake of these colleges are limited only to 60-100.
  5. Except Dibrugarh University, no accommodation facility was found in any other visited institutions. This summarizes that almost all the institutions of teacher education cannot provide accommodation for outsiders properly. They have to manage their food and lodge of their own.
  6. Some students opine that fee structure of B. Ed programme increases day by day. Some of the private institutions charge too much to get admission in the college. These kinds of off-screen problems can be solved by widening the programme.
  7. In most of the visited B. Ed colleges, almost 30% of the total students remain irregular due to the inconvenient time, place and that of the give and take policy. The teacher and students both remain managed (!) to run the programme. Thus, Assam needs revolutionized B. Ed colleges, to improve the quality of teachers in a right sense.

## **Conclusion**

Teacher education is now widely spread all over the world and can also be recognized as a part of higher education. India has made considerable progress in providing this professional training to pre-service and in-service teachers. Assam has not progressed in this field in comparison to other states of India. Thousands of untrained teachers were

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appointed in schools before being made the B. Ed training compulsory. Those teachers are needed to be trained to update them with present requirement. The present scenario of teacher education in Assam is completely in disarray, as said by Mahanta (2012) that leads to unethical act by some of the private institutions or even by some of the working teachers who desperately need a B. Ed degree at an exorbitant rate. This kind of activities should be noticed by NCTE and ban those colleges as immediately as possible. We need corrupt free well equipped modern classroom to get quality training. It should be increased proportionately to lessen the hurdles of students and should establish at those areas where it is highly needed.

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# A Comparison on the Use of Language Learning Strategies by Male and Female Vietnamese Tertiary Students of Non-English Majors

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## Abstract

This article reports research on the similarities and differences in the frequency of strategy use for EFL learning by 50 male and 50 female Vietnamese first-year-students at HoChiMinh City University of Natural Resources and Environment in Vietnam. Using Oxford's (1990) SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) Version 7.0 as the questionnaire in English and Vietnamese, the study found that both male and female Vietnamese students reported a medium frequency for the use of language learning strategies although the reported strategy use was greater for males than females. The female Vietnamese learners tended to use indirect strategies more often and direct strategies less often than the males did. Compensation and social strategies were remarkably preferred by the males while memory and affective strategies were most employed by the females.

**Keywords:** language learning strategies, males, females, Vietnamese

## 1. Introduction

Learners may have their own learning strategies, some of which can be employed to learn a second language. It is crucially important to make students aware that there may be some other better language learning strategies (LLS) than their own. The students, therefore, can learn from their more successful peers' LLS and employ the strategies appropriate to their respective learning style, aptitude, and personality. Sadtono (1996) indicates that differences in achievement in second language learning are often related to differences in strategy use. After examining the relationship between sex differences and language learning performance, many researchers conclude that gender has a real and profound influence on language learning

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strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Goh & Kwah, 1997; Green & Oxford, 1995; Gu, 2002; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Lan & Oxford, 2003; Wen & Wang, 1996).

According to Oxford (1990), the more teachers know about their students' current learning strategy preferences, the more effectively they can attune instructions to specific students' needs. Griffiths and Parr (2001) urge EFL/ESL teachers to do their own research to find out their students' use of LLS, not depend on their subjective assumptions or results of other related projects conducted in other contexts to guess how their students learn English. With an awareness of learner differences, the researchers wish to investigate how different LLS suggested by Oxford (1990) operate for the two sexes in the EFL context of Vietnam.

This study aims to compare and contrast the self-report use of LLS by male and female Vietnamese students of non-English majors. The researchers, consequently, sought plausible answers to the following research question: What are the similarities and differences in frequency of LLS use by male and female first-year-students in general English classes at HoChiMinh City University of Natural Resources and Environment?

## **2. Language Learning Strategies**

According to Hedge (2000), researchers who wish to investigate the literature on LLS should be aware of the following facts. First, there have been various labels given to strategies, such as "language processing strategies", "tactics", "plans", and "techniques", with no easy equivalences among them. Second, since the early studies of the good language learner's characteristics by Frohlich, Naiman and Todesco in the 1970s, different authors have clarified and discussed different ways of classifying LLS, and various frameworks have been developed, such as those of Chamot, Ellis, Kupper, O'Malley, and Oxford (Hedge, 2000, p. 5).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) notes that it is only during the 1970s that researchers began to study systematically the learners' explicit and implicit efforts to learn a second language. Rubin (1975) defines learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43). Rubin (1987, p. 23) also states that LLS "affect learning directly"

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and “contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs”. Focusing on the competence, the goal of any language learning, Tarone (1983) defines LLS as “an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language” (p. 67). Looking at the consciousness characteristic of LLS, Cohen (1998) defines LLS as “the steps or actions selected consciously by learners either to improve the learning of a second language or the use of it or both” (p. 5). The term language learning strategies now refers to what learners know and do to regulate their learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

The current study is based on the framework developed by Oxford (1990). According to Oxford’s taxonomy, LLS are “operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information” and “specific actions...to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8). Oxford also categorizes LLS into direct strategies (including *memory strategies*, *cognitive strategies*, and *compensation strategies*) and indirect strategies (including *metacognitive strategies*, *affective strategies*, and *social strategies*). *Memory strategies* help learners store and retrieve new information, for example, using rhymes or flashcards to remember new words in the target language. *Cognitive strategies* are devices applied by learners to better understand and produce the target language, such as writing notes, messages, letters or reports in the target language. *Compensation strategies* are intended to make up for missing knowledge while using the language, such as making guesses to understand unfamiliar words in the target language. *Metacognitive strategies* allow learners to control their own cognition including the planning, organization, evaluation and monitoring of their language learning, for example, looking for opportunities to read as much as possible in the target language. *Affective strategies* refer to the methods that help learners regulate their emotions, motivations and attitudes, such as trying to relax whenever being afraid of using the target language. *Social strategies* include the ways of interacting with other people in the context of language learning, such as asking a speaker to slow down or to repeat something in the target language.

### **3. Teachers’ Perceptions with regard to Their Students’ Use of Language Learning Strategies**

Although issues related to individual learner factors and learner variables have received much attention, issues related to teachers have not been researched thoroughly (Griffiths, 2007). According to Cortazzi and Jin (1996) and Hird (1995), Asian teachers traditionally expect the learning output to be error-free, and they greatly value memory strategies. Some other researchers pointed to the influence of teachers on modifying usual stereotypes of Asian learners. Howe (1993) and Lewis and McCook (2002), with their studies of Vietnam, addressed the popular misconception of passivity among Asian students by suggesting that whether EFL learners were passive or active in class depended more on their teachers' expectations than on culturally-based learning styles and strategies.

Examining teachers' perceptions of their students' strategy use, Chalmers and Volet (1997), Griffiths (2007) and Nguyen (2007) all discovered that the teachers' beliefs and the students' actual strategy use were not well matched. Chalmers and Volet (1997) stated that while teachers considered South-East Asian students studying in Australia as rote learners adopting surface strategies to learning, most of these students were strategic learners adopting effective LLS. In Vietnam, Nguyen (2007) revealed significant discrepancies between teachers' perceptions and students' self-report on strategy use. While Vietnamese teachers believed that their students were "medium" strategy users overall, five out of six LLS categories were reported to be used less frequently than in the teachers' views. Griffiths (2007) also pointed out a high level of disagreement between strategies that students reported using frequently and those regarded as very important by teachers. He found that students did not frequently use one of three LLS that teachers considered highly important.

In conclusion, the results from all above investigations of the intersection between teachers' and learners' perceptions of strategy use prove that students' actual use of LLS has been at variance with their teachers' assumptions. All teachers of English, therefore, instead of guessing how their students learn English, should do their own research to improve the teaching and learning situations.

#### **4. Relationship between Gender and the Use of Language learning Strategies**

In most of the studies where sex differences emerge, females have been reported as using LLS more often than males (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Hashim & Salih, 1994; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Oxford, 1993; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Sy, 1994, 1995; Wharton, 2000). Females not only employ more LLS but they also employ these strategies more effectively (Ellis, 1994; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1993). As for the use of particular LLS, females tend to use more social strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Politzer, 1983) and more memory and metacognitive strategies (Khalil, 2005; Wen & Wang, 1996) than males do. Besides, Goh and Kwah (1997), and Gu (2002) find that females also show more frequent use of compensation and affective strategies than their male counterparts do.

However, the sex-difference-findings supporting greater strategy use by females may be influenced by the context and culture of the language learning. Some studies (Carter & Nunan, 2001; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Tran, 1988; Wharton, 2000) show that male learners use more LLS than females do in certain categories. Tran (1988), in his study of adult Vietnamese refugees in the USA, finds that males are more likely to use a variety of LLS than females. Wharton (2000), using Oxford's 80-item SILL with a group of 678 tertiary students learning Japanese and French as foreign languages in Singapore, reports that males often employ a greater number of LLS than females. Besides, looking into the strategy use by foreign language learners at a Turkish University, Tercanlioglu (2004) points out significant sex differences in favor of males' greater use of LLS.

Not all projects examining strategy use between the two sexes find significant differences. Young and Oxford's (1997) study on LLS used by native English-speaking learners of Spanish shows no important differences between males and females. Ma (1999) states that gender has no significant impacts on the choice of such strategies as Memory, Metacognitive and Affective strategies. In addition, Griffiths (2003) finds that neither gender nor age really affects the learners' strategy use. Congruent with the findings by Ma (1999), Young and Oxford (1997) and Griffiths (2003), Shmais (2003) does not report any statistically significant differences in strategy use among tertiary students because of sex differences.

In short, the relationship between gender and the use of LLS is not explicit due to different results generated by much research. Even in the same context of EFL in China, studies by Ma (1999) and Wen and Wang (1996) yield conflicting results. Therefore, more studies need to be conducted to verify the role of sex in determining language learning strategies.

## **5. Methodology**

### **5.1. Subjects**

One hundred Vietnamese first-year-students of non-English majors (Hydrometeorology, Environment, Geodesy, Geology, Land Management, Business Administration, and Information Technology) at HoChiMinh City University of Natural Resources and Environment participated in the study. These EFL learners, consisting of 50 males and 50 females between the ages of 18 and 19, were taking the General English Course at the university. The course aimed at improving the learners' vocabulary, grammar, and the target language macro-skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). These participants had learnt English formally for 3 - 7 years in junior and senior high school and their English levels ranged from elementary to pre-intermediate.

Every year, there are more than five thousand high school graduates entering the university and taking part in general English classes; therefore, to make the findings more generalized to Vietnamese learners of EFL, different types of subjects from 20 provinces throughout the country were chosen.

### **5.2. Instrument**

Since some LLS, such as asking questions for clarification and taking notes, are directly observable, Rubin (1975) originally used observation to assess language learning strategy use. Nevertheless, observing LLS is a very challenging task because it involves cognitive processes that neither learners nor the teacher may be able to specify. Carter and Nunan (2001) state that some LLS, such as using inductive logic to determine a grammar rule or making mental associations between a new word and known concepts, are clearly unobservable. In conducting this investigation, it was decided to employ Oxford's (1990) SILL (Strategy Inventory for

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Language Learning) Version 7.0 (see Appendix A) as the research method. The SILL questionnaire was adopted as the only instrument to collect data because of its worldwide-recognized value and reliability, as there have been more than 40 large-scaled studies and 120 dissertations and theses using this (Riazi & Rahimi, 2005). However, the chosen 100 subjects in this research were only first-year EFL students so the possibility of their misunderstanding the English SILL was high. Therefore, the questionnaire was presented in Vietnamese (see Appendix B) to ensure that all of the subjects could understand the instructions and statements thoroughly.

Oxford's SILL Version 7.0, a self-report questionnaire used to assess the frequency of strategy use by ESL/EFL learners, presents a set of 50 LLS across skills and supplies the participants with a Likert scale of five options that are "1. Never or almost never true of me, 2. Usually not true of me, 3. Somewhat true of me, 4. Usually true of me, and 5. Always or almost always true of me". The set of 50 LLS includes 9 memory strategies (items 1 - 9), 14 cognitive strategies (items 10 - 23), 6 compensation strategies (items 24 - 29), 9 metacognitive strategies (items 30 - 38), 6 affective strategies (items 39 - 44), and 6 social strategies (items 45 - 50).

Even though the SILL is considered a reliable inventory, it has potential problems associated with its use of self-report techniques and questionnaires (Ellis, 1994; LoCastro, 1994; Oxford & Green, 1995). It might not always be able to identify the participants' actual strategy use as some informants can give responses that are actually not their own thinking. Therefore, to assist the validity and reliability of the study, the following procedure was undertaken. First, the concept of LLS was introduced and clarified to the subjects. They were also provided with a satisfactory explanation of what the LLS in the SILL involve. Second, the study's purpose and the data gathering process were explained clearly to the informants who were informed that their participation would not influence their grades. Third, these EFL learners had three days to think about the LLS that they found useful and their actual use of LLS before responding to the questionnaire. The *General Instructions to Administrators of the SILL* presented by Oxford (1990) was employed as the survey guidelines.

### 5.3. Data Analysis

The received data was classified into categories of LLS as mentioned in Oxford's SILL and transferred into mean and ranking profiles presented in tables and charts as illustrations of the results. The categorized data was then analyzed with contrastive and descriptive methods integrated with the researchers' arguments, manifesting their interpretation and evaluation of the findings.

## 6. Results and Discussion

One hundred copies of the questionnaire were delivered to the 100 informants and all of them returned. According to Oxford (1990, p. 300), mean scores fall between 1.0 and 2.4 are considered as "Low" use of LLS, between 2.5 and 3.4 are "Medium" use, and between 3.5 and 5.0 are "High" strategy use. The following tables (1 and 2) compare and contrast the means and ranking profiles for six subcategories of the SILL by male versus female students.

Table 1: Mean and ranking profile for the six categories of LLS in the SILL used by the females

SILL categories	Mean	Ranking
Memory ( <i>direct</i> )	3.5	1
Affective ( <i>indirect</i> )	3.4	2
Compensation ( <i>direct</i> )	3.1	3
Cognitive ( <i>direct</i> )	2.9	4
Metacognitive ( <i>indirect</i> )	2.8	5
Social ( <i>indirect</i> )	2.7	6
Average	3.1	

Table 2: Mean and ranking profile for the six categories of LLS in the SILL used by the males

SILL categories	Mean	Ranking
Compensation ( <i>direct</i> )	4.3	1
Social ( <i>indirect</i> )	3.4	2

Cognitive ( <i>direct</i> )	3.2	3
Metacognitive ( <i>indirect</i> )	3.0	4
Memory ( <i>direct</i> )	2.8	5
Affective ( <i>indirect</i> )	2.4	6
Average	3.2	

## 6.1. Similarities in the Use of Language Learning Strategies between the Male and Female Participants

Before receiving the data, observation made the researchers expect that the female subjects who usually appear to be more diligent and autonomous in class would report being more aware of the importance of LLS in EFL learning and would use LLS more frequently than their male peers did. However, as shown in table 1 and table 2, on average, both male and female participants reported a medium frequency for the mean strategy use on the entire SILL (M = 3.2 and 3.1 respectively). Among the six categories of the SILL, each group of participants reported high frequent use of only one strategy category: The males highly employed compensation strategies with M = 4.3 and the girls highly used memory strategies with M = 3.5. It is interesting to find that both of the male and female students reported the highest use of direct strategies (compensation for males and memory for females) and the least use of indirect strategies (affective for males and social for females). The reason may be that the use of indirect strategies entails more effort and time than the use of direct strategies. These first-year-students seemed to find it easier, more familiar, and more convenient to memorize information (memory strategies) and make up for their missing knowledge (compensation strategies) than to regulate their emotions (affective strategies) and cooperate with others (social strategies). Nevertheless, direct and indirect LLS make different contributions to EFL learning, so EFL learners, in order to achieve more success, need to employ both of these LLS categories.

According to Richard, Platt, and Platt (2002), the employment of metacognitive strategies is controlled by the metacognitive knowledge that is influenced by age, L2 proficiency, experience or duration of L2 study. This might explain the medium use of metacognitive strategies by both male and female subjects who were around 18-year-old freshmen with little experience in learning English as a foreign language. The medium use of metacognitive strategies by both male and female participants also reveals the fact that in general, these students were not yet proficient to organize their EFL learning carefully, monitor their learning processes effectively and evaluate their accomplishments frequently.

When analyzing the two groups' use of individual strategy items, the most used strategies were those that involved vocabulary learning, whereas the least-used items were

those that involved speaking and listening to others in English. It is possible that these EFL students, both males and females, have problems with speaking and listening skills. Ton (2006) stated that a large number of her fresh university graduates were not employed by foreign enterprises because of their poor English listening and speaking skills. Many investigations carried out with the aim of improving the quality of teaching and learning English in Vietnam show that “traditional pedagogy, emphasizing the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary rather than communicative competence” is one of the causes of the problem (Pham, 2005, p. 337).

Reading for fun or pleasure in English can expose the learners to various authentic materials that can contribute much to the success in the target language learning. However, nearly a half of both male and female participants (23 girls and 24 boys) marked the responses “Never or almost never true of me” and “Usually not true of me” to the statement “I read for pleasure in English.” This can be interpreted that to these students, reading was not a pleasure but rather an obligation in learning English. This finding is in accordance with experience that many EFL Vietnamese learners found it extremely difficult to read English authentic materials such as magazines, newspapers, and novels, and they only practiced their reading under compulsion by the teacher. A plausible reason for this is that these EFL students possessed low proficiency or competence in reading comprehension and authentic materials in English are not always available in the Vietnamese teaching context.

## **6.2. Differences in the Use of Language Learning Strategies between the Male and Female Participants**

The statistics presented in table 1 and table 2 amaze the researchers in the following aspects. Contrary to our assumption and expectation, the male students generally reported making more use of LLS than the females did although the distinction was not very much. The males also tended to employ direct LLS more frequently and indirect LLS less frequently than the females did.

The most remarkable point from the findings is that memory and affective strategies were the first and second favorite LLS of the females whereas these two categories were placed at the bottom of the table by the males. This means that the females made more use of storing and retrieving information (remembering), and managed their own emotions, motivations and attitudes in their EFL learning more than the males. Attitudes and motivations play a decisive role in language learning, so it is possible that the female students were much more interested in English and English language learning than their peers were, though this would need to be investigated further.

However, the males tended to be much more effective in overcoming deficiencies in the knowledge of the target language as their most-used strategy group was compensation ( $M = 4.3$ ), which was ranked as the third one by the girls ( $M = 3.1$ ).

With regard to the category of social strategies, they were ranked as the second most frequently used by the males but least frequently used by the females; the males manifested a much greater eagerness and activeness in seeking opportunities to interact with others through the target language. To some extent, this may reflex the typical differences between the traditional Vietnamese male and female characteristics where girls and women should be indirect, tentative, even passive and humble in daily interaction.

Although the female subjects tended to be not keen to learn with others, they reported being much more aware of the importance of culture in learning English. There are 34 females (versus 16 males) who chose the item “I try to learn about the culture of English speakers” as true for them. According to Nguyen and Ho (2012), the combination of linguistic perspective and socio-cultural perspective is significantly crucial to a successful learner; therefore, both improving communicative competence and heightening the awareness of the target culture are of utmost necessity. Wardhaugh (1998) believes that language learners ought to take into account the interwoven relationship between language and culture; learners cannot understand or appreciate the one without knowledge of the other.

## **7. Conclusion**

The findings reveal that the reported use of language learning strategies was greater for males than for females, although the difference is small (M = 3.1 for females and M = 3.2 for males). These mean scores also show that both genders reported a medium frequency for the use of LLS according to Oxford's (1990) interpretation of scores. Specifically, female Vietnamese students tended to use indirect strategies more often and use direct strategies less often than the males did. Compensation and social strategies were significantly preferred by the males while memory and affective strategies were most employed by the females.

The project's results show the correlation between the use of language learning strategies and the learner's gender, and differences of strategy use between Vietnamese males and females are apparent. These differences can fall into many categories of LLS in the SILL, and gender, therefore, has a clearly influential impact on how these Vietnamese first-year-students of non-English majors learn English. However, it may be necessary to investigate whether the more successful Vietnamese learners of English are using LLS and which ones.

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## Appendix A

### QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of a study to find out *the similarities and differences in the use of language learning strategies by male and female first-year-students in general English classes at HoChiMinh City University of Natural Resources and Environment*. Please complete it. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers

to any question, your confidentiality is secured, and your response will be used for the research purposes only.

Please state your: **Gender:**                     **Male**                     **Female**

Please mark only one response category:

1.  Never or almost never true of me.
2.  Usually not true of me.
3.  Somewhat true of me.
4.  Usually true of me.
5.  Always or almost always true of me.

### **Part A: MEMORY STRATEGIES**

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

7. I physically act out new English words.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

8. I review English lessons often.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

1.                     2.                     3.                     4.                     5.

### **Part B: COGNITIVE STRATEGIES**

10. I say or write new English words several times.

1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
14. I start conversations in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
15. I watch English language TV shows or go to movies spoken in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
18. I first skim an English passage (read it quickly) then go back and read carefully.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

### **Part C: COMPENSATION STRATEGIES**

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.

1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

**Part D: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES**

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

**Part E: AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES**

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

#### **Part F: SOCIAL STRATEGIES**

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

47. I practice English with other students.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

48. I ask for help from English speakers.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

49. I ask questions in English.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

**THE END**  
**THANKS FOR YOUR HELP!**

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#### **Appendix B**

#### **BẢNG CÂU HỎI KHẢO SÁT**

Bảng câu hỏi này là một phần của nghiên cứu nhằm tìm ra *những sự giống và khác nhau trong việc sử dụng chiến thuật học ngôn ngữ giữa tân sinh viên nam và nữ tại trường ĐH Tài nguyên và Môi trường Tp. HCM*. Không có câu trả lời nào là sai do đó bạn chỉ cần chọn đáp án chính xác nhất đối với bạn. Sự trả lời của bạn chỉ được sử dụng cho mục đích nghiên cứu và danh tánh của bạn sẽ được giữ bí mật.

Làm ơn chỉ ra giới tính của bạn:       **Nam**                       **Nữ**

Làm ơn chỉ chọn một trong những lựa chọn sau đây:

1.       Không bao giờ đúng hay gần như không bao giờ đúng với tôi.
2.       Thường không đúng với tôi.
3.       Gần đúng với tôi.
4.       Thường đúng với tôi.
5.       Thường xuyên hay gần như thường xuyên đúng với tôi.

### **PHẦN A: NHÓM THỦ THUẬT TRÍ NHỚ**

1.      Tôi nghĩ đến mối quan hệ giữa những cái tôi đã biết và những cái tôi mới học bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
2.      Tôi nhớ từ mới bằng cách dùng chúng trong một câu.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
3.      Tôi nhớ từ mới bằng cách liên hệ âm của từ với hình ảnh của từ đó.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
4.      Tôi nhớ từ mới bằng cách vẽ ra trong đầu một tình huống trong đó từ mới được sử dụng.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
5.      Tôi nhớ từ mới bằng cách dùng vần điệu.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
6.      Tôi nhớ từ mới bằng các thẻ ghi chú từ vựng.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
7.      Tôi biểu diễn từ mới bằng hành động.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
8.      Tôi thường xuyên ôn bài.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
9.      Tôi nhớ từ vựng bằng cách nhớ vị trí của chúng trên trang giấy, trên bảng hoặc trên biển báo trên đường.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.

### **PHẦN B: NHÓM THỦ THUẬT NHẬN THỨC**

10.     Tôi nói hoặc viết từ mới ra nhiều lần.  
1.               2.               3.               4.               5.
11.     Tôi cố nói chuyện như người bản xứ.

1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
12. Tôi luyện tập phát âm.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
13. Tôi sử dụng những từ tôi biết bằng nhiều cách.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
14. Tôi bắt chuyện bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
15. Tôi xem những chương trình TV hoặc những bộ phim nói bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
16. Tôi đọc tiếng Anh để giải trí.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
17. Tôi viết ghi chú, tin nhắn, thư từ, hoặc báo cáo bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
18. Tôi đọc lướt một đoạn văn tiếng Anh rồi sau đó mới đọc lại một cách cẩn thận.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
19. Tôi tìm những từ trong tiếng Việt giống với những từ tiếng Anh mới học.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
20. Tôi cố gắng tìm những mẫu câu bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
21. Tôi tìm nghĩa củ một từ tiếng Anh bằng cách chia nó ra từng phần mà tôi hiểu.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
22. Tôi cố gắng không dịch từng từ một.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
23. Tôi tóm lược những thông tin tôi nghe được hoặc đọc được ra tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

### PHẦN C: NHÓM THỬ THUẬT ĐÈN BÙ

24. Để hiểu những từ tiếng Anh lạ, tôi suy đoán.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
25. Khi nói chuyện mà không thể nghĩ ra từ tiếng Anh nào đó thì tôi dùng cử điệu.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
26. Tôi tự tạo ra những từ mới nếu tôi không biết từ chính xác bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
27. Tôi không tra mọi từ mới khi đọc tiếng Anh.

1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
28. Tôi cố đoán xem người khác sắp nói gì bằng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
29. Nếu tôi không nghĩ ra được một từ bằng tiếng Anh thì tôi sẽ dùng một từ hoặc một cụm từ cùng nghĩa.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

#### **PHẦN D: NHÓM THỦ THUẬT SIÊU NHẬN THỨC**

30. Tôi cố gắng mọi cách để dùng được tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
31. Tôi lưu ý mọi lỗi tiếng Anh mình mắc phải để giúp mình học tốt hơn.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
32. Tôi để ý khi có ai đó nói tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
33. Tôi cố tìm hiểu xem làm thế nào để học tốt tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
34. Tôi lên thời khóa biểu để có đủ thời gian học tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
35. Tôi tìm những người biết nói tiếng Anh để nói chuyện.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
36. Tôi tìm mọi cơ hội để được đọc tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
37. Tôi có một mục tiêu rõ ràng cho việc cải thiện, nâng cao các kỹ năng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
38. Tôi suy nghĩ về sự tiến bộ trong việc học tiếng Anh của mình.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

#### **PHẦN E: NHÓM THỦ THUẬT CẢM XÚC**

39. Tôi cố gắng thư giãn khi tôi cảm thấy sợ dùng tiếng Anh.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
40. Tôi tự động viên mình nói tiếng Anh ngay cả khi tôi sợ nói sai.  
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
41. Tôi tự thưởng cho mình khi tôi học và dùng tốt tiếng Anh.

1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
42. Tôi để ý xem mình có căng thẳng hay lo lắng khi học hoặc sử dụng tiếng Anh không.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
43. Tôi viết ra những cảm xúc của mình trong một cuốn nhật ký học tiếng Anh.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
44. Tôi nói chuyện với người khác về việc tôi cảm thấy thế nào khi tôi học tiếng Anh.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

### PHẦN F: NHÓM THỬ THUẬT GIAO TIẾP XÃ HỘI

45. Nếu tôi không hiểu cái gì đó bằng tiếng Anh, tôi yêu cầu người khác nói lại hoặc nói chậm lại.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
46. Tôi nhờ những người bản ngữ sửa lỗi cho tôi khi tôi nói.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
47. Tôi luyện tập tiếng Anh với các bạn sinh viên khác.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
48. Tôi nhờ người biết nói tiếng Anh giúp mình.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
49. Tôi đặt câu hỏi bằng tiếng Anh.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.
50. Tôi cố gắng tìm hiểu về văn hóa của những người nói tiếng Anh.
1.       2.       3.       4.       5.

HẾT  
CẢM ƠN!

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# Errors Committed by Rural Students at UG Level in Learning English as a Second Language

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## Phonological Variety and Complexity of Indian Languages

In India, English sounds are pronounced with a lot of influence of mother tongue one speaks. No two languages are the same. Each one is different from the other. The sound system, the structure and the vocabulary of English do not have similarities in any of the various languages of India.

## Backgrounds of Rural Students

The students from rural background have studied up to twelfth standard in Tamil medium schools. For them, English is introduced only from class third onwards. For a child who is accustomed to the sounds of his mother tongue alone, the sounds of English seem strange in the beginning. But, when he starts speaking, certain features of his mother tongue interfere in his English speech. It continues up to his college level.

## Error Analysis

Error analysis is a branch in applied linguistics. Scholars like S.P. Corder (1967:161) advocated the importance of error analysis in language learning process in English language teaching. Error analysis in language acquisition process stimulated major changes in teaching practice. The errors committed by second language learners help the teachers to frame a systematic way of teaching.

## On Defining Error

Error is defined as a mistake or inaccuracy in speech, opinion or action. Kacher (1965:394) states, "it may contain deviations from the varieties of English and those formations which are considered as mistakes or sub-standard formations".

Slips and lapses are distinguished from errors. They are self-correlative. They are otherwise called 'mistakes'. They are unsystematic.

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Ghadessy (1980:96) defines errors as deviations which reveal the learners knowledge of the language. The second language learner may not be able to correct his own errors.

According to J. C. Richards (1972:96-113) the errors are classified into three types: interlingual, intralingual and developmental errors.

- Interlingual errors are caused by the interference of learner's mother tongue.
- Intralingual errors are the errors which originate within the structure of the target language itself.
- Developmental errors are caused due to the learners' limited exposure to the target language.

### **The Focus of This Paper**

The main purpose of the present study is to analyse the rural students' errors while learning English as their second language. It deals with the errors committed by rural students at the undergraduate collegiate level of Madurai District in Tamilnadu at the phonological, morphological and syntactic levels.

In teaching English language, the teachers should concentrate on the errors committed by the students in order to eradicate their basic problems.

The researcher collected data using various sources such as giving questionnaire and collecting information from the students' test papers, class discussions and interactions.

After analyzing the data the researcher came to understand that the learners' errors are due to the interference of mother tongue and lack of knowledge in the target language.

### **Phonological Level**

At the phonological level, the English sounds have the distinction between /s/, /ʃ/ and /z/; /k/, /g/ and /h/; /t/ and /d/. Some of the errors where the students committed are listed below.

<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>	<b>Word</b>
/ʃi/	/si/	she
/seup/	/tʃop/	soap
/zu:/	/tʃu:/or /su:/	zoo
/geut/	/keut/	goat
/kɔ:t/	/gɔ:t/	caught

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/teɪbl/	/deɪbl/	table
/bæɡ/	/pæk/	bag

### **Lack of Distinction between /s/, /ʃ/ and /z/**

The fricatives which are articulated with a stricture of close approximation in the English words are wrongly pronounced by the rural students. In Tamil, we do not have the sounds such as /s/, /ʃ/ and /z/.

<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>	<b>Word</b>
/sɪn/	/ʃɪn/	sin
/dɪʃ/	/dɪs/	dish
/zi:brə/	/si:brə/	zebra

Most of the students pronounce /s/ for all these three /s/, /ʃ/ and /z/ sounds. They commit error in pronouncing as well as writing. The problem lies in hearing also. Most of our students are hearing only those sounds that their ears are accustomed to hear and that their minds are accustomed to receive and respond to. They are not aware of foreign sounds.

### **Lack of Distinction between Voiced and Voiceless Sounds**

The students from rural background lack the distinction between voiced and voiceless sounds. In Tamil, voiced and voiceless sounds are in free variation. So a Tamil speaking student from rural background finds it difficult to hear and pronounce these /k/ and /g/; /t/ and /d/ sounds.

A few students wrongly pronounce and listen to these sounds wrongly. Once the teacher was pronouncing the word 'coat' in the class, the student misunderstood that it was 'goat'. When the student asked clear his doubt, the teacher came to understand that students have problems in listening also.

<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>	<b>Word</b>
/kæp/	/gæp/	cap
/ten/	/den/	ten

### **Interchange of /p/, /b/ and /f/ Sounds**

Since there is no /f/ sound in Tamil, a Tamil student who learns English finds this sound strange and often gets confused of the usage of /f/ sound. So there rises a tendency to interchange /f/ sound with /p/ or /b/ sounds.

/fænts/	intead of /pænts/
/fisi/	instead / bizi/ or /pisi/
/peil/	instead of / feil/
/propessor/	instead of /prəfesər/
/ɔ:pis/	instead of /ɔ:fis/

Many times the students have the difficulty to pronounce properly without making any distinction between sounds. They are not able to pronounce properly, because they are not able to listen to the distinction between sounds p, b, t, d, etc.

### Consonant Clusters

The students commit errors in pronouncing consonant clusters. They find it difficult to pronounce because of the influence of mother tongue. In Tamil, non-identical consonant clusters are very few.

Correct	Incorrect	Word
/ɪŋɡlɪf/	/ɪŋɡilis/	English
/sleɪt/	/sileittu/	slate
/sku:l/	/iskool/	school

### Diphthongs

The students get confused in using diphthongs in appropriate places. They won't bother about it much.

Correct	Incorrect	Word
/hʌləʊ/	/hallo/	hello
/prɪpeəriŋ/	/prɪpəriŋ/	preparing
/kɔ:s/	/keis/	cause

They do not know the point of articulation. This is due to the mother tongue interference. In Tamil, /əʊ/ is not found. Instead of /əʊ/, /o/ is there in Tamil. The minds of the students automatically listen to the sound which is present in their native language and which leads them to pronounce the sounds wrongly.

Up to twelfth standard, most of the students have had received some deficient teaching. So at the collegiate level, they find it hard to understand and to rectify their errors.

## Morphological Level

At the morphological level, the students get confused with the bound forms. They make errors while trying to create new words by adding prefix, infix, and suffix.

<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>
Unnecessary	innecessary

## Inconsistency of the Target Language

The students commit errors due to the inconsistency of the English language whereas in their mother tongue, they do not find this kind of inconsistency.

	<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>
Write	writer	
Dance	dancer	
Sing	singer	
Cook	cook	cooker

The students often commit errors in adding the suffix ‘-er’ to the verb in order to get the noun form.

## Irregularity in Plural Suffix

The students from rural back ground lack the knowledge in the second language even though they learn English as a second language from third standard onwards. They are unaware of the irregular forms of plural. They do not practice and/or memorize the rules of the grammar.

For example, they frame sentences like these listed below.

The childrens play in the garden.  
The staffs went for a tour.

<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>
Children	childrens
Sheep	sheeps
Oxen	oxes
Staff	staffs

## Irregularity in Tense Markers

The students are unaware of the English language exceptions in morphological rules. This is due to deficient teaching/learning of the second language.

Correct			Incorrect		
Go	went	gone	* go	went	went
Cut	cut	cut	*cut	cuted	cuted
Keep	kept	kept	*keep	keeped	keeped
Ring	rang	rung	*ring	rang	rang
Run	ran	run	*run	runned	runned

The main cause of morphological errors is due to deficient teaching/learning. Inconsistency of the English language patterns also contributes this condition since the students and teachers do not find such patterns in their mother tongue.

## Syntactic Level

At the syntactic level, the rural students find it difficult to frame even simple sentences. They do not know the basic sentence patterns of English.

According to the data, they lack knowledge in basic grammar.

For example, when a student plans to write a sentence that 'I want to become a Professor', he/she writes, 'I want a Professor'. Their mastery of gerund is not adequate.

Correct	Incorrect
My father's name is Sam	*My <b>father name</b> is Sam
I am meeting our Principal	*I <b>am meet</b> our principal
Peter is going to Delhi	* Peter <b>going</b> to Delhi
Usually my dad drinks tea	*Usually my dad <b>drinking</b> tea
Amala is preparing for the test	*Amala <b>has preparing</b> for the test

From this, the researcher came to know that the students do not know or have adequate mastery of the rules of the grammar. They do not know that *am*, *is*, and *was* will be followed by -ing in continuous tense form and without 'be' verbs '-ing' will not occur in a sentence.

## **Suggestions**

By analyzing their errors, the researcher suggests some methods to employ to develop their skills. The methodology of teaching for the rural students should differ from the methodology adopted for the urban students because the level of students' ability is different.

## **Dictation**

For the rural students, the college provides a bridge course for them. For the rural students, the textbook should be given with lots of simple vocabulary. The vocabulary should be classified on the basis of action verbs, body parts, necessary verbs, nouns, adjectives and technical terms, etc. according to their disciplines. Unit-wise, dictation should be given. Proper training should be given to pronounce those vocabulary items because it is found that the students have difficulty even to write common words such as 'library' and 'girl'.

## **Pattern Drills**

By using a number of related vocabulary items, unit-wise, make them to frame sentences. Pattern drills will help them. The drills should be given with all the tenses.

The children laughed.

The children cried.

The children clapped.

After that, make the students to give sentences in a paragraph about some topics. These should be supplemented with additional vocabulary. The vocabulary should cover in a theme like 'My family' or 'At the Theatre,' etc.

My mother's mother is my grandmother. Her name is Meena.

My father's mother is my grandmother. Her name is Kala.

My mother's father is my grandfather. His name is John.

My brothers and sisters are my siblings.

Making the students to memorize utterances, dialogues, questions and answers, statements which we use often, rhymes, poems and situational conversation materials, help them a lot.

Every week, the students should have a class in reading short stories and reports from the newspapers of the target language. It helps them to develop their reading skill. They are asked

to narrate what they have got into their mind. It develops their communicative skill. When they are asked to read newspapers, they should be supplemented with a vocabulary list. The use of words and idioms in appropriate context could be focused upon. Exercises based on analogical creation in word, meaning and concept levels could be introduced.

In order to develop their listening skill, short stories can be visualized in the beginning, rather than watching a full movie. If they understand the story and answer the questions, they could be shown full length English movies. After viewing the movies, they are asked to give a summary of it to improve their writing skill. They should be advised to follow the same tense markers in a summary. If they are encouraged to narrate the story and its theme, they will be developed in speaking skill also simultaneously.

To have correct pronunciation, language lab will help the students. To improve the rural students in learning a foreign language, the class room may not be crowded.

## Conclusion

From the recording, the errors are extracted and separated as phonological errors, morphological errors and syntactic errors. From these errors, I conclude that the students have learnt the second language half way and they are confused with distinct sounds and the inconsistency found in the target language.

In English language teaching, the professor should feel that it is their responsibility to eradicate their errors from their mind first. Then only the students can store the new and correct structural pattern of English in their mind.

Error analysis gives us an insight into the learning strategies employed by the learner. It helps us to produce suitable teaching materials. It makes the professor to devise a special and specific style of teaching that is focused on the students in the class. It helps to measure the students' level and to design the syllabus for short-term courses according to their need. Further it helps to modify and change the methods of teaching, testing and examination.

It also helps to assess the mother tongue interference and to know about the language learning strategies, methods and techniques.

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# The Relationship between Shyness and Local/Global Reading Comprehension

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## Abstract

Shyness may be defined experientially as excessive self-focus characterized by negative self-evaluation that creates discomfort and/or inhibition in social situations and interferes with pursuing one's interpersonal or professional goals.

In the present study by employing the T-test and ANOVA, results indicated that shyness has effect on local/global reading comprehension. It further indicated that the correlation effect between the shyness and gender was significant .Therefore, males are better than females in local/global reading comprehension test.

**Keywords:** English as a Foreign Language Learning, shyness, Local/global reading comprehension.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. What Is Shyness?

The concept of shyness is described as "an enduring trait characterized by tension, discomfort, and inhibition in the presence of other people" (Wadman, Durkin & Conti-Ramsden,

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2008, cited in Tong, Ting & McBride-Chang, 2011, p.30). Shyness has been studied in relation to so many societal factors such as difficulties in socio emotional adjustment(e.g. Chen & Tse, 2008; Coplan & Armer, 2005), peer interaction (e.g. Xu, Farver, Chang, Zhang, & Yu, 2007), and social acceptance and the development of interpersonal relationships in general (e.g. Jones, Briggs, & Smith, 1986)(cited in Tong, Ting & McBride-Chang, 2011).

Shyness is normally looked upon as a hindering attribute in learners, which acts as a setback standing on the way of their normal educational accomplishment, the reason being that shy individuals are regarded as less adept at expressing themselves during social encounters, and are hence more likely to be left out from the mainstream practice of education due to their inclination for leading a solitary life. One thing that is thought to be affected by shy students' passive approach to language learning is their attitudes toward the general learning process. (Salmasi,2012)

Buss, 1980; Leary & Schlenker, 1981; Zimbardo, 1977 Buss (1980), defined shyness as an inhibition of expected social behavior, together with feelings of tension and awkwardness. This line of definitions can be said to regard shyness as a social phenomenon, and a form of social anxiety. Shyness has long been described as a character trait, an attitude, or a state of inhibition (Durmuş, 2007). Leary (1986) proposed that shyness is totally a social phenomenon, and that it should be defined in terms of both social anxiety and inhibition. Leary (1986) thus, defined shyness as an affective-behavioral syndrome characterized by social anxiety and interpersonal inhibition which results from the prospect or presence of others of interpersonal evaluation.

Research suggesting a genetic contribution to the origins of shyness proposes that 15 to 20% of newborns exhibit an inhibited temperament characterized by high reactivity (e.g., excessive crying and vigorous movement of head and limbs) to novel stimulation, along with elevated in uteri heart rates. In early childhood, such infants tend to exhibit more behavior defined operationally as timid or shy (e.g., playing near primary caretaker) and have close relatives who reported more childhood shyness than uninhibited children. An interactions interpretation of

shyness suggests that being born with the easily aroused inhibited temperament may lead to social withdrawal in childhood and adolescence from parents, siblings, and peers, and may discourage others from freely interacting with that child, thus promoting a shy response style. Other environmental factors fostering such withdrawal include being teased or bullied, dominating older siblings, family conflict, and overprotective parenting. Finally, the development of shyness in adulthood is usually due to experiences of rejection and self-blame for failure in social domains. ( Colleen Sherman, 2010)

The studies of shyness within theoretical frameworks after 1970s have contributed a lot to the understanding of the concept in a more systematic fashion, mainly after the findings pointing out its high prevalence were obtained. Several empirical investigations by researchers (Arkin, Appelman & Burger, 1980; Asendorpf, 1987, 1989; Buss, 1980; Cheek & Buss, 1981; Crozier, 1979; Jones & Russell, 1982; Leary, 1983a, 1983b) have focused on the etiology, measurement, behavioral characteristics, social impact, and treatment alternatives for shyness. In addition, with those research attempts, great advances were achieved toward understanding how and why experience of shyness has made such a large impact on many individuals' lives.

Several empirical investigations by researchers (Arkin, Appelman & Burger, 1980; Asendorpf, 1987, 1989; Buss, 1980; Cheek & Buss, 1981; Crozier, 1979; Jones & Russell, 1982; Leary, 1983a, 1983b) have focused on the etiology, measurement, behavioral characteristics, social impact, and treatment alternatives for shyness. In addition, with those research attempts, great advances were achieved toward understanding how and why experience of shyness has made such a large impact on many individuals' lives (Gökhan, 2010)..

In a long-term study conducted in the US, Caspi, Elder and Bem (1988) found relationships between shyness in childhood and coping with various developmental tasks in adulthood. In regard to certain correlates of shyness and social inhibition, gender differences are in fact already present in childhood. In a sample survey of 3-6 year-olds, Mayr (1992) found negative correlations between shyness and socio-metric nominations by peers strictly with boys four years or older. Shy boys received fewer positive nominations, but no more rejection than their non-shy counterparts. On the other hand, shyness did not affect the girls' nominations. In a longitudinal

section study by Bowen, Vitaro, Kerr and Pelletier (1995), it turned out that shyness as rated by Kindergarten classmates of the same age likewise was a predictor for internalizing problems in the fifth grade. (Georg Stöckli, 2002)

## **1.2. Local Reading Comprehension**

Local reading comprehension refers to the student's ability to understand a text on a literal level, the ability to understand the sentences of a passage by drawing on local context. So, local questions only required candidates to pick out specific details. They ask candidates to locate specific details for information from the text. Local processing is primarily linguistic, that is, the system which elicits information from the text, e. g. word recognition and syntactic decoding.

## **1.3. Global Reading Comprehension**

Global reading comprehension, on the other hand, calls upon the students' capacities to understand individual words and sentences, but more importantly to focus on the larger process of interpreting and transacting with an entire narrative text. "comprehenders" also have the ability to call upon a repertoire of strategies, enabling them to make rich connections with a text, to understand its implications and go beyond its literal meaning. They actively interpret, visualize, engage and connect with the ideas within and across texts, all the while also monitoring their understandings about what they have read. Global processing is primarily cognitive, that is, the system which integrates information in order to interpret the text, e. g. predicting and guessing of meaning on the basis of context or background knowledge.

In "Shyness", Carducci, (1999), draws on more than twenty years of research to penetrate the many myths and mysteries surrounding shyness. In "Shyness", Carducci explains the basic principles of shyness; discusses the psychical, mental, and emotional expressions of shyness; and explores the biological, psychological, and societal roots of this trait. In addition, Dr. Carducci traces the manifestations of shyness at different life stages. In an age of instantaneous, on-line electronic interpersonal relationships, he outlines the specific challenges facing shy individuals

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in contemporary society. "Shyness" is not about transforming shy people into extroverts. Its principal mission is to promote what Dr. Carducci calls "the successfully shy life"-- one of self-awareness, self-acceptance, and self-confidence. Several studies have observed a robust correlation between shyness and reading comprehension but few have attempted to explain why this relationship exists

This study is trying to find out the effect of shyness on the process of learning local/global reading comprehension in EFL learners .On the other hand, learners' gender is another factor which researchers have focused on it. By regarding to these matters, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H1: There is sygnificant relationship between shyness and local/global reading comprehension.

H2: Male learners can get better scores on local/global reading comprehension than female ones.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1. Participants**

The subjects of this study were Sixty Iranian EFL students (30males and 30females), who have studied in high school in Arak.

### **2.2. Instruments**

The following instruments were used in this study:

#### **a) a) Language proficiency test (NELSON, series 400 B):**

In order to make sure of the homogeneity of both groups in terms of their English language knowledge, Nelson test of proficiency was employed. The time allotted was 45 minutes.

**b) A background questionnaire:**

In order to elicit subjective information about participants, a background questionnaire was developed by the investigator. It covered issues such as the subjects' age, their parents' socio-educational background and occupation.

**C) Test of reading comprehension in English:**

The test of reading comprehension in English was from the reading component of the *Cambridge Preparation for the TOEFL Test* (Gear, J, 1993. pp. 416-421). The time allowed was 30 minutes as determined at the piloting stage.

**d) Revised cheek and buss shyness scale (RCBS):**

*Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale* (RCBS) is one of the most commonly employed measures of dispositional shyness (Cheek & Briggs, 1990). The original Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale (Cheek & Buss, 1981) contained 9 items. The development of the revised form aimed at improving the psychometric properties of the original scale.

**e) Local/global reading comprehension test:**

ECEP practice reading test is a Full spate reading comprehension test in the same form and at approximately the same level of difficulty as the reading exercises included in the GCVR paper of Michigan ECPE.

**2.3. Procedure**

In the process of carrying out the study, the researchers took the following procedures to achieve the objectives of the current study . So, the whole study was completed in following phases:

*Phase 1:* In this phase the Nelson Proficiency Test (Series 400B) was administered to 80 male and female students who are students in high school. They answered questions in 30 minutes. Out of this number 60 of students whose scores were above the mean were selected for the purpose of this study.

*Phase 2:* In order to know some main characteristics of participants, the researchers first have used background questionnaire which was included some questions about age, their parents' socio-educational background and occupation. On the basis of their answers, they divided into two groups that each group was consist of 30 students , half of them were male and other half were female.

*Phase 3:* In this part, the researchers have administrated General reading comprehension test in order to determine the learners reading ability.

*Phase 4:* In order to measuring the learners' shyness level, Revised cheek and buss shyness scale used by researchers.

*Phase 5:* After distinguishing Learners' shyness level, they should have given local/global reading comprehension.

### **3. Results and discussions**

Independent samples 't' test was employed in order to analyze the collected data. As one looks at the Table 1 given below, it can be seen that there is meaningful relationship between shyness

and local/global reading comprehension for female learners because zero number isn't between high and low level.

**Table1:T-Test for Female Test Value =15**

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	30	20.60	3.549	.648

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 15					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Value	8.643	29	.000	5.600	4.27	6.93

$$H_0: \mu = 15$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq 15$$

$$|t| = 8.643$$

$$\text{Sig}=.000 < .05$$

As it is clear in table 2, there is meaningful relationship between shyness and local/global reading comprehension for male learners because zero number isn't between high and low level. So, first hypothesis was accepted which related to relationship between shyness and local/global reading comprehension.

**Table2: T-Test for Male Test Value =15**

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	30	21.43	3.839	.701

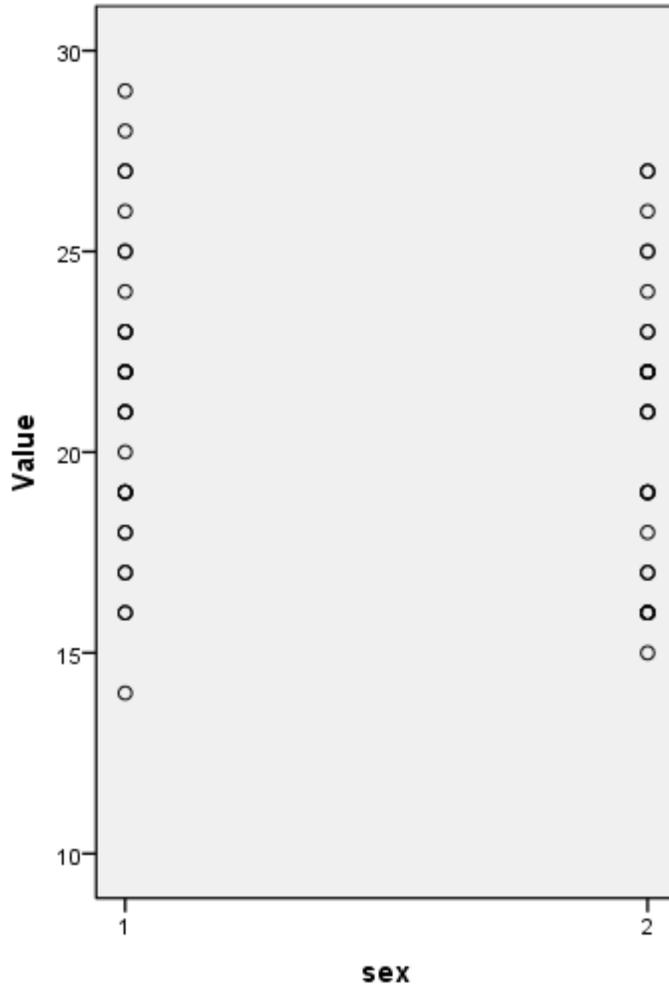
One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 15					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Value	9.179	29	.000	6.433	5.00	7.87

$$H_0: \mu = 15$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq 15$$

$$|t| = 9.179$$

$$\text{Sig} = .000 < .05$$



**Figure1:Local/global reading comprehension scores of male and female student  
Sex:1=male 2=female**

Generally speaking, the test was administrated for test value=20, because sig = .037 <.05, second hypothesis was accepted again .As its shown in table 3,  $|t_1| = 9.179$  which is for male, while  $|t_2| = 8.643$  which belongs to female .As result indicated, $|t_1| > |t_2|$ So ,male can get better score than female in local/global reading comprehension test.

**Tabl3: T-Test**

**One-Sample Statistics**

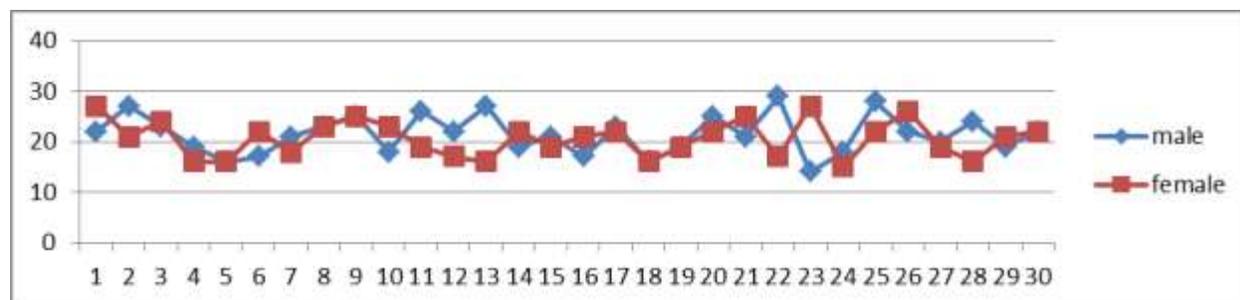
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Value	60	21.02	3.689	.476

#### One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 20					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Value	2.135	59	.037	1.017	.06	1.97

As indicated in figure2, male could get better score in local/global reading comprehension test.

**Figure2: Local/global reading comprehension scores of male and female.**



#### 4. Conclusions and implications

A common observation in virtually all shyness research is that the consequences of shyness are deeply troubling. Shy individuals don't take advantage of social situations, date less, are less expressive verbally and nonverbally, and experience more loneliness than do non-shy people. Shy men have been found to marry and have children later, have less stable marriages, delay establishing careers, and exhibit lower levels of career achievement than their non-shy peers. Shy people have been found to use alcohol in an effort to relax socially, which may lead to impaired social performance and substance abuse. A perceived inability to socialize by shy individuals, along with a pessimistic outlook for social interactions, becomes an excuse for anticipated failure

and a self-handicapping strategy (e.g., "I can't do it because I am shy."). Henderson, Zimbardo, Carducci, 1999)

Numerous terms have been used to refer to the experience of apprehension and anxiety in social situations, including dating anxiety, speech anxiety, social anxiety, shyness, embarrassment, social phobia, shame, social inhibition, reticence, communication apprehension, introversion, stage-fright, and audience anxiety (Crozier, 2000; Leary & Kowalski, 1993; Van Dam-Baggen & Kraaimaat, 1999). Although these terms are not synonymous with one another, feeling of discomfort in social occasions and the accompanying anxiety resulting from the presence of interpersonal evaluation is the common experience of all (Buss, 1980; Schlenker & Leary, 1982). This study focused on shyness and loneliness levels of elementary students (Gökhan BAŞ, 2010)

According to the findings of the research, there were meaningful relationship between shyness and local/global reading comprehension. The shyness levels of male students were found out to be higher than female students in studies carried out by Ashe & McCutcheson (2001), Yıldırım (2006) and Durmuş (2007). These findings in these studies correlate with the result of the current study. So the first hypothesis was accepted by regarding to table 1 and table 2.

On the other hand, local/global reading comprehension score of male students were observed to be higher than female students'. As it is clear in table 3 and figure 3, males were better than females in local/global reading comprehension test. In this regard second hypothesis was accepted again.

In this study, the relationship between shyness and local/global reading comprehension of intermediate students was held. More research is needed in order to generalize the findings of this research to other settings. This research cannot be generalized to other level of educational organizations. Since shyness is universal concept, cross-cultural studies may also be considered as future work. Further studies can be made in order to find out the relationship amongst shyness, speaking, listening, writing and other concepts like learning vocabulary, grammar. Furthermore, research on samples less homogeneous in age, educational level, and ethnicity would be useful for assessing the generalizability of the findings in the research.

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# Is Postmodernism Dead?

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## Abstract

This paper argues that Postmodernism has already been dated as a philosophy, at least in the field of literature. As the genesis, evolution and its anti-climax have been crisply discussed, the researcher has cited arguments of the very critics and one time pioneers of postmodernism who have declared it a spent force. This article examines the tenets and even the a priori of postmodernism and finds that in a very deliberate and decisive manner a death blow has been meted out to postmodernism by a simple but amazingly popular fiction, namely Paulo Coelho's *The Alchemist*. The philosophy of life advanced by this popular fiction not only demolishes the very foundations on which Postmodernism stands but also establishes that postmodernism has ceased to become a governing principle *per se*. Coelho's *The Alchemist* is attributed with opening a new trend in literature by synthesizing the past (through Alchemy) with the present even as he lays the foundation for the future.

**Key Words:** Postmodernism, Ultramodernism, Alchemy, Metanarrative, Paulo Coelho, The Alchemist

## Impact of Philosophies on Literature

If we have survived the “death of God” and the “death of man,” we will surely survive the “death of history”—and of truth, reason, morality, society, reality, and all the other verities we used to take for granted and that have now been “problematized.” We will even survive the death of postmodernism. — Gertrude Himmelfarb (in Jenkins, ed. *The Postmodern History Reader*, p 174)

Numerous philosophies have profoundly influenced literature in general and the fiction in particular, yet none has been so influential as Postmodernism. Arguably, it has been a way of

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life, affecting more or less all walks of life unlike any other doctrine. Born out of the nausea of the World War II and its repugnant aftermath, 'postmodernism' became an umbrella word to describe the notion of life chiefly characterized by the fragmentation of the self, multiplicity of meaning, death of the subject or the 'agency', belief in the absence of metanarratives (i.e., systems or notions representing or at least suggesting totality or unifying wholeness), etc. It is a continuation of modernism (Woods 8) but with a difference. For example, instead of the modernist quest for meaning in a chaotic world, the postmodern author accepts that knowledge and meaning are evasive and therefore lamenting the loss of meaning or search for essence is totally uncalled for; on the other hand, existence should be celebrated. These principles too more or less govern the postmodernist literature. Against this backdrop, this paper critically examines Paulo Coelho's *The Alchemist* to ascertain that this fiction is a trailblazer in announcing the death of postmodernism, at least in literature.

### **On Defining Postmodernism**

'Postmodernism' has been an umbrella term encompassing art, dance, painting, music, architecture, literature, etc. However, this paper confines itself to its cultural and philosophical status and its application in literature. Basically, postmodernism has concerned itself with the present human conditions at large and the postmodern condition is described as a situation where the individual sits powerless, without the agency to strive and have a meaningful life. As a cultural phenomenon 'postmodernism' ruled the academia (the humanities) as the darling for a quarter of a century and it was a great debate whether this notion has already outlived itself. The emergence of postmodernism thus needs to be discussed to arrive at a conclusion regarding its almost mystical 'demise'.

'Postmodernism' as a term entered the lexicon with the historian Arnold Toynbee's *A Study of History* (1947). The prefix 'post-' suggests its connection with modernism. Modernism governed the European culture during the first half of the twentieth century, spanning across architecture, music, philosophy, and literature. People like T. S. Eliot, James Joyce, Virginia Woolf, Marcel Proust, Ezra Pound, Bertolt Brecht, Franz Kafka, Pablo Picasso contributed to this movement, which had conspicuously left Victorianism behind. Movements that were either born or derived inspiration out of this paradigm shift could be named as

Dadaism, Surrealism, Cubism, Imagism and in their respective spheres they ushered in innovative representation. Modernism believes in a search for unity or unified reason and the individual possessing agency. It underlies a deliberate attempt to find meaning in life but is eventually disillusioned. F. H. Bradley's perceptive observation that "Chaos is the order, and order is in the dreams" adequately describes Modernism. Modernist literature (e. g., *The Wasteland*) focuses on this loss. Fragmentation of the self, the breakdown of language, the breakdown of signs, and the breakdown of time happen to be the general characteristics of the modernist literature. Postmodernist literature, on the other hand, acknowledges the death of man (i. e. the subject) and the death of God (as declared by Frederick Nietzsche 'God is dead') but instead of being repentant it celebrates the absence of meaning in life. This is reflected largely in postmodernist fiction.

### **A Continuation and a Break**

Postmodernism is thus both a continuation and a break from modernism. Instead of lamenting the fragmentation of existence and the collapse of selfhood, it embraces these characteristics as a pattern of life. The fundamental difference between modernism and postmodernism is thus basically a difference in mood or attitude rather than a chronological difference. As a philosophy and a way of life, postmodernism rejects the notion of selfhood and that people possess agency and can use their capacities to alter, shape, and change the world in which they live. This tendency of postmodernism, as said earlier, has influenced the postmodernist fiction in one way or the other. Against this background, this paper makes an attempt to prove that Paulo Coelho's magnum opus *The Alchemist* (1988) has spearheaded a silent revolution against postmodernism and as far as literature is concerned it should be viewed as the first fiction that has clearly announced the death of postmodernism.

### **Death of Postmodernism**

When Linda Hutcheon announced the death of postmodernism in her book *A Poetics of Postmodernism: History, Theory, Fiction* in 1988, she dubbed it as "a thing of the past" and called upon intellectuals "Let's just say: it's over." In fact, postmodernism has been chronicled, analyzed, anticipated, and . . . dispensed with. The debate over the fate of postmodernism has

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been in vogue decades after this eclectic system was theoretically founded by Jean-François Lyotard and preached over by its high priest Jean Baudrillard. As early as on the 15th August 1991, influential authors and critics such as John Barth, Raymond Federman, William Gass, Malcom Bradbury and Ihab Hassan---considered to be pioneers of postmodernism---celebrated the death of postmodernism together, dismissing it as “the concept can no longer serve as a useful explanation in relation to contemporary culture” (cited in Barry Lewis 97).

The questions that spontaneously raise their heads are ‘What caused the death of postmodernism?’ and what is the proof of that. Suffice it to say that amelioration in the economic condition of people, disgust with a down and out materialistic life, and the influence of other marginal and marginalized cultures must have played a significant role in it. Since the scope of the paper does not allow us to indulge in an in-depth analysis of the causes responsible for the death of postmodernism, I would rather concentrate on how Paulo Coelho’s *The Alchemist* has heralded the demise of postmodernism in literature.

To begin with, *The Alchemist* concerns itself with the search for meaning in life. The quest narrative is set in motion in an almost postmodern condition suffered by the protagonist, Santiago, an Andalusian boy, who revolts against tradition and leaves the comforts of home to *know* the world:

His parents had wanted him to become a priest, and thereby a source of pride for a simple farm family. They worked hard just to have food and water, like the sheep. He had studied Latin, Spanish, and theology. But ever since he had been a child, he had wanted to know the world, and this was much more important to him than knowing God and learning about man's sins. (Coelho 6)

### **Not Mere Existence**

Santiago is not content with mere existence, for he tends to believe that the purpose of life is to live a purposeful life. In fact the quest is spurred by a dream that visits him recurrently wherein a child invites him to the pyramids of Egypt in search of a hidden treasure. Santiago undertakes the journey and encounters several hostile situations and benign forces (e. g. the

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alchemists of Salem and Al-Fouym), experiences love, becomes an alchemist himself, and eventually discovers the hidden treasure and achieves selfhood. His immersion in the Soul of the World or the Collective Unconscious makes him understand the nature of life and the value of love. At the end, Santiago becomes a self-actualized person. Alchemy determines the theme and the structure of the narrative that *The Alchemist* is. Obviously Coelho has put Santiago at the centre or as a subject and he demonstrates how to live life, nay, to alter life by altering his attitudes. The novelist has propounded that a radical inner transformation, much like in alchemy, is an inexorable condition to achieve selfhood.

### **Reliance on Alchemy**

By relying on alchemy for the theme of the novel, Coelho has shown incredulity towards postmodernism, which is itself characterized by “an incredulity towards metanarratives” (Lyotard 7). Alchemy is an ancient system of knowledge which believes that the attainment of perfection is the birthright of Man, Matter, and Nature. It believes that base metals like lead can evolve into gold and an ordinary individual can achieve selfhood. Thus alchemy has posited itself as a metamodel of reality, or a grand narrative with a totalistic framework or a way of framing all experiences. Another metanarrative that Coelho believes in and advances too is love, which he considers to be the greatest magic on earth. The fictionist has laid bare a story of self-actualization which is again anathema to the a priori of postmodernism (i.e., life is meaningless). Thus in all possibilities Paulo Coelho has taken postmodernism by stride.

### **Selfhood Possible and Desirable**

As against the acceptance of the fragmentation of the self, which is fettered in the postmodernist discourses, Paulo Coelho demonstrates through Santiago that selfhood is not only possible but it is also desirable. More so, Coelho provides a roadmap, albeit through alchemy, as to how to achieve the hidden treasure. By roping in alchemy in its psychological implications, the author has narrated how having a dream renders life interesting and the realization of it makes life meaningful. Subtitled as *A Fable Following Your Dream*, *The Alchemist* explains how omens, which stem from the Soul of the World, can guide us in the pursuit of our dream.

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Although Coelho's work contains a fantastic scene where the hero transforms himself into the wind, it is also based on alchemy, which believes in the transmutation of matter and transformation of the soul. The use of the metanarrative of alchemy is thus in all sense cancels out the fundamental assumptions of postmodernism.

### **Totalizing Effect**

Metanarratives have totalizing effect. In her book *The Politics of Postmodernism*, Linda Hutcheon dwells on the implications of the term 'totalizing' in the following words:

The function of the term totalizing, as I understand it, is to point to the process (hence the awkward 'ing' form) by which writers of history, fiction, or even theory render their materials coherent, continuous, unified – but always with an eye to the control and mastery of those materials, even at the risk of doing violence to them. It is this link to power, as well as process, that the adjective 'totalizing' is meant to suggest, and it is as such that the term has been used to characterize everything from liberal humanist ideals to the aims of historiography. (59)

### **Incredulity**

It is said that postmodernist fiction shows incredulity toward metanarratives and therefore they hinge on an anti-foundationalist social structure and mode of behavior. In other words, postmodernist fiction 'celebrates' the fragmentation of the self (Woods 8) and "refuses to conceive of humanity as a unitary subject striving towards the goal of perfect coherence (in its common stock of beliefs) or of perfect cohesion and stability (in its political practice)" (Lovibond 6). On the other hand, alchemy is a metanarrative that asserts that evolution is teleological and coherence is its hallmark in which the individual has a personal and social role to play. Alchemy thus comes as a contrast to postmodernism, which is "suspicious of the notion of humans possessing an undivided and coherent self which acts as the standard of rationalist, and guarantees all knowledge claims irrespective of time and place" (Woods 10).

### **Integration and Individuation**

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In addition to using this aspect of the philosophy of alchemy, Paulo Coelho uses the alchemical concept of self-realization as propounded by Carl Gustav Jung, who introduced alchemy into modern psychology in the 20th century and whose concept of alchemy Coelho has used in *The Alchemist*. Jung held that the human psyche needs integration which is almost a compulsion, for this is the function of the Self, which impels the individual to achieve selfhood or totality. Unification of sensibility by integrating the divided selves in the psyche makes an integrated person. This process was named by Jung as 'individuation' and this concept was identified to be anticipated by alchemy. Much like Jung, Coelho believes that life can be meaningful and *The Alchemist*, which is written in the form of a biographical inquiry, is a demonstration of this notion of self-realization.

### **Character is Destiny**

Coelho agrees with the assumptions of alchemy that the greatest goal of life is self-realization (i.e., to become what we have the potentiality to be). He does not subscribe to the postmodernist theory that individuals are powerless to alter, shape, and improve their life. On the other hand, he believes that character is destiny and our unconscious is as powerful as our conscious in shaping our personality. In other words, the affirmation that life is what we make of it is clearly discernible in his works, especially in *The Alchemist*. When postmodernism drives reason out of the bounds and sees life as chaotic, Coelho much in agreement to alchemy sees that all things and beings in the universe are connected. An excerpt from *The Alchemist* reads:

The boy was beginning to understand that intuition is really a sudden immersion of the soul into the universal current of life, where the histories of all people are connected, and we are able to know everything, because it's all written there. The celebration of this connection is manifested in love, again a metanarrative that Coelho champions the cause of in an otherwise disconsolate, postmodern world. Love is the magic that impels one to be successful. (48).

## Love is the Magic

The celebration of this connection is manifested in love, again a metanarrative that Coelho champions the cause of in an otherwise disconsolate, postmodern world. Love is the magic that impels one to be successful. Paulo Coelho highlights: “When we love, we always strive to become better than we are. When we strive to become better than we are, everything around us becomes better too” (100). For there is a correspondence between the microcosm and the macrocosm and both of them are governed by order, which the Elizabethans called ‘Degree’. The fictionist thus sees order where his postmodern counterparts would see absence of order.

A reader may be tempted to ask whether Paulo Coelho has any truck with postmodernism.

## Magic Realism

Interestingly enough, the term ‘postmodernism’ came into existence in the very year he was born (i. e., 1947). He is often regarded as a postmodernist novelist (See Mansour 92; Riza-Ezel 34). He has also adopted a literary style (a genre) which is more often associated with postmodernism---Magic realism. The term was first officially used by the German art critic Franz Roh in 1925 to describe a form of art which presented the real in a marvelous way. Over time, Magic Realism has evolved as a form of literary expression and artistic style or a genre (of fiction) in which magical elements blend with the real world. According to Roh, it “employs [...] techniques that endow all things with a deeper meaning and reveal mysteries that always threaten the secure tranquility of simple and ingenuous things” (1995: 17-18). So far as Magic Realism is concerned, Paulo Coelho has frequently made use of this genre and *The Alchemist* testifies to it. The alchemist’s power of transforming lead into gold is nothing but magic in the fiction. When the alchemist tells Santiago that contemplation even on a grain of sand could unveil the mysteries of the universe, it is magical realism in which the ordinary is defamiliarized. This aspect is highlighted first in the alchemist’s persuasion of Santiago about the interconnectedness of the things and beings in the universe and how the understanding of one thing helps the understanding of another:

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The desert will give you an understanding of the world; in fact, anything on the face of the earth will do that. You don't even have to understand the desert: all you have to do is contemplate a simple grain of sand, and you will see in it all the marvels of creation. (Coelho 83)

### **Transmutation – Another Facet**

Besides this magical aspect of realism, Santiago's transmutation into the wind through his dialogues is nothing but magic. The list can linger. However, it is not at all safe to conclude that Paulo Coelho is a postmodernist novelist only from the use of Magic Realism. In fact, the major literary styles which are characteristics of postmodernist novels are pastiche and parody. Irony is also the undertone of many a postmodernist novel. Hence Paulo Coelho is not strictly a postmodernist novelist.

### **Getting Better**

Apart from restoring the concept of the Self in *The Alchemist*, Paulo Coelho blasts postmodernism through his treatment of notions like love, language, and time. While highlighting the important role love can play in one's life, the novelist asserts: "When we love, we always strive to become better than we are. When we strive to become better than we are, everything around us becomes better too" (144). He believes that love is a transformative force, a magic, which can help an ordinary person to realize themselves. It is the love for Fatima, his beloved, that Santiago courts the risk of interpreting the flight of the hawks and the impending danger for the island of Al-Fayoum. His impersonal love again enables him to teach the wind, the sun, etc. about the ennobling and uplifting nature of love. Further, Coelho believes that love dwells in the heart of people. As such, one should listen to one's heart: "Remember that wherever your heart is, there you will find your treasure" (111). Thus, love has the capacity to unlock the secrets of the heart and the treasure that is hard to attain. Love, which can connect one with people and the world, is a metanarrative. Thus, willy-nilly Coelho has "punctured" the assumptions of postmodernism in *The Alchemist*.

## Languages of the World, of God, and of the Soul

It may appear that Coelho has attempted at a critique of postmodernism deliberately in *The Alchemist* if we consider his approach to language in the novel. The author talks of languages rather than a language. For example, he mentions the 'language of the world' (i.e., ordinary human languages), the language of God (e. g., dreams), the 'language of the soul' (i. e., symbolism), and the universal language (i. e., love). Santiago had to listen to, learn and use different languages at different times. The universal language---Love---“doesn't depend on words” and the boy had experienced it with his sheep first and then with people. His sheep had taught him that:

. . . there was a language in the world that everyone understood, a language the boy had used throughout the time that he was trying to improve things at the shop. It was the language of enthusiasm, of things accomplished with love and purpose, and as part of a search for something believed in and desired. (Coelho 40)

Santiago is of course here speaking of the universal language of love. Coelho asserts that alchemy pioneered the use of this language. This is evident when the English man says:

“Everything in life is an omen,” said the Englishman, now closing the journal he was reading. “There is a universal language, understood by everybody, but already forgotten. I am in search of that universal language, among other things. That’s why I’m here. I have to find a man who knows that universal language. An alchemist.” (Coelho 45)

## Unity in Diversity through Alchemy

Paulo Coelho speaks of unity in diversity through alchemy, the metamodel of reality.

As we see, Paulo Coelho seems to have roped in alchemy to speak a different voice, strike a dissimilar note which runs counter to postmodernist ideas and techniques. His is a positive affirmation of the immense possibilities and latent potentialities in an individual; and he

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has an invincible faith in it. He is aware that the human race has survived modernism and postmodernism. It is time that it learned living with ameliorating and enlightening world views which confirm that human beings are basically good and they achieve totality of being, and save Man and Nature. Coelho forwards a philosophy of life that transcends the modernist and postmodernist attitudes to life and the world: he preaches that in spite of the 'postmodern condition,' one can not only undertake a modernist quest for meaning but, unlike the modernists, one can realize the Self. Santiago's basic identity of a shepherd metamorphosed into a 'realized self' at the end testifies to this point. It is not like Yeats' dismal picture of things fall apart and the inability of the centre to hold ('The Second Coming') and the unleashing of devastating force of ruin and destruction. The Alchemist does not state a note of cacophony but a symphony preaching the message of love, the unifying force, and the resultant harmony that facilitates the attainment of selfhood. In reality, with a note of dissent, Coelho has blown the conch announcing the death of postmodernism in literature. It is gainsay that Paulo Coelho has presented an alternative notion of life which has replaced modernism and postmodernism. It is now left to the intellectual community not only to debate over the current status of Postmodernism but also whether the new trend that has taken postmodernism in a stride can be called *Ultramodernism*.

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# Suspense Strategies in Buchi Emecheta's *Head Above Water*

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## Abstract

This paper explores two strategies employed by Buchi Emecheta to create suspense in her autobiography *Head Above Water*. The two strategies are the use of chapter headings and provision of backgrounds to episodes. It has been ascertained from this study that contrary to some assertions by some scholars about the structure of female autobiography, Emecheta's self-account is coherently organised. This organisation is exploited by the author to create expectation in her readers about what transpires in her account.

**Keywords:** female autobiography, suspense, Buchi Emecheta, African autobiography

## Introduction

Almost every autobiographer has as his or her focus the mission of portraying his or her life as the ideal one. In fact, without this aim, the need for autobiography will be obviated as writers of autobiography try to paint pictures of their lives whether it was progressive or otherwise. According to White and Epston (1990), "persons give meaning to their lives and relationships by storying their experience" (p. 13). Hence the necessity for autobiography by those who deem their experiences worthy of portrayal. The ideal life, according to the German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche, is one that corresponds to the ideal story; each act is coherently related to all other with nothing to spare (cited in Nehamas, 1985). In creating this coherence, some authors try to get their readers involved by gluing them to the account through the use of suspense. This is a controlled way on creating internal tensions in a narrative (Yanal, 1996). Suspense is the creation of a sense of anticipation on the part of the reader concerning what will ensue in a piece of narrative. This paper explores the strategies employed by Buchi Emecheta to create suspense in her autobiography *Head Above Water*. The two main techniques to be looked at are chapter headings and backgrounding of episodes or withholding of revelation.

The strategies adopted by Buchi Emecheta in her autobiography to create suspense are going to be delved into in terms of the following questions:

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- a. How does Emecheta use chapter headings to create suspense?
- b. How does Emecheta use backgrounding of episodes to create suspense?

However, before this is proceeded on, a little background on Buchi Emecheta will be provided. The detail of this can be found in her autobiography *Head Above Water* and other sources.

### **Background of Buchi Emecheta**

Born in Lagos in 1944, Buchi Emecheta was the second of two children of Alice Ogbanje Ojebeta and Jeremy Nwabudike Emecheta. Through a scholarship, Buchi Emecheta gained an admission into the Methodist Girls' High School at age 10. At 17, Emecheta married and gave birth to her first daughter called Chiedu Onwordi. Sometime after this, she got a job at the American Embassy in Lagos and through this she was able to save enough to cover her expenses to London in 1962. Upon her arrival in London, she landed a job at the North Finchley Library to the envy of her landlord and her neighbours since most Nigerians at that time rather worked in factories (p. 28). With the sinecure nature of the library job, Emecheta's interest in writing began to surface. However her husband, who burned her first manuscript entitled *The Bride Price*, cut this short. This and other abrasive happenings led to the separation of the Emecheta from her husband.

After the divorce, Emecheta took up other jobs and also initially enrolled part-time for a bachelor's degree in Sociology in London University in 1969. She also started working on her first novel, *In The Ditch*, which was earlier published serially in a newspaper called the *New Statesman* in 1972. Eventually, *In the Ditch* was published in a volume by Barry and Jenkins. Emecheta followed this work with *The Second Class Citizen*, the *Bride Price* and *The Slave Girl*. Other publications to Emecheta's credit include *The Joys of Motherhood*, *Destination Biafra*, *Naira Power*, *Double Yoke* and *Gwendolen*. Emecheta also authored the play *A Kind of Marriage* produced on BBC television in 1975.

Emecheta's writing style has traces of her Igbo background permeating it as, despite her sojourn in England, her literary compass points at Nigeria. Igboanusi (2001) points out that this characteristic pervades the works of writers of Igbo origin like Chenua Achebe and Elechi Amadi as such authors successfully nativize the English language in their novels.

From the foregoing account on Buchi Emecheta, it can be surmised that her immerse experience in writing works of fictional narratives will influence the account in her autobiography. Some elements of fictional narratives can be derived from her account and

these include her use of suspense. The task of this paper is to illuminate two strategies employed by Emecheta to arouse suspense in her readers.

### **Women's Autobiography**

Since the 1980s, there is an interest in women's autobiographical practices as an articulation of women's life experience and a source for articulating feminist theory. Heilbrun (1988) posits that only in the last third of the twentieth century have women broken through a realization of the narratives that have been controlling their lives. Heilbrun goes on to indicate that before this time, women's autobiography existed in the shadows of those of their men counterparts.

Heilbrun (1988) states that there are four ways to write a woman's life: the woman herself may tell it, in what she chooses to call an autobiography; she may tell it in what she chooses to call fiction; a biographer may write her own life in advance of living it, unconsciously and without recognizing or naming the process (p. 12). However, to Barbara Johnson, the problem for the female autobiographer is, on the one hand, to resist the pressure of masculine autobiography as the only literary genre available for the enterprise, and, on the other hand, to describe a difficulty in conforming with the female ideal which is largely a masculine one (Barbara Johnson cited in Smith & Watson, 1998).

Women's autobiography was regarded by academicians and popular historians as "at best a mine of biographical information and salty citations and deemed it too windy and unreliable—since life stories "stretch" the truth—to be worthy of critical investigation (Smith & Watson, 1998: p. 4/5). Nevertheless, the texts and theory of women's autobiography have been pivotal for revising our concepts of women's life issues (p. 5). Autobiographies like Emecheta's *Head Above Water* has become a mouthpiece of the women who are victims of patriarchy and male chauvinism. Similarly, Maya Angelou's series of six autobiographical volumes which she debuted with *I Know Why the Caged Bird Sings* (1969) explores a kaleidoscope of issues relating to the African-American female. Angelou's self-narratives are sometimes classified as autobiographical fictions because of her use of sanitised dialogues, coherent themes and others (Lupton, 1998).

Buchi Emecheta has storied her life in two of the ways that Heilbrun (1988) mentions above. First, she has composed works of fiction which were generally motivated by her life experiences in England. For instance, in *In the Ditch*, a young Nigerian woman, Adah, struggles hard to overcome her fate of being financially dependent on the British institutions

and becomes a liberated woman through her hard work and education (Oriaku, 2007). Also, Emecheta continues her life saga in *Second-Class Citizen* in which she elaborates on the difficulties of the migrants, positioned within two cultures, like Emecheta's protagonist Adah Obi herself. The only way to Adah's liberation is her industrious endeavour to become a famous writer (Oriaku, 2007). The second way Emecheta writes about her life is by giving a factual account in the form of an autobiography; thus, *Head Above Water*. On these ways that females present their live stories, Oriaku (2007) states that the writer's experiences form a resource base for both the autobiographer and the novelist. The account in Emecheta's autobiography runs parallel with some of her works of fiction like *In the Ditch* and *Second-Class Citizen* which Emecheta herself describes as "autobiographical" (p. 104).

### ***Head Above Water* as a Female Autobiography**

According to Oriaku (2007), Emecheta's goal in her autobiographical writings is to highlight her unique success. The rest of the story shows how the failure of her marriage landed her and her children "in the ditch" in a foreign land and how she gradually overcame the handicap of being a "second-class citizen" both as a black in a white-dominated England and as a woman in a male-dominated world. *Head Above Water*, as a female autobiography, has its own distinctive structure and its form is at variance with the propensity for disorganisation that Gergen (1994) states about the female autobiography. Emecheta exploits the organised form of her autobiography and her knack for storytelling to create suspense in the various episodes she relates to her readers.

### **Conceptual Framework on Suspense**

Suspense is an important factor to the enjoyment of a narrative by its readers (Brewer & Lichtenstein, 1982). According to Cheong and Young (2008), suspense is the feeling of excitement or the anxiety experienced when anticipating the uncertainty of a significant event. A typical characteristic of suspense is the sense of uncertainty and anxiety that audience or readers feel about the way events in a narrative unfold. Vorderer *et al* (1996) also posit that a key component of the emotion of suspense is a cognitive state of uncertainty.

Yanal (1996) states that to raise suspense, a narrative not only withholds information, it implies several possible alternative outcomes, only one which can be eventually realised at points in the narrative will be uncertain to the audience. Yanal (1996) adds that this uncertainty as to the narrative's outcome would seem to be a necessary condition for

suspense, for it seems a person cannot be in suspense regarding an outcome he already knows. However, some authors have tried to explain the "paradox of suspense" which is a narrative tension that remains effective even when uncertainty is neutralized, because repeat audiences know exactly how the story resolves (e.g. Gerrig, 1989; Walton, 1990 and Brewer, 1996). Some factors that account for this phenomenon include forgetfulness of details (Brewer, 1996), immersion into the world of the narrative (Walton, 1990) and, in the case of fictional narrative, the disbelief by readers of the exact repetition of events (Gerrig, 1986) as this does not occur in real life.

Vordera *et al* (1996) have outlined some key theories that account for the creation of suspense in the mind of readers. These are reader involvement, identification theories and sympathy theories. According to the authors, when people read about a fictional world they can engage in a willing suspension of disbelief (as indicated by Coleridge, 1975) and become absorbed in the events in the fictional world. With the identification theories, the reader identifies with characters or personalities they read about and thereby come to feel the emotions that are being felt by the fictional character. In this case, the reader may believe that what is happening to a character may or can be happening to him or her. The sympathy theory which can be said to be some form of dramatic irony is postulated by Zillmann (1991c). According to this theory, the reader may be aware of what awaits a character in a narrative and therefore feel apprehensive towards what is about to happen but the character will unknowingly remain calm. In this regard, the calmness of the character rouses the reader's suspense.

In connecting these theories with what transpires in Buchi Emecheta's *Head Above Water*, it is apparent that hers is a real world and not a fictional one. Because of this, the reader is more likely to be sympathetic, get involved in the account and identify with the narrator than he or she would with a fictional character. Also, although the event in Emecheta's autobiography is a past one, the fact that one is uncertain about what transpires in the various episodes she relates puts one on edge. This accounts for the sympathy theory of suspense that Zillmann (1991c) and others postulate.

## **Methodology**

The chapter headings selected for this work were purposively sampled among 33 others. This was based on their suspenseful nature and the author's provision of backgrounds to the various episodes of her life she narrates in those chapters.

## Discussion

In this section two strategies for suspense employed by Buchi Emecheta in her autobiography are going to be elaborated and their implications will be discussed. These two strategies are the use of chapter headings and creation of backgrounds to episodes. These two were used hand in hand by Emecheta to accomplish suspense in her autobiography as one supported the other.

### *Chapter Heading*

Emecheta's *Head Above Water* has 33 chapters and each of these has a heading. These captions are mainly noun phrases that provide hints to readers about what will emerge in the particular chapters of the book. The fact that the headings give readers hints about what take place in their chapters arouses reader suspense in the account. The subtitles also function as attention getters since a selective reader may read or skip a chapter depending on its title. It should be noted that many autobiography writers exploit this strategy in their writings. A very recent example of this by an African is in Kabral Blay-Amhire's *Fighting for Freedom—The Autobiography of an African Journalist* (2007). Emecheta has therefore captioned her chapters such that her readers will be put into anticipatory mood prior to their reading of the chapter. A selected number of these chapter subtitles are going to be discussed in this section.

#### **a. The Miracle**

This is the caption of the second chapter of Buchi Emecheta's *Head Above Water*. The word 'miracle' is likely to arouse the interest of the average reader because of the notion attached to miracles, which are possibly extraordinary. The author first of all uses this title to grab the attention of the reader towards the chapter. The effectiveness of this approach is prominent when a given reader reads the autobiography selectively in terms of chapters. Secondly, and most importantly, the title makes the reader curious concerning the miracle in question and therefore creates suspense.

#### **b. What They Told Me**

Following the 'The Miracle' chapter, the next chapter of *Head Above Water* is titled 'What They Told Me' which is a relative clause invested with a nominal function. This title carries some sense of intimacy with the reader as it suggests that the author is going to reveal something personal or even a secret. The grammatical structure of this subtitle contains an interrogative element in the form of "What" and everybody may want to find answers to such

basic questions. Because of this, the average reader of Emecheta's autobiography is likely to be made curious by the chapter title and he or she will be put into suspense concerning what Emecheta was told.

### **c. Culture Shock**

The seventh chapter of Emecheta's autobiography has the title above. After reading the previous chapter that is aptly entitled 'The Holiest of Holies', which accounts for Emecheta's preparation and journey to England, one would find it difficult to drop the book when one sees the subtitle 'Culture Shock' in the next chapter. This is because one would be made anxious to ascertain what occasioned this twist as Emecheta earlier described the UK as the 'The Holiest of Holies'. The question one would ask will be about what led to the culture shock. The word 'shock' evokes the sympathy of the reader and this is supported by the sympathy theories of suspense propounded by Zillmann (1991c) and others. Buchi Emecheta also uses a similar title for the fourth chapter of her bestselling *The Joys of Motherhood* which is 'First Shocks of Motherhood' (p. 40). Emecheta therefore uses the expression "culture shock" to engage her readers and also to put them in a state of anticipation.

### **d. The Grant**

As the reader gets engrossed or involved in the account in Emecheta's autobiography, he or she begins to follow her progress with keen interest. In view of Emecheta's meagre resources as a sociology student, the grant from the County Hall was going to be very instrumental in her upkeep. Because of this, the reader expects that she gets the grant to cushion herself financially and this makes the reader anxious to ascertain how she got the grant as it was good news. 'The Grant' being the subtitle of the 11<sup>th</sup> chapter of the work adequately puts the reader in suspense thereby compelling the reader to read on.

### **e. That First Novel**

*Head Above Water* being an autobiography about a novelist, the subtitle above can put the average reader in suspense. One would want to find out how Emecheta came up with her first work. It would be a source of motivation for young readers, especially those who aspire to write. By virtue of the demonstrative pronoun 'that', the construction 'That First Novel' gives a hint to the reader that Emecheta went through some challenges in writing the novel. In everyday language 'that' is used when one is making reference to something troublesome or problematic as in "That man/woman??", "That school??", etc. *Head Above Water's* reader

would therefore be put into suspense to find out the kind of challenges the author went through to publish her first novel.

#### **f. Job-Hunting**

Another exciting episode Emecheta shares in her autobiography is when she attempted to get employment. This was after she had obtained her degree in sociology and published her first novel *In the Ditch*. In everyday life, job hunting is always a difficult moment and any reader who may be absorbed in Emecheta's self-account is likely to be put in suspense to discover what Emecheta went through to get a job after her graduation. "Job-Hunting" as the heading of chapter 18 is therefore a device employed by the author to put the reader in suspense. Accompanying this subtitle are its subsequent counterparts "The Interview" (chapter 19) and "The Wait" (chapter 20). These are all suspenseful as they put readers on edge. With these headings Emecheta conveys the tension and excitement at those moments with her reader and, by so doing, the reader finds it difficult to disengage from the unfolding accounts.

#### **g. The Move**

One dominant theme in Emecheta's autobiography is the theme of progress. In spite of the occasional let downs, Emecheta's life story is characterised by upward social mobility. This is in terms of education, employment and accommodation. The issue of housing is quite prominent in Emecheta's account because of its impact on her self-image and this warranted her constant reference to accommodation, landlords and other issues pertaining to housing. *Juju Landlord* was probably motivated by her experiences with Mr Olufunwa, her Nigerian landlord. Emecheta considered living in rented flats and council houses like 'The Pussy Cat Mansions' as living "in the ditch" and so it was rather exciting when she decided to relocate to her own house. The chapter title 'The Move' is suspenseful in itself as the reader expects some excitement on the part of the narrator. A glimpse of this joy was revealed in chapter 29 when the Emecheta and her family attempted to move to their own house:

"So we were going to move into our new house before Christmas. We were jubilant! ... People started to respect me" (188).

This was, however, short-lived as the owner of the house decided not to sell it anymore and Emecheta states "This incident made me deeply unhappy..." (193). 'The Move' is therefore a headline announcement to the reader that this time Emecheta and her children were really moving into their own house making it fill the reader with some anticipation about how Emecheta and her family finally moved.

## **Backgrounding/Withholding of Information**

Another strategy that Emecheta employs to create suspense in *Head Above Water* is by providing backgrounds to episodes or withholding her revelations. This agrees with what Yanal (1996) states about authors withholding information to create suspense. This strategy congeals with the chapter heading to create suspense because whereas the chapter heading arouses the interest of the reader and hints him or her about what is about to transpire in the episode, the background information to that episode delays the revelation that the reader anticipates. This puts the reader on tenterhooks as the more the author delays in recounting the episode the more the reader grows curious. Also, in the backgrounding, Emecheta sometimes digresses from what she states in the heading thereby making the reader yearn for the information the author gives clues to in the chapter heading. Emecheta's use of backgrounding as suspense device will be explored in terms of the chapter headings discussed above to show how they congeal to create suspense in the reader.

### **a. The Miracle**

After putting the reader in suspense with the chapter heading 'The Miracle', Emecheta delays in revealing the miracle she wants to relate to her readers and rather gives some information about her mother Alice Ogbanje Ojebeta Emecheta (p. 3). She describes whom her mother was, her relationship with her mother and reveals the claim among her folks that her mother might have cursed her (Buchi) before she died. These are stunning revelations but the reader will still be left in suspense about the miracle the author gives a hint about in the chapter's title. Emecheta, at the end of the chapter, mentions what she reckons to be the miracle after this lengthy background information. She states:

As for my survival for the past twenty years in England, from when I was a little over twenty, dragging four cold and dripping babies with me and pregnant with a fifth one—*that is a miracle* (p. 5).

The delayed revelation of the 'miracle' makes it appear to be an appendage or an afterthought of the entire chapter but when one connects Emecheta's success as a single mother in England to her mother's experience, which was not better, it is suitable to consider her survival in England as a miracle.

### **b. What They Told Me**

The suspense in this chapter can be seen in the extensive background Emecheta provides before unveiling what it was that they told her. With this, the author delays her revelation to the reader and rather provides some information on her father and her auntie.

Here, Emecheta reveals what appears to be the source of the suspenseful nature of her self-narrative. She seems to have imbibed the ability to put her readers into suspense from her paternal auntie, Nwakwaluzo Ogbueyin, who inspired Emecheta to be a storyteller. Emecheta's auntie used to put her listeners into a state of anticipation prior to her narrations and of this Emecheta states "she had succeeded in rousing our curiosity and expectancy and she knew it. She closed her eyes and slowly drifted into one of her storytelling trances" (p. 7). In addition, Emecheta puts her readers into a little suspense when narrating the episode when she turns yellow because she was born premature. This actually constitutes the main issue of the chapter as Emecheta attempts to intimate the circumstance surrounding her birth to the reader of *Head Above Water* as 'What They Told Me'.

### c. The Grant

In this chapter, Emecheta raises the anticipation of her readers by providing some sort of background to her receiving a grant for studies in the UK. In doing this, she first shares with her reader the struggles she was going through with her sociology programme. Secondly, Emecheta reveals how a friend of hers, Meriel, disclosed the availability of an opportunity for a student grant from her local government. After providing this background in pages 50 and 51, Emecheta includes, although with some digressions, further details about how she finally obtained the grant. All these were attempts by the author to put her readers into a state of expectancy and hence putting them in suspense.

### d. That First Novel

Raising the curiosity of her readers with the heading above, Emecheta takes her reader back into the issues raging in her mind. First, she is unsure of what to do with her sociology degree. Emecheta states, "The question I kept asking myself was, what could I do as a sociologist?" (57) Secondly, she debates whether it was worthwhile to reveal so much of herself in her novels, as they were autobiographical in nature. She then goes on to share what motivated her to adopt her documentary style of writing; that is, by reading Nell Dunn's *Poor Crow* and Monica Dickens' *One Pair of Hands* which were about 'social reality' (p. 58). Emecheta then provides detailed information surrounding her publication of the first novel. All these put the reader in some kind of suspense as he or she will be uncertain about how Emecheta publishes her first novel. It should be mentioned here that although one anticipates Emecheta's successful publication of her first novel, one's ignorance about the details leading to the publication of the novel puts one in suspense (Brewer, 1996).

### e. Job-Hunting

The chapter 18 of Emecheta's autobiography, with the title above, is suspenseful and Emecheta heightens this with a background to her job-hunting experience. With this, the author situates the difficulty in obtaining a job in England in the 1970s into the proclamations of one Enoch Powell. According to Emecheta, Enoch Powell incited xenophobic sentiments against people of African origin and this lingered as of the time she was looking for a job. Emecheta thus states:

By the time I had left college to look for work, the Powellite vision was no longer so hot, but one could feel the effect of the heat,... (p.110)

This background would make the average reader impatient to find out about how Emecheta finally obtained a job, making the background a device of suspense. Also, Emecheta gives a vivid account of her journey for her first job interview and this account transcends the current chapter to four equally suspenseful subsequent chapters aptly headed as "The Interview" (chapter 19), "The Wait" (chapter 20), "A Peep into The Seventies" (chapter 21) and "Job Acceptance" (chapter 22). The suspense that Emecheta creates in chapter 18 is sustained up to chapter 22 when Emecheta finally makes it definite that she accepted to take up the herculean task offered at The Seventies.

#### **f. The Move**

Emecheta begins chapter 31 which has the caption above by dovetailing the previous chapter (The TV Plays) into it. Whereas this serves as a perfect transitional technique, it delays the author's revelation of the subject matter of the present chapter. This can make the reader yearn for information on how Emecheta finally moved into her own house in London as she constantly makes references to it and even gives hints about it earlier in her autobiography.

#### **Implications**

Two main strategies have been identified as devices of suspense in Buchi Emecheta's autobiography *Head Above Water*. These were the use of chapter headings or titles and creation of backgrounds to episodes. These two techniques work hand in hand as one whets the appetite of the reader or creates an expectation in the reader whilst the other heightens this expectation by delaying in revealing the information. These compel the reader to read on in anticipation. However, Emecheta's use of suspense in her self-narrative has the following implications.

First, her autobiography has been storied and weaved together with a cause and effect plot structure. In this regard, almost every episode is either the cause or the effect of another

episode and Emecheta exploits this to create predictions that bring about suspense. Secondly, the use of suspense is smacked of fictional writing which Emecheta is highly acclaimed for. In *Head Above Water* one can sense the influence of Emecheta's novel writing acumen in her employment of chapter headings as devices of suspense and this is characteristic of most of her novels a typical example of which is found in her classic *The Joys of Motherhood*. Thirdly, Emecheta wants her readers to have the same interest in her life story as they would her novels. Therefore, her use of suspenseful chapter headings is to bait the reader to read the chapter and the background complements this by contextualising the episode in the chapter all the while putting the reader on tenterhooks.

### **Conclusion**

This paper has explored the strategies utilised by Buchi Emecheta to create suspense in her autobiography *Head Above Water*. The strategies identified were chapter headings and backgrounding of episodes. In all, seven chapters were purposively sampled out of the thirty three chapters in Emecheta's autobiography. The chapter headings were examined in terms of their meaning and how they created expectations in the readers. Then the backgrounds to the chapter episodes which began almost every chapter in the autobiography were also discussed.

This paper has unveiled that contrary to Gergen's (1994) assertion that women's autobiographies are more likely to be structured around multiple endpoints and to include materials unrelated to any particular endpoint, a reading of Emecheta's autobiography shows that it forms a coherent whole. In essence, Emecheta is able to use chapter headings to create precognition in the mind of the reader and is able to exploit this to pull the reader along her narrative path in the form of suspense.

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# Development and Validation of the Objectives for Language Stimulation Home Training Activity Manual in Hindi for Parents of the Children with Hearing Impairment

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## Abstract

The Study was aimed to develop and validate the items/ objectives for language stimulation home training activity manual useful for the children with hearing impairment in the chronological age range of 2-6 years. A Quasi Experimental Research Design was chosen to undertake the present study, in which 15 subjects (5 Parents of the hearing impaired, 5 Special educators of hearing impaired and 5 audiologist and speech-language pathologist) as judges were included. All subjects were having or teaching schools going severe to profound hearing impaired children in the age range of 2-6 years. All set items/ objectives under each section of the activity manual was given to all the subjects to rate under 4 points rating scale. The keys and rating points for judging the items was, (a) Not relevant & useful: 1, (b) Very Limited use & relevant: 2, (c) Mostly suitable & useful: 3 and (d) Most relevant & Very useful: 4. The judges were requested to re-write the irrelevant or undecided questions as they think most relevant or add their views to present questions. ANOVAs test was done to see the significant difference among the groups for the set objectives. To signify that there was no significant difference among the groups for the selected objectives, intra-reliability test (spearman brown coefficient) was done. The selected objectives will be useful and helpful to develop a home training activity manual for Parents for the children with hearing impairment.

**Key Words:** Language stimulation, activity manual, Hearing Impairment, Children, Home, Parents, Special educators

## Introduction

“Hearing impairment and deafness are serious disabilities that can impose a heavy social and economic burden on individuals, families, communities and countries. Children

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with hearing impairment often experience delayed development of speech, language and cognitive skills, which may result in slow learning and difficulty progressing in school. The burden of hearing impairment and deafness falls disproportionately on the poor, because they are unable to afford the preventive and routine care necessary to avoid hearing loss, or to afford hearing aids to make the condition manageable. Hearing impairment can also make it more difficult to escape poverty by slowing progress in school and the workplace, and placing people in social isolation” (WHO, 1998).

Hearing impairment has a devastating, detrimental and an invariably adverse impact on the development of new-born and the psychological well-being of their families. Neonates having mild to profound hearing loss bilaterally or unilaterally, hearing loss of varying degrees above 1000Hz, or auditory deprivation due to recurrent otitis media, develop significant and long term effects on speech and language skills. Reduced auditory input also adversely affects development of the central auditory nervous system, and can negatively impact speech perception that interferes with growth in social, emotional, behavioral and cognitive spheres, academic achievement, vocational options, employment opportunities and economic self-sufficiency. Indeed, such problems may trouble these individuals for the rest of their lives, if not attended in time (cited in work done by Shamim Ansari, 2004).

Thus, to reduce all these problems faced by children with hearing impairment, there is a need for intervention in early stages.

### **Intervention Issues**

Language and communication Intervention has many issues which include Early Intervention, influence of inter-actionist perspective, influence of clinician (speech-language therapist) perspective and influence of home training (parent based) perspective.

Influence of home training (parent based) perspective is most important because most parents who find out that their child has learning problems and is not developing as expected will react with concern (What does this mean for my child?) and often guilt (What have I done wrong?) or infer (What has gone wrong? Who is to blame?). These may be defenses in the ways that mothers and fathers react which can cause additional conflict (Burgess, 1997).

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## **Training for Parents**

And also the parents are the ones who stay for longer time with their child after the school. Hence they need to get trained in different approaches and different activities which help them to work on communication of the child at home. For getting trained and equipped with different approaches and activities to work at home, a parental guidance along with written training manuals, video and other support material is needed.

There are some written guides for parents such as The SKI\* HI Model: Programming for Hearing Impaired Infants through Home Intervention, Home visit curriculum, 4th edition by Clarck, Thomas C., Watkins, Susan (1985) which describes the SKI\*HI Model, A comprehensive approach to identification and home intervention treatment of Hearing Impaired children and their families (<http://trove.nla.gov.au/work/18430656?versionId=46255170>). The model features home programming in four basic areas: The home hearing aid program (Nine lessons which facilitate the proper fit and acceptance of amplification by the child), Home communication program (ways to help Parents develop essential communication skills and select an optimum language method), Home auditory program (ways to promote use of residual hearing), and home language stimulation program. Information for parent advisors addresses the first home visits, psycho-emotional support for families and home visit planning, delivering and reporting. Home visit programs are examined in terms of lesson plans and sample activities for the subject areas of: hearing aids, home communication, home auditory program, and home language stimulation programs (aural-oral and total communication).

## **No Activity Manual in India Incorporating Indian Contexts**

In Indian context there is no activity manual for parents of hearing impaired children at home has been developed. However, there are different learning manual for children with Hearing-Impairment have been developed in different languages mainly, Kannada, Malayalam and English, which mainly focus on Listening and auditory based activities.

## **Learning Manuals for Indian Languages Including English**

The learning manuals are as follows:

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1. Auditory learning Manual for English speaking Hearing-Impaired Children (Anitha, 2001).
2. Auditory learning Manual for Kannada speaking Hearing-Impaired Children (Vijayalakshmi, 2004).
3. Auditory learning Manual for Malayalam speaking children with Hearing-Impaired (Asha Manoharan, 2008).
4. Auditory learning manual for hearing-impaired infants and toddlers (Devi, N. 2005).

These learning manuals do not focus on the home base activities to develop language. There are also very few written activity manuals for parents are available for the children with mental retardation. One written guide for parents has been developed at National Institute for the Mentally Handicapped (NIMH), Secunderabad, namely, “Training in Communication Skills for Persons with Mental Retardation (UTILITY GUIDE FOR PARENTS)” by Subba Rao & Narayan, (2003). The guide has 10 sections in which about 175 activities are recorded. And based on work done by Subba Rao & Narayan, (2003), “Language stimulation techniques for the children with mental retardation - an activity manual for the parents” has been developed by Rajeev Ranjan, (2006), (an unpublished master dissertation, Mangalore University) which has 3 sections in which about 100 activities are recorded).

So, there is a need to plan, draft and develop items under different domains of communication such as Attention, Auditory training, Verbal Comprehension, Oral Expression and Articulation. This will help to develop activity manuals for all needy parents of the children with Hearing impairment.

### **Aim of the Study**

Development and validation of the items/ objectives for language stimulation home training activity manual useful for the children with hearing impairment in the chronological age range of 2-6 years.

### **Objectives of the Study**

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1. To develop items/ objectives for language stimulation home training activity manual useful for the children with hearing impairment in the chronological age range of 2-6 years.

Sub-Objectives: This will have V sections (under each section 10 objectives/ items will be developed).

- Section I: Attention.
- Section II: Auditory training.
- Section III: Verbal Comprehension.
- Section III: Oral Expression.
- Section V: Articulation.

2. To validate developed items/ objectives for language stimulation home training activity manual useful for the children with hearing impairment in the chronological age range of 2-6 years.

## Methods

A Quasi Experimental Research Design has been chosen to undertake the present study. 11-15 items/ objectives under each section of the manual were planned and written. To know whether the items/ objectives framed in the Language Stimulation Home Training Activity Manual are suitable for the study, 15 judges (5 Special educators, Parents of the hearing impaired and Audiologist and Speech-Language Pathologist (ASLP)) were selected. They helped validate and confirm the items/ objectives in present research tool (activity manual) under 4 points rating scale. The keys and rating points for judging the written items/ objectives were (a) Not relevant & useful: 1, (b) Very Limited use & relevant: 2, (c) Mostly suitable & useful: 3 and (d) Most relevant & Very useful: 4.

The judges were provided with the following:

- (1) A covering letter of the researcher
- (2) Bio - data of the researcher
- (3) A copy of the drafted items/objectives

The covering letter focused on the following:

1. Introduction of the present researcher

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2. Topic of the research and its objectives
3. Explanation of their role in validation

The judges were requested to re-write the questions which they thought as irrelevant and/or to add their views to present questions. After getting the items/objectives back from the 15 judges, 10 items/ objectives were selected under each section for developing the activities after the validation from the judges. The items/ objectives which rated as Most relevant & very useful (4) and Mostly suitable & useful (3) were retained for the development of activities in the activity manual. The items/ objectives which received less than 4 and 3 ratings were deleted from the items / objectives and not included in the activity manual .

### Result

For this study 5 Parents, 5 Special Educators and 5 ASLPs' were selected and most of them were from Northern side of India. All subjects were Hindi-speaking and had working knowledge of English. The keys and rating points for judging the written items/ objectives were (a) Not relevant & useful: 1, (b) Very Limited use & relevant: 2, (c) Mostly suitable & useful: 3 and (d) Most relevant & Very useful: 4.

The results are presented in this section.

**Table-1. Parents group**

S.No	Name	Age/Sex	Education	Age of the HI child	Knowledge of English
1.	Mr. S.J	37Yrs/F	BA	6Yrs	Yes
2.	Mr. R. S	38Yrs/M	PUC	4Yrs	Yes
3.	Mrs. A.J	35Yrs/F	PUC	6Yrs	Yes
4.	Mrs. R.A	37Yrs/F	B.Ed.	6Yrs	Yes
5.	Mrs. P. S	26Yrs/F	BA	5Yrs	Yes

(Note: PUC- Pre University College, BA- Bachelors of Arts, B.Ed-Bachelors in education)

Table-1 shows the characteristics of subjects (Parents), i.e. Name, Age/Sex, Education, Age of the HI child and knowledge of English for parents.

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It can be observed that 02 fathers and 03 mothers participated in the study. The education levels are generally above PUC level. All parents reported working knowledge of English.

**Table-2. Special Educators group**

S.No	Name	Age/Sex	Education	Experience	Knowledge of English
1.	Ms.V.T.J	24 Yrs/F	DSE-HI	2 years	Yes
2.	Ms. D.T	23 Yrs/F	DSE-HI	1years	Yes
3.	Ms. K.S	23 Yrs/F	DSE-HI & (B.Ed.-HI distance)	1.5years	yes
4.	Mr. G	24 Yrs/M	DSE-HI	4years	Yes
5.	Ms. A.K	22 Yrs/F	DSE-HI	2years	Yes

(Note: DSE-HI: Diploma in Special Education-Hearing Impairment, B.Ed.-HI: Bachelors in education-Hearing Impairment)

Table-2 shows the characteristics of subjects (Special Educators) i.e. Name, Age/Sex, Education, work experience and Knowledge of English for Special educators.

As can be observed from table 2, All Special Educators had Diploma in Special Education-Hearing Impairment (DSE-HI), with a minimum experience of 1 Year. All reported a working knowledge of English.

**Table-3. Audiologist and Speech Language Pathologist (ASLPs') group**

S.No	Name	Age/Sex	Education	Experience	Knowledge of English
1.	Mr. G	29Yrs/M	MASLP	4Yrs	Yes
2.	Mrs. P. S	30Yrs/F	M.Sc (ASLP)	5 Yrs	Yes
3.	Dr. A. DG	39Yrs/M	Au.D., MSLH	14 Yrs	Yes
4.	Mr. K.G	32Yrs/F	MASLP	6Yrs	Yes
5.	Mr. R. R	34Yrs/M	MASLP	6Yrs	Yes

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(Note: MASLP: Master in Audiology and Speech Language Pathology, M.Sc. (ASLP): Master of Science in Audiology and Speech Language Pathology, Au.D: Doctor of Audiology, MSLH: Master in Speech Language and Hearing)

Table- 3 shows the Name, Age/Sex, Education, work experience and Knowledge of English for the ASLPs'. All ASLPs' had masters' degree and working knowledge of English and their minimum work experience was 4 years.

Anova test was done to find any significant difference among the groups and results showed that there is no significant difference among the groups for most of the items/ objectives under each section. However there were a few items/ objectives that approached near significant level. Intra-reliability test (spearman brown coefficient) was done to know the reliability of the items/ objectives among the groups (Alpha value more than 0.5 for all the items/ objectives under each section).

The table below shows Mean, Standard deviation and p-value for the items/ objectives under each section.

**Table: 4. Comparison among the group, i.e., Parents (P), Special Educators (SE) and ASLPs' for the objectives selected in Section I. Attention**

Items/ Objectives	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value
O.2. To attend the puzzles	P	2.8	1.09	0.28 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.2	0.44	
O.3. To match the two Pictures: Bus & Car	P	4	0.00	0.23 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	
O.4. To match the Pictures (Bus) and object (Bus)	P	3.2	0.83	0.61 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	4	.00	
O.5. Points to a person (Mother/ Father)	P	3.2	0.83	0.28 **
	SE	3	0.00	
	ASLP	3.6	0.54	
O.6. To colour the Picture as per Number	P	3.4	0.54	

	SE	3.2	0.44	0.54 **
	ASLP	2.8	1.30	
O.7. To sit for 10 – 20 minutes	P	2.8	0.44	0.80 **
	SE	2.8	0.44	
	ASLP	3	0.70	
O.9. To search the words in 10 words puzzle	P	3.8	0.44	0.64 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.6	0.89	
O.10. To look towards an object (Bus/Car)	P	3.8	0.44	0.55 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	
O.11. Points to an object (Bus/Car)	P	4.0	0.00	0.30 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.6	0.54	
O.12. Turns and looks toward person speaking	P	4	0.00	0.32 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	

(\*\*: Not significant, \*: Significant)

Table 4 shows that there is no significant difference among the groups for all selected items/objectives under section I Attention.

**Table: 5. Comparison among the group i.e. Parents (P), Special Educators (SE) and ASLPs' for the objectives selected in Section II. Auditory Training**

Items/ Objectives	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value
O.1. To attend the sound (Mother and Father Voice)	P	3.4	0.89	0.64 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.44	
O.2. To localize the sound (Mother and Father Voice)	P	3.2	1.09	0.35 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.3. To detect sound (Mother & Father voice) from distance (3-6 feet)	P	3.8	0.44	0.75 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.4. To discriminate between two sounds-Door bell &	P	3.6	0.54	

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Door knocks	SE	3.2	0.44	0.17 **
	ASLP	3.8	.44	
O.5. To discriminate between name call & Table tap	P	3.6	0.54	0.86 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	
O.6. To identify his/her name	P	3.2	0.54	0.49 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.2	0.44	
O.7. To identify his/her parent voice from back	P	3.6	0.89	0.64 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.8. To identify the sound from distance (3-6 feet)	P	3.4	0.89	0.34 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.9. To understand two word utterances (Action + location= come here)	P	3.8	0.44	0.34 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.2	0.83	
O.10. To understand the different speech sounds, such as /p/, /t/ and /k/	P	3.4	0.54	0.49 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	3.6	0.54	

(\*\*): Not significant, \*: Significant)

Table 5 shows that there is no significant difference among the groups for all selected items/objectives under section II Auditory Training.

**Table: 6. Comparison among the group i.e. Parents (P), Special Educators (SE) and ASLPs' for the objectives selected in Section III. Verbal Comprehension**

Items/ Objectives	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value
O.1. To develop name Recognition	P	3.8	0.44	0.33 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.2. To recognize his family members (Father and Mother)	P	3.8	0.44	0.10 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.3. To follow simple instruction (Give me + object –	P	3.4	0.54	

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Give me glass).	SE	3.2	0.44	0.02 *
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.4. To develop number recognition (1-10)	P	3.4	0.89	0.13 **
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.5. Locates common objects in unfamiliar pictures	P	3.6	0.54	0.49 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.6. To follow 2 step instructions (Take the glass and give it to mummy)	P	3.0	0.70	0.03 *
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.7. To sort two groups of object (Fruits & vegetables) without assistance	P	2.6	1.14	0.03 *
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.8. To give the correct object when asked to give	P	3.0	1.0	0.16 *
	SE	2.6	0.54	
	ASLP	4	0.00	
O.9. To point to the correct picture which answers a question involving who, what or where? (To show a family picture, where his/her all family are there)	P	3.6	0.54	0.30 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.11. To improve understanding of, concepts of positions & Prepositions: on, under, in	P	3.4	0.54	0.02 *
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	

(\*\*): Not significant, \*: Significant)

Table 6 shows that there is no significant difference among the groups for the most of the items/ objectives under section III Verbal Comprehension. However there are a few items/ objectives (i.e., O.3, O.6, O.7, O.8 & O.11) that approached near significant level.

**Table: 7. Comparison among the group i.e. Parents (P), Special Educators (SE) and ASLPs' for the objectives selected in Section IV. Oral Expression**

Items/ Objectives	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value
O.2. To vocalize vowels /a/, /e/, /u/	P	2.8	1.09	0.61 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.2	0.44	

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O.3. To vocalize consonants /p/, /b/, /m/, /t/ etc.	P	4	0.00	0.10 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	
O.4. Vocalizes to greet others (To say hello, Bye to mummy & Papa)	P	3.2	0.83	0.33 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	4	.00	
O.6. To say his/her name	P	3.4	0.54	0.33 **
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	2.8	1.30	
O.7. To say meaningful single word such as (mamma) & (papa)	P	2.8	0.44	0.35 **
	SE	2.8	0.44	
	ASLP	3	0.70	
O.9. To name the parts of the body – Hand, leg, mouth, head, ear, eye etc.	P	3.8	0.44	0.17 **
	SE	3.4	0.54	
	ASLP	3.6	0.89	
O.11. To speak action verbs such as eat, drink etc.	P	4.0	0.00	0.02 *
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.6	0.54	
O.12. To say color names i.e. red, blue, black, green, white, yellow etc.	P	4	0.00	0.23 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	
O.13. To speak in two word utterances (Agent + action form = mummy eat)	P	3.2	0.44	0.09 **
	SE	3	0.00	
	ASLP	3.2	1.30	
O.14. To answer (what) question – what is your name?	P	2.6	0.89	0.22 **
	SE	2.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.4	0.89	

(\*\* : Not significant, \* : Significant)

Table 7 shows that there is no significant difference among the groups for the most of the items/ objectives under section IV Oral Expression. However there is one item/ objective (i.e. O.11) that approached near significant level.

**Table: 8. Comparison among the group i.e. Parents (P), Special Educators (SE) and ASLPs' for the objectives selected in Section V. Articulation.**

Items/ Objectives	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	p-value
O.1. To articulate sound /p/	P	4.0	0.00	

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	SE	3.6	0.54	0.11 **
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.2. To articulate sound /h/	P	3.4	0.54	0.13 **
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	3.6	0.54	
O.3. To articulate sound /e/	P	3.6	0.54	0.00 *
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.4. To articulate sound /t/	P	3.4	0.54	0.02 *
	SE	3.2	0.44	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.5. To articulate sound /k/	P	3.0	1.00	0.05 **
	SE	2.6	0.54	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.6. To articulate sound /l/	P	4.0	0.00	0.11 **
	SE	3.6	0.54	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.7. To articulate sound /s/	P	3.2	0.83	0.09 **
	SE	3.0	0.00	
	ASLP	3.8	0.44	
O.8. To articulate sound /tS/	P	2.4	0.54	0.05 **
	SE	3.0	0.96	
	ASLP	3.0	1.22	
O.9. To articulate sound /d/	P	2.8	1.09	0.02 *
	SE	2.8	0.44	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	
O.10. To articulate sound /a/	P	3.0	1.00	0.02 *
	SE	2.8	0.44	
	ASLP	4.0	0.00	

(\*\*): Not significant, \*: Significant)

Table 8 shows that there is no significant difference among the groups for the most of the items/ objectives under section V Articulation. However there are few items/ objectives (i.e., O.3, O.4, O.9 & O.10) that approached near significant level.

Selected Items/ Objectives for Language Stimulation Home Training Activity Manual in Hindi for Parents of the Children with Hearing Impairment are listed in Appendix I.

## Discussion

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As per the aim of the study, items/ objectives were developed and validated for developing a language stimulation home training activity manual for the parents of children with hearing impairment in the chronological age range of 2-6 years. The activity manual had five sections namely, Section I: Attention, Section II: Auditory training, Section III: Verbal Comprehension, Section IV: Oral Expression and Section V: Articulation. Under each section 11 to 15 items/ objectives were written, out of which ten items/ objectives were selected under each section.

The study was carried out in two parts. Part one was the development & validation of the items/ objectives and part two was to check the reliability of the developed items/ objectives.

### **Development & Validation of items/ objectives:**

#### **For section I: Attention**

13 items/ objectives were written and these were given to all the judges to rate and validate each item/ objective. Out of 13 items/ objectives, total 10 items/ objectives were selected under attention to develop activity for the manual.

#### **Section II: Auditory training**

11 items/ objectives were written and these were given to all the judges to rate and validate each items/ objectives. Out of 11 items/ objectives, total 10 items/ objectives were selected under auditory training to develop activity for the manual.

#### **Section III: Verbal Comprehension**

12 items/ objectives were written and these were given to all the judges to rate and validate each item/ objective. Out of 12 items/ objectives, total 10 items/ objectives were selected under verbal comprehension to develop activity for the manual.

#### **Section IV: Oral Expression**

14 items/ objectives were written and it was given to all the judges to rate and validate each item/ objective in this section. Out of 14 items/ objectives, total 10 items/ objectives were selected under oral expression to develop activity for the manual.

#### **Section V: Articulation**

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11 items/ objectives were written and these were given to all the judges to rate and validate each item/ objective. Out of 11 items/ objectives, total 10 items/ objectives were selected under articulation to develop activity for the manual.

The developed items/ objectives under each section were given to the judges to rate the items/ objectives under four rating scales. All selected items/ objectives were rated as Most relevant & very useful (4) and Mostly suitable & useful (3) by all the judges. The items/ objectives which rated as Very Limited use & relevant (2) & Not relevant & useful (1) were deleted from the list and were not included for developing the activity.

### **Reliability of selected items/ objectives**

It was very difficult to know the reliability of the developed items/ objectives for the developing activity manual. So to know the reliability of the items/ objectives among the judges, Intra-reliability test (Spearman Brown coefficient) was done. And Intra-reliability test (Spearman Brown coefficient) value, i.e., Alpha value was  $> 0.5$  for all the groups under each section of the activity manual. This indicates good reliability for the items/ objectives under each section by all the judges. And as per the suggestion given by the judges, the items/ objectives were modified, added and sequentially arranged, which were incorporated in the final list of the items/ objectives for the activity manual.

### **Summary and Conclusion**

Development of objectives is an important point for developing any language stimulation manual. Most of the objectives were highly rated by all the subjects, which indicated the high reliability of the selected objectives among the subjects.

**Limitations of the study:** The number of subjects taken was less for the groups and the developed items/ objectives in this study were very limited.

**Further recommendations:** More number of subjects can be included and more items/ objectives can be included to validate.

In conclusion, the selected items/ objectives were useful and helpful to develop an activity in the home training activity manual for Parents of the children with hearing impairment.

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## **APPENDIX-I**

**Selected Items/ Objectives under each section for Language Stimulation Home Training Activity Manual in Hindi for Parents of the Children with Hearing Impairment.**

## I. ध्यान (Attention)

1. पज्जल्स/पहेली के तरफ ध्यान देना।  
(To attend the puzzles).
2. दो तस्वीरें बस और कार को मिलाना।  
(To match the two Pictures-Bus & Car).
3. तस्वीर 'बस' और वस्तु 'बस' को मिलाना।  
(To match the Pictures-Bus and object-Bus).
4. व्यक्ति 'माता/पिता' के तरफ इशारा करना।  
(Points to a person- Mother/ Father).
5. लिखे गये अंक के आधार पर रंग भरना।  
(To colour the Picture as per Number).
6. 10 - 20 मिनट के लिए बैठना।  
(To sit for 10 - 20 minutes).
7. दस शब्दों के पहेली में शब्द खोजना।  
(To search the words in 10 words puzzle).
8. एक वस्तु; 'बस/ कार' की ओर देखना।  
(To look towards an object-Bus/Car).
9. एक वस्तु; 'बस/ कार' के तरफ इशारा करना।  
Points to an object-Bus/Car).
10. बातें करते हुए व्यक्ति के तरफ मुड़ना और देखना।  
(Turns and looks toward person speaking).

## II. श्रवण प्रशिक्षण (Auditory Training)

1. ध्वनि 'माँ और पिता का आवाज' पर ध्यान देना।  
(To attend the sound (Mother and Father Voice)).
2. ध्वनि 'माँ और पिता की आवाज' का स्थान निर्धारण करना।  
(To localize the sound 'Mother and Father voice')
3. ध्वनि 'माँ और पिता का आवाज' को दूर '3-6 फीट' से पता लगाना।  
(To detect sound from distance (3-6 feet) (Mother & Father voice))
4. दो ध्वनियों 'दरवाजे की घंटी और दरवाजे की खटखटाहट' में अंतर करना।  
(To discriminate between two sounds – Dor bell & Door knocks)
5. नाम बुलाने और टेबल थपथपाने की आवाज में अंतर करना।  
(To discriminate between name call & Table tap)
6. अपना नाम पहचानना। (To identify his/her name)
7. पीछे से आ रहे माता-पिता के आवाज को पहचानना।  
(To identity his/her parent voice from back)
8. दूर '3-6 फीट' फीट से आ रहे ध्वनि को पहचानना।  
(To identify the sound from distance (3-6 feet))
9. दो शब्द के वाक्य 'काम+स्थान - आओ+इधर' इधर आओ को समझना।  
(To understand two word utterances (Action + location= come here)
10. अलग-अलग वाक् ध्वनि; जैसे: प,ट,क को समझना।  
(To understand the different speech sounds, such as (p), (t) and (k))

### III. मौखिक बुद्धि/ समझ (Verbal Comprehension)

1. अपना नाम पहचानने में विकास करना।  
(To develop name Recognition).
2. अपने परिवार के सदस्य 'माँ और पिता' को पहचानना।  
(To recognize his family members- Father and Mother).
3. आसान निर्देश का पालन करना; जैसे- ग्लास दो।  
(To follow simple instruction- Give me + object = Give me glass).
4. नम्बर; एक-दस पहचानने में विकास करना।  
(To develop number recognition- 1-10).
5. अपरिचित वस्तुओं के तस्वीर में से आम वस्तु को ढूँढना।  
(Locates common objects in unfamiliar pictures).
6. दो कदम वाले निर्देश का पालन करना-जैसे ग्लास लो और मम्मी को दो।  
(To follow 2 step instructions- take the glass and give it to mummy).
7. बिना सहायता के वस्तुओं को दो समुह- फल तथा सब्जी से अलग करना।  
(To sort two groups of object- Fruits & vegetables, without assistance).
8. जब बोला जाय कि वस्तु दो तो सही वस्तु देना।  
(To give the correct object when asked to give).
9. सही तस्वीर के तरफ इशारा करके सही उत्तर बताना, जिसमें कि कहाँ, क्या, कौन, प्रश्न शामिल हो; जैसे-अपने किसी एक परिवार के सदस्य के बारे में बताना, किसी एक तस्वीर में।  
(To point to the correct picture which answers a question involving who, what or where? i.e., to show a family picture, where his/her all family are there).

10. स्थिति के धारणा को समझना; प्रिपजिशन: उपर, नीचे, अन्दर इत्यादि।  
(To improve understanding of, concepts of positions & Prepositions: on, under, in).

#### IV. मौखिक अभिव्यक्ति (Oral Expression)

1. स्वर; अ, ई, ऊ बोलने के लिये सीखना।  
(To vocalize vowels- a, e, u).
2. व्यंजन; प, ब, म, ट इत्यादि बोलना सीखना।  
(To vocalize consonants- p, b, m, t, etc.).
3. दुसरो का स्वागत करना सीखना; जैसे-हल्लो बोलना, मम्मी और पापा को बाय बोलना।  
(Vocalizes to greet others, to say hello, Bye to mummy & Papa).
4. अपना नाम बोलना। (To say his/her name).
5. एक अर्थपूर्ण शब्द मम्मा तथा पापा बोलना।  
(To say meaningful single word, such as mumma & papa).
6. शरीर के अंग का नाम बताना; जैसे- हाथ, पैर, मुँह, माथा, कान, आँख, इत्यादि।  
(To name the parts of the body – Hand, leg, mouth, head, ear, eye etc.).
7. एक्शन वर्ब बोलना जैसे- खाना, पीना इत्यादि।  
(To speak action verbs such as eat, drink etc.).
8. रंगो का नाम बोलना; जैसे लाल, नीला, काला, हरा, उजला, पीला इत्यादि।  
(To say color names- red, blue, black, green, white, yellow etc.).
9. दो शब्दों के वाक्यों में बोलना जैसे- 'मम्मी खाना'।

(To speak in two word utterances, 'agent + action' form = mummy eat).

10. 'क्या' प्रश्न का उत्तर देना, जैसे – तुम्हारा नाम क्या है ?  
(To answer 'what' question – what is your name?).

## V. उच्चारण (Articulation)

1. 'प' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /p/).
2. 'ह' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /h/).
3. 'ई' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /e/).
4. 'त' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /t/).
5. 'क' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /k/).
6. 'ल' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /l/).
7. 'स' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /s/).
8. 'च' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /tʃ/).
9. 'द' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /d/).
10. 'अ' का उच्चारण। (To articulate sound /a/).

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# Assimilation of English Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil

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## Abstract

The English borrowings in Tamil are pronounced strangely or differently by monolinguals since the sound system of Tamil differs from that of English. In casual discussions, assimilated forms of borrowings are used by interlocutors who may be all bilinguals or bilinguals and monolinguals. Monolinguals may tend to assimilate the English sound into Tamil due to unfamiliarity with English sound system. In this article, before attempting to study the nature of assimilation of English borrowings in the speech of Jaffna Tamil monolinguals, some general features of the sound system of English and Tamil are discussed initially and then some generalizations regarding the assimilation patterns of English borrowings are given. Ultimately the study intends to suggest a remedy to overcome issues linked with assimilation process.

**Key Words: Assimilation, Borrowings, Euphony, Monolinguals, Phonetic Modification**

## Sound Variations of Languages

It is apparent that sound system of languages varies. The basic sounds in all languages are nearly the same. But the variation of sounds occurs as some sounds are significant in some languages and some other sounds are more significant in some other languages. For example, sounds represented by (la) and (ra) in Tamil and (ha), (sa) and (ʃa) in Hindi are prominent. In the Australian languages, the sounds represented by (ha) and (sa) are not found at all (Varatharajan, 1975, P.137)

Some languages are full of weak sounds while others have ample strong sounds. There are rules governing the occurrence of certain sounds in the final position and combined sounds in the intermediate position in words in some languages and such rules are not found in other languages.

Innumerable sounds can be produced by man. But only certain sounds are used by him in the spoken language. Sounds which are easy to be articulated and are distinctively identifiable from each other are used in the spoken language. The following statement endorses this view. “Of the indefinite number of distinguishable sounds which it can produce, only a fraction, of twelve to fifty are put to use in any one language.....from among the many possible, these have changed to be taken, mainly the sounds easiest to make, and broadly distinguished from one another”. (Varatharajan, 1975, P.137)

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The nature and weather influence the use of sounds in languages. Strong sounds can be found in languages spoken by people who struggle with the nature and attempt to control it, for their survival. People who do not confront with the nature and who indulge in the delight provided by the nature choose mild sounds in their speech. The English who live in countries which have severe cold climate use strong sounds. Clusters of two or three consonants in the initial position as well as in the final position of words can be found in their languages. English words like Strength, Grind, Prick, Click, Bright etc. can be cited in this respect. Tamils who live without much exertion to struggle with the nature in countries like India and Sri Lanka where there is a suitable climate for them, use mild sounds.

### **Features of Phonetic Changes**

The changes occurring in the sounds of words are beyond the intention of speakers. The following comments are worth mentioning in this context. “Phonetic changes take place mechanically, independent of the will or even of the knowledge of the speaker, but with a regularity so limited in principle and a variety so disconcerting in results that one can hardly rediscover in it any of the characteristics of a given type of language.” (Varatharajan,1975, P.140).

The will of the speaker is not involved in the phonetic modification but it is the speech organs including the tongue which gradually cause the phonetic modification.

Many English words gradually find their way into the day-to-day speech of Tamil monolinguals in Jaffna. The names of new things and practices are pouring in almost daily. In business, industry, financial institutions, recreation and at home use of English words is very frequent. Most of the English borrowings undergo phonological change when they enter into the speech of monolinguals. The following remarks by Hudson (1980, P.59 ) are appropriate in this context. “It is common for items to be assimilated in some degree to the items already in the borrowing variety with foreign sounds being replaced by native sounds and so on.”

The basic reason for the phonological deviation found in the pronunciation of English words by Tamil monolinguals is the difference between the sound systems of English and Tamil and the number of phonemes in these two languages. The sounds produced by the English letters b,d,g,f,s, and z are new or troublesome for Tamil monolinguals. Ultimately these sounds are altered or adapted phonologically and pronounced conveniently by them.

Further, Francis (1963, P.133) explained: “As soon as borrowed words get taken up by monolinguals their sounds are adapted to the sound system of the host language. Within a generation or two of its first borrowed usually is forgotten by monolingual speakers, it has become naturalized.”

It is observed that phonetic modification occurs because of the euphonious effect. If two consequent sounds are of the same class or analogous in nature it will be easy to articulate their combined sound. Phonetic modification progresses towards this ease. This view is supported thus: “Euphony depends not only on custom, but even more on articulation and on ease of perception. What requires intricate or difficult movements of the organs of speech will always be

left us cacophonous, and so will, anything that is indistinct or blurred ”. ( Varatharajan, 1975, P.140 ). For example, the English Bench, Rubber, Belt etc. have become borrowings in Tamil in their assimilated forms as peintu, r̥apar, and velitu. These assimilated forms are the result of euphonious effect.

Economy of effort is also a factor which influences phonetic modification. For example, the English Shock Absorber has become a borrowing in the Jaffna Tamil and is pronounced as tʃɔkatʃɔ:r” in a shortened form. Shortening of words in this manner is intended to speak much with less effort within a short span of time.

Further examples of borrowings in shortened forms are given below.

<b>English</b>	<b>As Borrowings in Tamil</b>
Identity Card	aidɪŋ ca:ddu
Battery	vattɪ
Factory	pækrɪ

One learns to speak a language as one listens to another person speaking it. The person speaking and the person listening to the language can't be expected to speak that language in the same manner always. The mentalities and the state of senses vary from person to person. Therefore changes occur in the features including the pronunciation of words of a language. The following comments are appropriately expressed by linguists in this respect.

“No two speakers of a language have absolutely identical habits of pronunciation and in some cases there is a great variation from person to person or from region to region. Consequently a good pronunciation of such a language need not be an exact counterpart of any one native speaker's pronunciation; if we establish habits well within the range of variation found among native speakers themselves, our pronunciation will count ... as good. (Hockett, 1950, p. 262)

“Tradition is by its very nature imperfect and inaccurate. No one has ever yet been able to prevent what passes from mouth to ear from getting altered on the way... And all through the life long process of learning one's mother tongue, one is liable to apprehend wrongly and to reproduce inexactly”. (Varatharajan, 1975, p. 146).

### **Assimilation**

Assimilation is a kind of sound change commonly found in languages. In assimilation one consonant becomes similar to another depending on the point of articulation or the manner of articulation. The following remarks on assimilation elaborate it further.

“Perhaps the most common type of conditioned sound change is assimilation, whereby one sound becomes more like a neighbouring one. Obviously this can be considered a simplification of the muscular movements needed to pronounce a given word. Assimilation is a very frequent phenomenon in just about all the languages of the world. In terms of articulatory phonetics assimilation of consonants usually involves in one or more of the following three ways.

1. Point of Articulation
2. Manner of Articulation
3. Voicing” (Arlotto,1972, P.81)

The above features of assimilation are well recognized in English borrowings in their assimilated forms in Tamil.

The English Bomber and Ounce have been borrowed in the Jaffna Tamil and they are pronounced as ‘pɔmpɐr’ and ‘auntʃu’. These assimilations are effected in terms of point of articulation.

The English Paint and Chimney borrowed in the Jaffna Tamil are pronounced as ‘peintu’ and ‘simini’.

These assimilations are based on the manner of articulation.

Assimilation can be categorized into two types i.e. 1.Progressive Assimilation and 2. Regressive Assimilation.

### **Progressive Assimilation**

If a phoneme is modified in harmony with the preceding phoneme, the assimilation is called the progressive assimilation. Arlotto (1972, p.81) remarks thus. “Progressive assimilation takes place when the first phoneme is dominant and in some way makes the second more like itself”.

The following are some examples of English borrowings which have undergone progressive assimilation in the Jaffna Tamil.

#### **English**

#### **As Borrowings in Tamil**

Film

pɪlɪm

Camera

kæmæra:

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Basket	ba:skæt
Receipt	rɪsɪ:tɪ
Trouser	raʊsə
Watcher	wɑ:tʃə

### Regressive Assimilation

If the pronunciation of a phoneme is changed in harmony with the phoneme following it in a word, the assimilation is called regressive assimilation. Arlotto (1972, P.81) stated thus:

“Regressive assimilation means that a consonant becomes more like one that follows; in other words, the force of the change proceeds backwards, from a phoneme to the one which precedes it. Presumably, the shift is explained as an anticipation of the muscular movements which go to make up the second phoneme”.

Some examples of English borrowings which have undergone regressive assimilation are shown below.

English	As Borrowings in Tamil
Pencil	pentʃɪl
Pension	pentʃæn
Principal	prɪntʃɪpəl
Ounce	aʊntʃ

Borrowings may be assimilated either totally or partially. There are borrowings which are used without being assimilated.

Following are examples of English borrowings in Tamil in terms of different types of assimilation as discussed.

### Total Assimilation

English	As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil
Bank	vanki
Kettle	keiθal
Advocate	appʊkɑ:θ
Will	ʊil
Court	kɔ:ð
Rubber	rappar
Bankruptcy	vʌŋkʊrɔ:θ
Hurricane Lamp	ætikan la:mp

## Partial Assimilation

English	As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil
Shock	sɔkkɔ
Bakery	veikkari
Inch	ɪntʃɪ
Certificate	cəttɪpɪkattu
Chain	sein

## Unassimilation

English	As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil
Acre	eɪkəɾ
Lorry	lɔɾɪ
Car	kɑ:r
Wine	wain
Campus	kæmpəs

## Some Features of Assimilation Caused by the Difference of Consonantal Clusters between English and Jaffna Tamil

Due to the difference in the above discussed patterns of consonantal clusters between English and Jaffna Tamil, English borrowings in Jaffna Tamil undergo assimilation in a fixed manner. Some examples in this respect are shown below.

1. In certain words which have two consonants in combination in the initial position, a sound reduction occurs initially when they are used as borrowings in Jaffna Tamil to maintain an analogy with the Tamil phonetic system

English	As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil
Train	rein
Tractor	ra:ktar
Transformer	ranspɔ:mar
Driver	raivar

2. Another feature in words which have consonant clusters in the initial position is that the consonant cluster is split by inserting a vowel sound to maintain an analogy with the Tamil phonetic system when these words are used as borrowings in Jaffna Tamil.

English	As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil
Clerk	kɪlɑ:kku
Brake	pɪrɛikkɔ

Plate	pɪleito
Grinder	kɪraɪndar
Blade	pɪleɪdɔ

3. In words which have consonant clusters in the final position, the split occurs in the final position as shown in the following examples.

**English** **As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil**

Film	pɪlɪm
Bulb	valɔppɔ
Silk	sɪlɪkkɔ

4. Words which have consonants in the initial position are pronounced with a vowel sound initially as found in the following examples.

**English** **As Borrowings in Jaffna Tamil**

Store	ɪstɔ:r
Station	ɪsteisæɪn
Stock	ɪstɔk
Start	ɪsta:dɔ
Screw	ɪsɔkkɔrɔ

**Discussion**

It has been suggested that every foreign language word should be Tamilised before it is allowed for usage. When Tamilising a word, the traditions of Tamil language should be taken into consideration. In this respect, there have been various interpretations for tradition. However all the interpretations acknowledge one fact that lexical rules of a properly structured written language should be under study when creating a new language in that language. This approach seems important to some extent as it maintains the basic order of a language and avoids confusion that may be caused by the presence of foreign language words. However the approach is generally perceived harmful as it ignores the necessity for changes in the language in view of contemporary needs.

At one time, Sanskrit borrowings and other foreign language borrowings were totally Tamilised before they were added for usage. However at a later stage due to the great impacts of North Indian culture, Sanskrit words had to be used in a convenient form without being Tamilised. The Sanskrit letters /ʃa/, /sa/, /ai/, /ha/ and /hi/ were also used in Tamil. It seems impossible to eliminate the practical use of these letters in written form of Tamil, as they have taken a firm root. The use of these letters is helpful in writing several foreign language words so as to pronounce them accurately.

In the beginning, it was possible to Tamilise the foreign language borrowings. But presently great difficulties are faced in Tamilising borrowings because of the comparatively greater number of borrowings and greater degree of complexities involved in the process of Tamilisation at present.

In course of time new sounds enter into almost all languages due to language contact situations and introduction of new objects and ideas. There have been attempts to represent the new sounds in these languages. In Hindi alphabet two letters have been modified to represent the sounds of English F and Z.

During the last half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, most of the borrowings in Tamil have from English. These borrowings have gained a firm position in the spoken Tamil in Sri Lanka and South India. Tamilisation of such words started declining but they are used with convenient English pronunciation by Tamils presently. When foreign language words are used in Tamil writing, particularly in creative literature they are either transliterated or used in their original forms.

### Conclusion

The above discussion highlights the permanent status achieved by the borrowings and the subsequent entry of new phonemes in Tamil. In certain instances in Tamil writing, in place of foreign language words unfamiliar Tamil technical terms or approximately alternate Tamil equivalents are used. To make the meaning of such words clear, English words are given in parenthesis. These attempts may further widen the gap between the spoken and written forms of Tamil and the consequences may be harmful to the development of Tamil. Hence the adoption of a proper script reformation scheme to tackle the issues associated with foreign language borrowings in Tamil is stressed hereby.

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# Aspects in Manipuri and Kannada: A Contrastive Analysis

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## Introduction

Aspects are considered as the beginning or duration or completion or repetition of the action of the main verb. The aspect may be broadly classified into two types, namely, progressive and perfect aspects. This paper tries to bring out the differences and similarities between the aspectual systems of Manipuri and Kannada.

Manipuri belongs to the Kuki-Chin group of the Tibeto-Burman sub-family of the Sino-Tibetan family of languages. Manipuri, otherwise called Meiteilon, is the mother tongue of the major ethnic groups, i.e., the Meitei, Meitei Pangals (Meitei Muslims) and the Bamons (Meitei Brahmins), mostly residing in the valley region of the state of Manipur, one of the seven states of north-east India. It is the main common medium of communication among 33 different mother tongues of different tribes in Manipur and also among other people inhabiting in Manipur. It is being used as the lingua-franca in the state of Manipur and is the state official language of Manipur.

Kannada belongs to the southern group of the Dravidian family which is one of the four language families of India (Andronov, 1969). It is the mother tongue of Kannada people residing in the southern states of India, mostly in Karnataka and is the state official language of Karnataka. No contrastive study has been done on the aspectual systems of Manipuri and Kannada.

Manipuri has two types of aspects, namely, progressive and perfect aspects. Each category may again be classified into two sub-categories as non-future and future since Manipuri

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doesn't have a clear tense formation. The progressive non-future sub-category has present and past forms which will be realized by the temporal particles.

The following diagram number 1 shows the classification of Manipuri aspect.

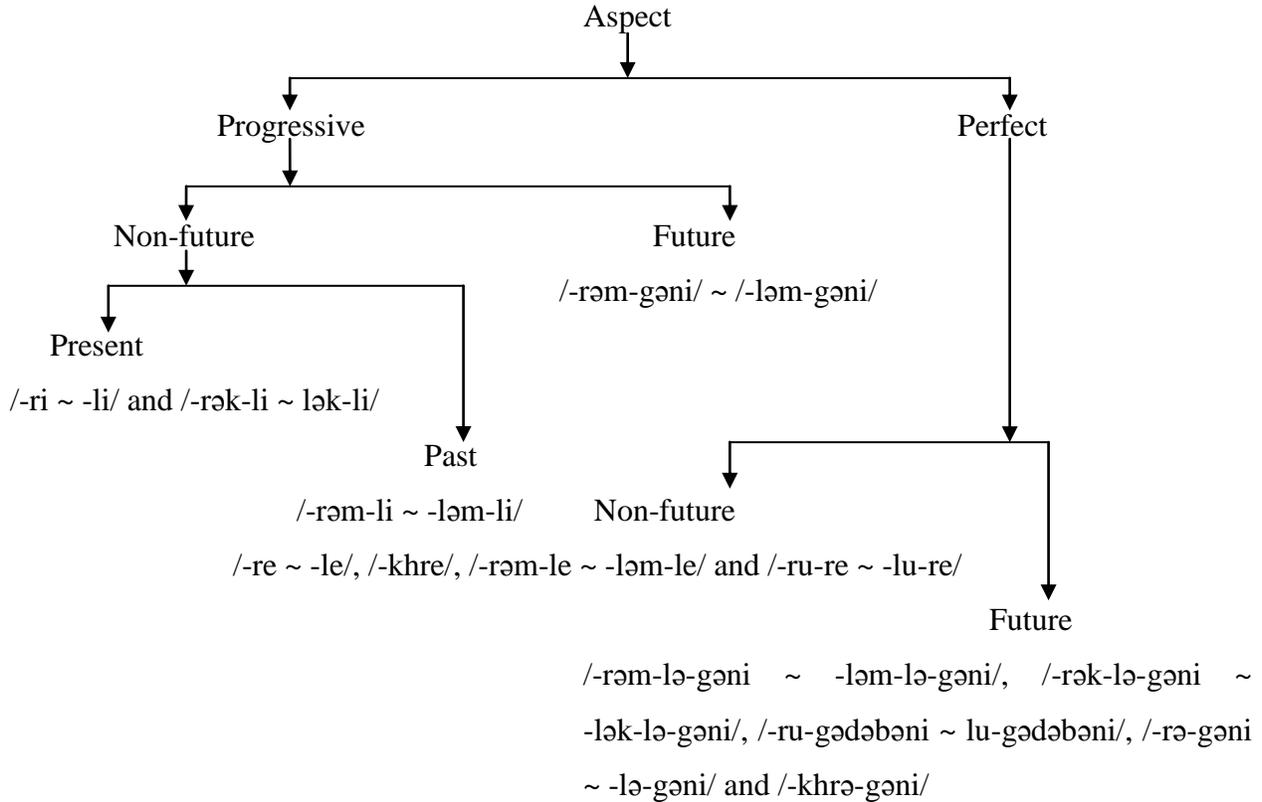


Diagram 1: Classification of Manipuri Aspects

Since Kannada has three tenses, the same is reflected in the aspects also. Both the categories may be classified into three sub-categories as past, present and future. Since the aspectual markers end with */-iru/*, the tense markers are selected based on this and hence, the markers are same whatever be the main verb (Rajaram, 1967). The structure of perfect aspect is VP + *-iru-tense* + PNG and the structure of progressive aspect is V+ *-uttaa-iru-tense* + PNG.

The following diagram number 2 shows the classification of Kannada aspects.

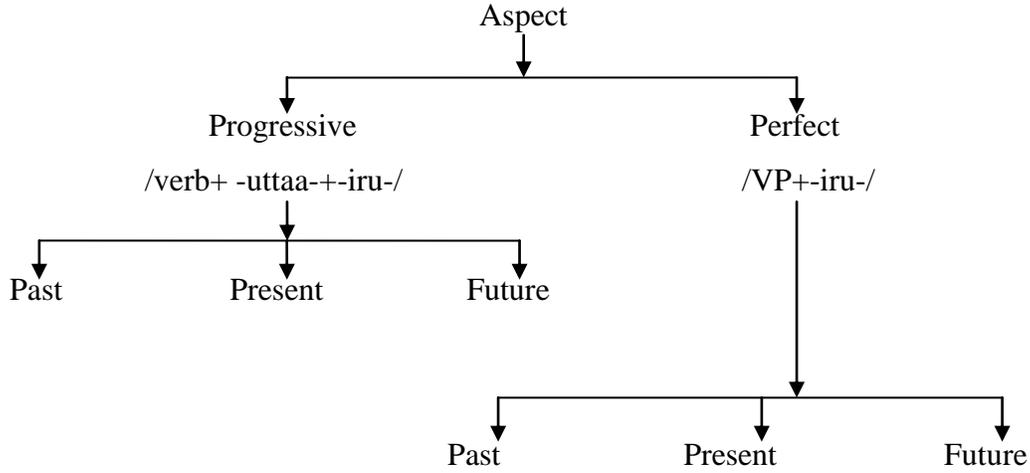


Diagram 2: Classification of Kannada Aspects

### Progressive Aspect in Manipuri

Manipuri has future and non-future tenses (Bhat and Ningomba, 1995 and Madhubala, 1979) and hence, in the case of progressive aspect also, this distinction is made. The progressive aspect markers remain the same for all the three persons, irrespective of number and gender.

#### Examples:

1. əi ŋa ca-ri.  
I fish eat-prg.asp.  
'I am eating fish.' (I psn.sg.)
2. nəŋ ŋa ca-ri.  
you (non-hon.sg/pl.) fish eat-prg.asp.  
'You are eating fish.' (II.psn.sg/pl)
3. məhak ŋa ca-ri.  
he/she fish eat-prg.asp.  
'He/she is eating fish.' (III psn.sg.)

The progressive can indicate that an action is being carried out in the past, present or future (Shobhana, 1997).

### Non-Future Progressive

In the non-future category, the present and past progressive aspects are there.

## Present Progressive Aspect

The use of /-li ~ -ri/ indicates that the action is continuing (Yashwanta, 2000) and there is no indication of the time of beginning of the action.

### Examples:

4. ima-nə həujik cak thoŋ-li.  
my mother-nom. now meals cook-prs.prg.asp.  
'My mother is cooking meals now.'
5. nupaməca-siŋ-nə həujik hoki sannə-ri.  
boy-pl.-nom. now hockey play-prs.prg.asp.  
'The boys are playing hockey now.'

There is no progressive negative for the suffix /-li ~ -ri/ but the simple non-future negative is used.

### Example:

6. ima-nə həujik cak thoŋ-de.  
my mother-nom. now meals cook-prs.prg.neg.  
'My mother does not cook meals now.'

The addition of /-rək- ~ -lək-/ to the marker /-li/ indicates that the action began in the past and is still continuing.

### Examples:

7. ima-nə əyuk-təgi cak thoŋ-lək-li.  
my mother-nom. morning-from meals cook-prs.prg.asp.  
'My mother is cooking meals since morning.'
8. nupaməca-siŋ-nə puŋ əhum-dəgi hoki sannə-rək-li.  
boy-pl.-nom. three O'clock-from hockey play-prs.prg.asp.  
'The boys are playing hockey since three O'clock.'

## Past Progressive Aspect

The use of /-rəm-li ~ -ləm-li/ indicates that the action was continuing in the past time. It should be noted that these markers do not show the tense in the verb as discussed in the simple future and non-future tenses.

### Examples:

9. əi-nə ɳəraŋ yəukhibədə məkhoi thəbək təu-rəm-li.  
I-nom. yesterday reach-when they work do-pst.prg.asp.  
'When I reached yesterday, they were working.'
10. əi-nə nəhal yəukhibədə məkhoi thəbək təu-rəm-li.  
I-nom. day before yesterday reach-when they work do-pst.prg.asp.  
'When I reached day before yesterday, they were working.'

When /-rəm- ~ -ləm-/ is used in the past progressive, the negative is formed with /-de/ as in the following sentence.

11. əi-nə ɳəraŋ yəukhibədə məkhoi thəbək təu-rəm-de.  
I-nom. yesterday reach-when they work do-pst.prg.neg.  
'When I reached yesterday they were not working.'

## Future Progressive

Future progressive aspect takes the marker /-rəm-gəni ~ -ləm-gəni/. The occurrence of these markers is phonologically conditioned; the marker /-rəm-gəni/ occurs after vowels and /-ləm-gəni/ occurs after consonants.

### Examples:

12. əi-nə cətlubədə məhak yum-də thəbək təu-rəm-gəni.  
I-nom. go-when he/she house-loc. work do-fut.prg.asp.  
'When I go he will be working in the house.'
13. məhak-nə kəurəkpədə əikhoi isəi sək-ləm-gəni.  
he/she-nom. call-when we song sing-fut.prg.asp.  
'When he/she calls, we will be singing.'

For the future progressive negative, /-loi/ is used in the place of /-gəni ~ -kəni/ as in the following sentence.

14. əi-nə cətlubədə məhak yum-də thəbək təu-rəm-loi.

I-nom. go-when he/she house-loc. work do-fut.prg.neg.

‘When I go he will not be working in the house.’

### **Progressive Aspect in Kannada**

Progressive aspect is otherwise called ‘continuous tense’ in the traditional grammars. The progressive aspect is marked by the auxiliary verb /-iru-/ which is added to the verb + uttaa+. The verb stems with the auxiliary /-iru-/ can be conjugated for all the three tenses and all persons. In other words, the conjugation is effected on the basis of the auxiliary verb /-iru-/.

### **Past Progressive Aspect**

The auxiliary verb ‘iru’ is conjugated in the past tense as iddaa for avanu ‘he’ as the subject and is added to the progressive stem.

#### **Examples:**

1. avanu kelasa maaDutaa idda.

he (non-hon.sg.) work do-prog.stem +-prg.aux+-pst.t-PNG

‘He was doing the work.’

2. naanu doosa tintaa idde.

I dosa eat-prog. stem-prg.aux+-pst.t-PNG

‘I was eating dosa.’

### **Present Progressive Aspect**

The auxiliary verb ‘iru’ is conjugated in the present tense as idiini for naanu ‘I’ as the subject and is added to the progressive stem.

#### **Examples:**

3. naanu kelasa maaDtaa idiini.

I work do- prog. stem-prg.aux+-pst.t-PNG

‘I am doing the work.’

4. huDugaru taragatiyalli summane nagtaa iddaru.

boys class-in for nothing laugh- prog. stem-prg.aux+-pst.t-PNG  
'The boys were just laughing in the class.'

### Future Progressive Aspect

The auxiliary verb 'iru' is conjugated in the future tense or habitual form as irtiini for naanu 'I' as the subject and is added to the progressive stem.

#### Examples:

5. avanu naaval oodtaa irtaane.  
he (non-hon.sg.) novel read-prog. stem-prg.aux+-fut.t-PNG  
'He will be reading a novel.'
6. avaLu dinaa illige bartaa irtaale.  
she daily here come-prog. stem-prg.aux+-fut.t-PNG  
'She will be coming here daily.'

In Kannada illa 'not', iralilla 'was not' and iralla 'will not' are added to the progressive stem to indicate present, past and future progressive negatives respectively. The progressive negatives are used in the sentences as follows.

7. avanu bartaa illa.  
he (non-hon.sg) come-prg.stem prs.neg.  
'He is not coming.'
8. avanu bartaa iralilla.  
he (non-hon.sg) come-prg.stem pst.neg.  
'He was not coming.'
9. avanu bartaa iralla.  
he (non-hon.sg) come-prg.stem fut.neg.  
'He will not be coming.'

### Perfect Aspect in Manipuri

Since Manipuri has future and non-future tenses, that is reflected in the formation of perfect aspect also.

## Non-future Perfect

There are four markers to denote non-future perfect aspect.

/-re ~ -le/

The marker /-re ~ -le/ conveys the meaning of completed action (Yashwanta, 2000) and is used in the conjugation with all the three persons. Russel (2007) adds the marker /-khre/ also in this group.

### Examples:

1. əi-nə thəbək-tu təu-re.  
I-nom. work-det. do-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'I have done the work.'
2. məhak-nə nobel-du pa-re.  
he/she-nom. novel-det. read-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'He/she has read the novel.'

/-khre/

The marker /-khre/ is used to indicate definiteness of the completion of action and is used only with the third person.

### Example:

3. məkhoi yum-də cət-khre.  
they house-dat. go-non.fut.prf.asp.  
'They have gone to the house.'

There is no negative construction for the above type of affirmative sentences.

/-rəm-le ~ -ləm-le/

The marker /-rəm-le ~ -ləm-le/ denotes the past action connected to an action in the past time itself.

### Examples:

4. pulis-nə məkhoi-bu phu-rəm-le.  
police-nom. them-acc. beat-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'The police have beaten them.'

5. əi lakpədə nəkhoi tum-ləm-le.  
I come-when you (pl.) sleep-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'When I came you have slept.'

/-ru-re ~ -lu-re/

/-ru- ~ -lu-/ when added before the perfect aspect marker /-re ~ -le/ denotes the location of the action. If an exact location is used to show the place of occurrence of the action these markers are used.

**Examples:**

6. əi hotel-də cak ca-ru-re.  
I hotel-loc. meals eat-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'I have taken meals in the hotel.'
7. əi məkhoi-gi yum-də cət-lu-re.  
I their-gen. house-loc. go-non-fut.prf.asp.  
'I have gone to their house.'

The non-future negative perfect is formed with /-dre ~ -tre/ except for the construction with /-khre/ as in the following sentences.

8. əi-nə thəbək-tu təu-dre.  
I-nom. work-det. do-non-fut.prf.neg.  
'I have not done the work.'
9. əi məkhoi-gi yum-də cət-lu-dre.  
I their-poss. house-loc. go-non-fut.prf.neg.  
'I have not gone to their house.'

**Future Perfect**

/-rəm-lə-gəni ~ -ləm-lə-gəni/, /-rək-lə-gəni ~ -lək-lə-gəni/, /-ru-gədəbəni ~ -lu-gədəbəni/, /-rə-gəni ~ -lə-gəni/ and /-khrə-gəni/ are the future perfect markers. It is to be noted that the marker /-gən-i ~ -kən-i/ is the future tense marker.

**Examples:**

10. məkhoi tum-ləm-lə-gəni.  
they sleep-fut.prg.asp.

‘They would have slept.’

The future perfect denotes an action not completed in the past as in the following sentence.

11. əi məkhoi-gi yum-də cət-lu-gədəbəni. (ədubu cət-lu-dre.)  
I they-poss. house-dat. go-fut.prf.asp.  
‘I would have gone to their house.’ (but I have not gone.)

The future perfect denotes an expected action to be done in future also, if a future time particle is used in the sentence.

**Example:**

12. məhak hayeŋ sigumkandə cennəi-də cət-lə-gəni.  
he/she tomorrow at this time Chennai-dat. go-fut.prf.asp.  
‘He/she would have gone to Chennai at this time tomorrow.’

If the marker /-khrə-/ is used instead of /-rə- ~ -lə-/, it denotes definiteness of the action.

**Example:**

13. məhak hayeŋ sigumkandə cennəi-də cət-khrə-gəni.  
he/she tomorrow at this time Chennai-dat. go-fut.prf.asp.  
‘He/she would have gone to Chennai at this time tomorrow.’

The corresponding negative sentences are formed by substituting /-roi/ in the place of /-gəni ~ -kəni/.

**Examples:**

14. məhak sao-rəm-lə-roi.  
he/she angry-fut.prf.neg.  
‘He/she would not have got angry.’
15. məhak cak ca-rəm-lə-roi.  
he/she meals eat-fut.prf.neg.  
‘He/she would not have eaten meals.’

However, future perfect negative is not possible if there is a time particle and the marker /-khre/ is used.

### **Perfect Aspect in Kannada**

The perfect is used when the completed action or event or state has implications for a subsequent action occurring in the present time (Renuga, 1997). In the time axis the past may be connected to the present, the past or the future. In Kannada /-iru/ is the auxiliary verb added to the verbal participle form of the main verb to show perfect aspect. The conjugation is effected on the basis of the verb 'iru' (Halemane, 1989).

### **Past Perfect Aspect**

The past perfect is used when there is reference to an action completed in the past (Sridhar, 1990). The auxiliary verb 'iru' is conjugated as /idda/ for 'he' as the subject.

#### **Examples:**

1. avanu nan manege bandidda.  
he (non-hon.sg.) my house-dat. come-VP-prf.asp-pst.t.-PNG  
'He had come to my house.'
2. avaru film nooDiddaare.  
they film see-VP-prf.asp-pst.t.-PNG  
'They had seen the film.'

### **Present Perfect Aspect**

The present perfect denotes an action done in the past which has relevance to the present time. The auxiliary verb 'iru' is conjugated as /idda/ for 'he' as the subject.

#### **Examples:**

3. avanu oLLeya kathe barediddaane.  
he (non-hon.sg.) good story write-VP-prf.asp-prs.t-PNG  
'He has written a good story.'
4. avaru namma manege bandidaare .  
they our house-dat. come-VP-prf-prs.t.-PNG  
'They have come to our house.'

## Future Perfective Aspect

The future perfect denotes an incomplete action of the past. The auxiliary verb 'iru' is conjugated as /iruttaane/ for 'he' as the subject.

### Examples:

5. makkaLu eeLuvastaralli appa hoogiruttaane.  
kids get up-before dad go- VP-prf-prs.t.-PNG  
'Dad will have gone by the time the kids get up.'  
The future perfect denotes an expected but incomplete action.
6. avanu maduvege bandiruttaane. (aadare bandilla.)  
he (non-hon.sg.) marriage-dat. come-VP-prf.asp-fut.t-PNG  
'He would have come to the marriage.' (But he did not come.)

In Kannada illa 'not', iralilla 'was not' and iralla 'will not' are added to the verbal participle form to indicate present, past and future perfect negatives respectively. The perfect negatives are used in sentences as follows.

7. avanu bandilla.  
he (non-hon.sg.) come-VP-prs.neg.  
'He has not come.'
8. avanu bandiralilla.  
he (non-hon.sg.) come-VP-pst.neg.  
'He had not come.'
9. avanu bandiralla.  
he (non-hon.sg.) come-VP-fut.neg.  
'He would not have come.'

## Conclusion

The aspects in Manipuri and Kannada are broadly classified as progressive and perfect aspect. In Manipuri both progressive and perfect aspects are classified as non-future and future.

Since Kannada has three tenses, the same is reflected in both progressive and perfect aspect also. This is a major difference between the Manipuri and Kannada progressive aspectual systems.

In Manipuri both the perfect and progressive aspect markers are added directly to the verb root whereas in Kannada the perfect aspect marker is added to the verbal participle form of the main verb and the progressive marker is added to the progressive stem. Another contrasting feature is that in Kannada the subject agrees with the verb and hence the PNG markers are added after the tense marker.

In Manipuri there are lots of markers to denote different functions and uses in both progressive and perfect aspects; there are some phonologically conditioned allomorphs also. This kind of formation is not there in Kannada.

Negative formation in Kannada is different from that of Manipuri.

This study will be of much help to the second language learners, teachers, material producers, translators, et al.

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# An ERP Study of Semantic Processing in Kannada-English Typical Bilingual Individuals – A Pilot Study

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## Abstract

Considerable neurophysiological research has been conducted to explore the neural underpinning of semantic and syntactic processing in bilinguals by using various neuroimaging and electrophysiological techniques. However, the debate of the cortical organization of the two languages in bilinguals is still going on. The present study was carried out with aim of investigating how multiple languages are processed in the human brain. Event related brain potentials, specifically, N1 and N400 potentials were recorded from right handed typical bilinguals during a task involving silent reading. The participants in the experiment were five Kannada – English bilinguals of Karnataka state in southern part of India. The bilinguals, highly proficient in both languages, had exposure in both languages since the age of 5 years. The stimuli were words that would correctly complete a short, meaningful, previously shown sentence, or else were semantically incorrect. The task consisted in deciding whether the sentences were well formed or not, giving the response by pressing a button. The participants read 100 Kannada (50 correct & 50 incorrect) and 100 English (50 correct & 50 incorrect) sentences to compare the processing of the two languages within the group. The findings revealed subtle differences in the latency and amplitude measures of various ERP components such as N1, and N400 potentials. The present paper highlights the several processes that are involved in the differences in processing of these two languages and their implications to the understanding of language processing in clinical populations such as in bilingual aphasia.

**Key words:** Semantic judgement task, N400, ERPs, Bilinguals, language processing.

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## Introduction

Bilinguals could be defined as individuals who have “native-like control of two languages” (Bloomfield, 1933). Bilinguals use two different languages simultaneously for social communication. Thus, bilinguals are exposed to extra cognitively demanding tasks, such as language selection and language switching in different social communication settings and situations (Ardilla & Ramos, 2008). This regular use of two languages by bilingual individuals has been shown to have greater impact on language and cognitive functioning of the individual (Bialystok, Craik, Green & Gollan, 2009).

In the process of globalization, the world becomes more interconnected and it is noticeable that bilingual population is rising across the globe including Indian context. Crystal (1997) estimates bilingualism that includes English and another language represents about 235 million people worldwide and that two thirds of children in the world are grown-up in bilingual backgrounds. As per 1991 census of India, approximately 9% of the total population is bilinguals in India (which may be much higher at present as a result of globalization process and change in education systems). Because of the systematic language policy initiatives of the past half century, ‘multilingualism’ is considered as an asset and also as a ‘resource’ and try to make use of this resource for language and social development (Mallikarjun, 2004). Some of the reasons for increase in bilingual population include immigration, or a national situation wherein the official language is different from the community language (e.g., India), or formal education in another language, etc.

Kannada is one of the four Dravidian languages and also one of the four classical languages in India. Around 50 million people of Karnataka state have Kannada language as their native language. According to 1991 census of India, around 16% of the total population of Karnataka state are bilinguals and around 8% of the population are trilinguals. Languages like English, Telugu and Tamil are the major languages seen as second and third language among these bilinguals.

Age of acquisition, manner of acquisition, exposure levels and proficiency levels are considered as important variables in bilingual studies. The importance of these variables is

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seen in both linguistic and neuroimaging/neurofunctional studies. Previous studies carried out on bilingual population have raised the importance of these variables as there were significant changes in cortical organization of these bilingual individuals.

### **Focus of This Study**

In the present study, we aim to explore semantic processing in both languages of Kannada (L1) – English (L2) bilinguals with high proficiency levels in both L1 and L2 who were exposed to both languages since childhood (early bilinguals). The present study makes use of event related brain potential (ERP) technique specifically N400 potential which is known to vary in amplitude and latency with semantic violations in a particular language.

### **Linguistic Processing in Bilinguals**

Linguistic processing in bilinguals has also been investigated by event-related potentials (ERPs) of the brain. Indeed, ERPs are very useful tools to study the neural basis of language processing, as they provide information on the temporal course of information processing neural flow in different semantic and morphosyntactic tasks. In fact, ERP studies on language (Federmeier, Kluender, & Kutas, 2002; Kutas & Van Petten, 1994; Kutas & Hillyard, 1980) have shown that semantic integration is reflected by the N400 component, a centro-parietal negativity with a latency of around 400 msec very sensitive to word cloze probability.

Numerous studies in different languages have shown that brain's response to a semantic violation is characterized by a greater negativity between 200 – 500 msec post onset compared to that of semantically correct sentences. In monolinguals it is reported that this N400 has a centro-parietal maximum with slight right hemisphere bias. This N400 semantic congruity effect reported to vary with factors like ease of contextual integration, frequency, imageability and word class. Several studies have been carried out on bilinguals in different languages by using ERP methodology. The N400 congruity effect also has been found to have a longer latency in bilinguals processing their less dominant language, the one to which they were exposed later.

Proverbio, Cok, & Zani (2002) measured the electrical activity during syntactic and semantic judgment tasks in Italian monolinguals and Italian – Slovenian high proficient

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bilinguals. ERP results indicated a strong left side activation reflected by N1 component, of the occipito-temporal regions dedicated to orthographic processing, with a latency of about 150msec for Slovenian words, but bilateral activation of the same areas for Italian words, which was also displayed in topographical mapping. In monolinguals, semantic error produced a long lasting negative response (N2 and N4) that was greater over the right hemisphere, whereas syntactic error activated mostly the left hemisphere than over the right. They also found that the P615 syntactical error responses were of equal amplitude on both hemispheres for Italian words and greater on the right side for Slovenian words. These results suggest that there are interhemispheric and intrahemispheric brain activation asymmetries when monolingual and bilingual speakers comprehend written language. Similar studies were carried out by Fischler, Boaz, McGovern, and Ransdell (1987); Meuter, Donald, and Ardal (1987); Ardal, Donald, Meuter, Muldrew, and Luce (1990); Weber-Fox and Neville (1996); Hahne and Friederici (2001); Hahne (2001); and Moreno and Kutas (2005)

In summary, all the previous studies have used semantic violations relative to correct sentences to study N400 responses and N400 effect within and between mono and bilinguals. The results of the above studies found a significant delay in peak latency of N400 for L2 compared to L1 (Ardal et al., 1990; Weber-Fox & Neville, 1996; Hahne, 2001; Moreno & Kutas, 2005). Among the studies carried out in this area, there were inconsistent findings in terms of latency, amplitude and scalp distribution of N400 response and thereby it is difficult to generalize and apply the results of these studies.

This being the scenario (only few studies) in western context, there were no attempts made to study the language processing more specifically semantic processing in Indian languages and in Indian bilingual population. The research in Indian bilingualism can give more insights into functional processing of two similar languages (eg., Kannada – Telugu bilinguals) and also two distinct languages (Kannada – English bilinguals) which can in turn help in understanding the language properties and their functional organization in detail. Thus the present study is a preliminary attempt aimed at studying the neurofunctional mechanisms involved in semantic processing in Kannada – English bilinguals.

## **Materials and Method**

### **Participants**

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Five right handed Kannada (L1) – English (L2) bilingual speakers in the age range of 19 – 26 years with mean age of 22 years were selected for the present study. All the participants were early bilinguals who were exposed to both languages for more than 14 years. All these participants were assessed using International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scale (Wylie & Ingram, 2006) for language proficiency and all the subjects were rated as ‘native’ like proficiency in Kannada and ‘nearly native’ proficient in English language. The details of language proficiency measures are given in Table 1. All the participants were ruled out for any history of auditory, visual, neurological, psychiatric and any other illness.

Table 1. Demographic details and ISLPR ratings of all the five subjects.

Subje ct	Age/ Gender	Formal education (yrs)	Speaking		Listening		Writing		Reading	
			K*	E^	K*	E^	K*	E^	K*	E^
1	26/m	17 yrs	S-5	S-4	L-5	L-4	W-5	W-5	R-5	R-5
2	25/m	17 yrs	S-5	S-4	L-5	L-4	W-5	W-5	R-5	R-5
3	20/m	14 yrs	S-5	S-4	L-5	L-4	W-5	W-5	R-5	R-4
4	20/m	14 yrs	S-5	S-4	L-5	L-4	W-5	W-5	R-5	R-5
5	19/m	14yrs	S-5	S-4	L-5	L-4	W-5	W-4	R-5	R-4
<b>Mean</b>	<b>MA- 22yrs</b>	<b>ME-15.2 yrs</b>	<b>S-5</b>	<b>S-4</b>	<b>L-5</b>	<b>L-4</b>	<b>W-5</b>	<b>W- 4.8</b>	<b>R-5</b>	<b>R- 4.6</b>

Note: K\*: Kannada (L1); E^: English (L2). MA: Mean age; ME: mean of years of education.

## Materials

The stimuli materials are 50 correct sentences and 50 semantically incorrect sentences in Kannada and English making a total of 100 sentences in each language. These sentences are with mean length of utterance (MLU) of 3 – 4 words and these sentences were selected based on the ratings given by two speech language pathologists and two clinical linguists for complexity, abstractness and frequency. Sentence order was randomized within each language set and then presented to the subjects. These sentences were converted into JPEG format with a resolution of 900x600.

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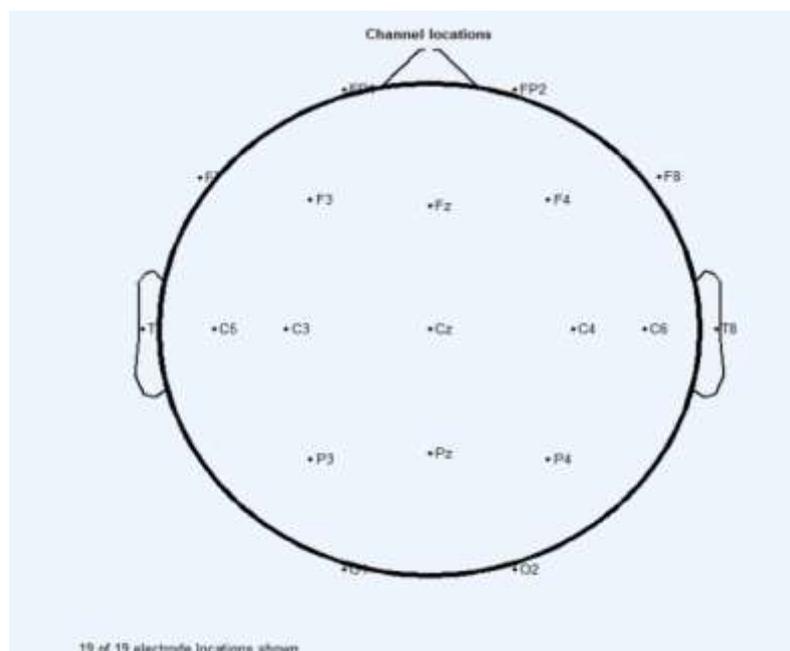
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## Procedure

These sentences which are in picture format are presented to Kannada – English bilinguals and were asked to read sentences for comprehension. The experiment was undertaken after taking a written consent and language proficiency ratings on International Second Language Proficiency Rating scale (ISLPR, Wylie & Ingram, 2006). These stimuli were loaded into Gentask program of STIM2 program, Compumedics Neuroscan Inc and were presented on 17 inch monitor with stimulus duration of 3000msec and with an inter - stimulus interval of 1000msec.

## EEG Recording Procedure

Scalp electrical activity was recorded from 19 geodesically spaced Ag-Cl electrodes (Fz, Cz, Pz, FP1/2, F3/4, F7/8, T7/8, C5/6, C3/4, P3/4, & O1/2) embedded in an elastic cap referenced to the left mastoid. Electrode impedances were kept below 5 K $\Omega$  and signals were amplified within a band pass of 0.01 to 100 Hz and continuously digitized at a sampling rate of 1000 Hz. ERPs were then computed for epochs extending from 200 msec before stimulus onset to 1000 msec after stimulus onset. The recorded EEG continuous files were corrected offline for eye blinks using independent component analysis (ICA) of Matlab Software 7.10 version. The electrode placement of the present study is given in Figure 1.



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*Figure 1.* Placement of 19 electrodes according to 10 – 20 international system.

## **Results**

The present study was aimed at studying the processing of semantic content in both L1 and L2 in Kannada – English typical bilinguals. The electrophysiological (EEG) data was analyzed to identify and measure the peak amplitudes and latencies for both N1 and N400 peaks.

For each subject and electrode, distinct ERP averages were computed as a function of sentence type (correct, semantically incorrect) and language (L1 & L2). The recorded EEG continuous files were corrected offline for eye blinks using independent component analysis (ICA) in Matlab software version 7.10 and were analyzed to identify and measure N1 and N400 components.

N1 mean area values were measured at all 19 electrodes between 70 and 120 msec in both Kannada and English. The mean amplitude of N1 component for Kannada incorrect sentences is lesser ( $M = -1.026 \mu\text{v}$ ) than that of correct sentences ( $M = -1.856 \mu\text{v}$ ). The analysis revealed an electrode effect indicating greater N1 amplitude over right hemisphere electrodes (F4, F8, O2) ( $M = -1.63 \mu\text{v}$ ) followed by central (Cz, Fz, Pz) ( $M = -1.53 \mu\text{v}$ ) and left hemisphere (F7, C5, T7) ( $M = -1.34 \mu\text{v}$ ) in Kannada or L1. In English, the mean amplitude of N1 component for incorrect sentences is lesser ( $M = -0.139 \mu\text{v}$ ) than that of correct sentences ( $M = -1.12 \mu\text{v}$ ). The analysis revealed an electrode effect indicating greater N1 amplitudes in left hemisphere (C3, C5, O1, T7) ( $M = -0.64 \mu\text{v}$ ) followed by right hemisphere (T8) ( $M = -0.60 \mu\text{v}$ ) and central electrodes (Fz) ( $M = -0.27 \mu\text{v}$ ).

N400 mean area values were measured at 11 electrode sites (F7, F3, Fz, T7, C5, Cz, P3, Pz, C4, C6, F4) between 330 and 530 msec. The mean amplitude of N400 component for incorrect sentences is greater ( $M = -2.566 \mu\text{v}$ ) than that of correct sentences ( $M = -1.376 \mu\text{v}$ ). Analysis revealed an electrode effect indicating greater N400 amplitudes in left hemisphere (F3, F7, C5, T7) ( $M = -3.485 \mu\text{v}$ ) followed by central electrodes (Cz, Fz) ( $M = -2.25 \mu\text{v}$ ) and right hemisphere electrodes (C4, C6, F4) ( $M = -1.55 \mu\text{v}$ ). These results indicate greater activity in left hemisphere for L1. The grand average ERPs of 19 electrodes in Kannada are plotted in Figure 2.

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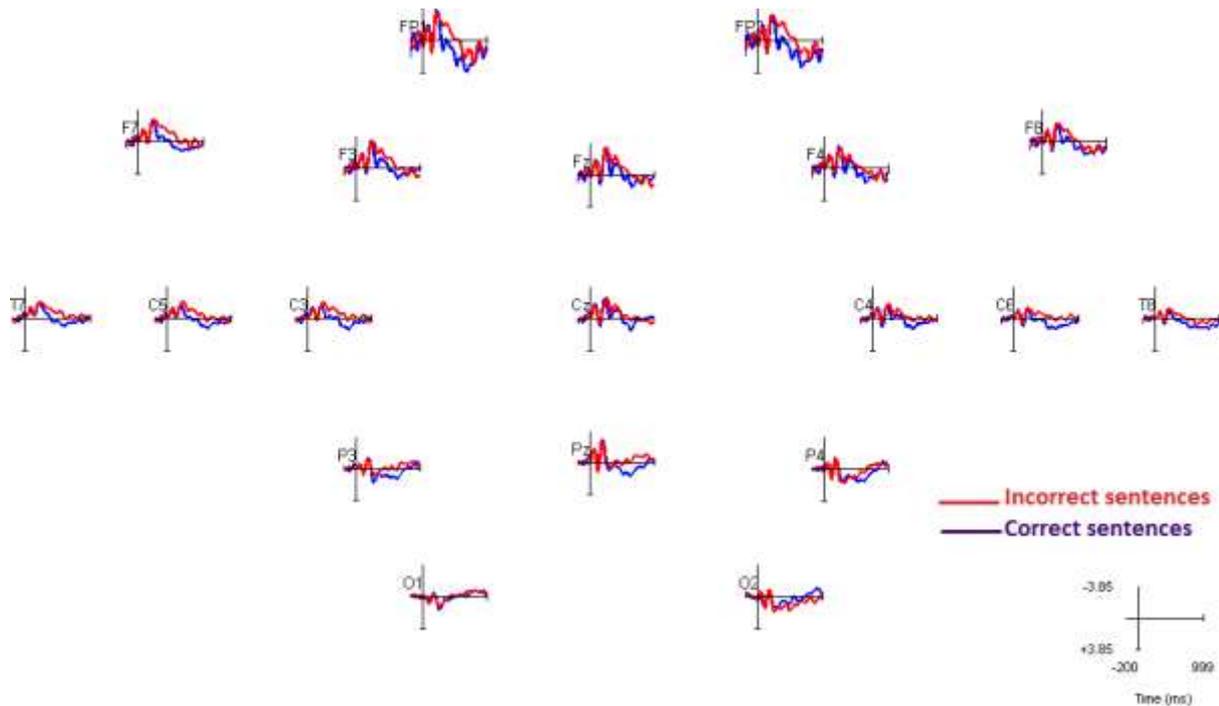


Figure 2. Grand average ERPs for the 19 electrode positions to the semantically incorrect sentences as compared to correct sentences in Kannada.

N400 mean area values were measured at 12 electrode sites (F7, F3, Fz, T7, C5, C3, Cz, Pz, C4, F4, C6, P4) between 330 and 530 msec. The mean amplitude of N400 component for incorrect sentences is greater ( $M = -0.609 \mu\text{v}$ ) than that of correct sentences ( $M = -0.138 \mu\text{v}$ ). Analysis revealed an electrode effect indicating greater N400 amplitudes in Left hemisphere (C5, T7, P3) ( $M = -1.642 \mu\text{v}$ ) followed by right hemisphere (F8, T8, O2) ( $M = -0.892 \mu\text{v}$ ) and central electrodes (Cz, Fz) ( $M = -0.75 \mu\text{v}$ ). These results indicate that left hemisphere is more involved in processing semantic information in L2 (English) also. The grand average ERPs of 19 electrodes in English are plotted in Figure 3.



surface orthography) and English (alphabetic; deep orthography). Overall, these results indicate that word form system might be able to discriminate between different languages on the basis of orthographical analysis at very early stages of visual processing.

### ***Semantic processing in bilinguals***

In the N400 latency range, negative response to incorrect sentences was seen between 350 – 450 msec for Kannada, whereas, the latencies are prolonged for English stimuli extending upto 550msec. This particular delay in latency could be attributed to the proficiency/usage of English language compared to that of Kannada language. All the subjects were able to identify the semantic errors in Kannada much faster than that of errors in English and the same is shown in N400 latencies. Secondly, there was a greater activation seen in Kannada ( $M = -2.566 \mu v$ ) than that of English ( $M = -0.609 \mu v$ ) as shown by amplitude levels of ERP data in spite of all the subjects being rated as high proficient bilinguals and had exposure since the age of 5 – 8 yrs (early bilinguals). This particular difference in performances in L1 and L2 could be because of the differences in the amounts of exposure or daily usage of L2. In Indian context of Bilingualism, L2 is only used for academic or professional activities (contributing up to 30%) compared to use of L1 (contributing up to 70%) of total language exposure. This may be different to the type of bilingualism seen in Western context where the bilingual individuals get exposed equally in both languages. However, these differences may not be high in Kannada – Telugu or Malayalam – Tamil bilinguals due to similarities in both orthography and spoken language.

On comparison of the performances in Kannada and English, it was seen that N400 for Kannada & English sentences is seen majorly in left hemisphere although subtle intrahemispheric differences present within left hemisphere. The below results indicate differential activation for N400 in L1 and L2 in both left & Right hemispheres. However, when we see all the responses (both greater activation and lower activation electrodes), it was observed that similar areas were activated but with different activation levels.

These results support the following hypotheses in bilingualism research. Language in bilinguals is organized in the same cortical areas, but in *distinct neural circuits (with different activation levels)*. Language is organized *partly in common areas and partly in specific and*

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*separate areas* of brain. The above hypothesis is synthesis of two previous hypotheses, i.e., Convergent and Divergent hypotheses. Our study supports the views of some of the early neuroimaging and neuropathological studies by Minkowski, (1927); Aglioti et al., (1996). The support for these hypotheses has come from studies on aphasia in bilinguals, functional recovery in bilingual aphasics, and electrical stimulation of the cortex. Mundy (1983) was the first to suggest that in Bilinguals, the mother tongue and the second language have different lateralization in the two hemispheres by studying a bilingual patient. Later in 1978, Albert & Obler concluded that in bilinguals more often than in monolinguals, linguistic functions are represented in the right hemisphere. Our study supports the views of Albert & Obler (1978) where right hemisphere involvement is seen in bilinguals.

The Right hemisphere is known to be crucially involved in the processing of pragmatic aspects of language use (Chantraine, et al., 1998). During the second language learning, the RH may be more involved in verbal communication, because “beginners” tend to compensate for their limited implicit linguistic competence (lexicon, syntax, phonology) in L2 with pragmatic interferences. Thereby, through this study, we infer that RH is also involved in language processing in bilinguals, but with lesser activation levels compared to that of LH.

## **Conclusion**

The present study was aimed at studying language processing and bilinguals and to get insight into spatio-temporal activation of two hemispheres in high proficient bilinguals. Our results indicated that in high proficient bilinguals, L1 is processed much faster than that of L2 even though they have around 70% of proficiency in L2. This was shown by the prolonged latencies for N400 in English (up to 550 msec) compared to Kannada (350 – 450msec). On the issue of activation levels in different cortical areas, L1 (Kannada) was processed with higher cortical activation compared to that of L2 (English). This difference was very obvious with the mean amplitude levels of N400 in L1 (M= -2.566) and L2 (M= -0.609). The spatio-temporal analysis of ERP components revealed that both hemispheres are involved in language processing in bilinguals but with different levels of involvement. And the same may be due to the RH involvement during language acquisition process in these individuals. The present study results are from only 5 early high proficient Kannada –

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English bilinguals and thus these results cannot be generalized to other groups of bilinguals (low proficient or late bilinguals). A series of studies by using fMRI, ERPs, neuropsychological techniques or studies on bilingual aphasia are still needed to come to conclusion about cerebral lateralization debate in bilinguals in both Western and Indian context.

Although, several studies have been carried out in this area by using neuropsychological methods/ techniques, but their results have been rather controversial or contradicting. Many factors such as focusing of attention, languages used during the test, subject's expectancy, proficiency, age of acquisition, manner of acquisition, etc., influence the results, thus making them less uniform. These factors need to be considered while doing studies in future which can provide much needed information about cerebral organization.

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# Name Agreement Norms for a Set of 260 Pictures in Kannada for Children

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## Abstract

The utility of picture naming is beyond dispute, yet, it has become evident to us that cross linguistic comparisons using this technique are limited by the absence of comparable naming norms across the languages. As there are many different ways to depict an object in a picture, each one can elicit a different response. Also, the degree to which each picture possesses the characteristics that affect the process under investigation is unknown. To be able to compare studies that used picture naming, it is important to have norms of the pictorial stimuli that are used in these studies.

The most frequently used picture set in norming studies is the one developed by Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980). These authors standardized 260 pictures on following variables: name agreement, image agreement, familiarity, age of acquisition (AoA) and visual complexity. These variables are known to have very high theoretical importance in studies of picture naming.

A total of 100 subjects within the age range of 5-16 years participated in the study. All were native Kannada speakers and approximately equal number of males and females served in task. Stimuli consisted of 260 pictures, developed by Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980). All were instructed to identify each picture with the first name that came to their mind which may consist of more than one word. The collected data was suitably tabulated and was subjected to descriptive statistical treatment along with information statistic 'H' and with percentage agreement scores for each picture.

Results of this study provided a positive indication that these pictures can be utilized to fulfill various experimental needs pertaining to Kannada speaking children, though standardization based upon rest of the variables namely image agreement, visual complexity,

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concept familiarity and age of acquisition are necessary and will facilitate the experimenters to select pictures efficiently to suit their needs.

**Key Words:** Standardized Picture Set, Kannada, Children, Line Drawings.

## **Introduction**

Name agreement refers to the degree to which participants agree on the name of the picture. Name agreement is measured by assessing the number of different names given to a particular picture across participants. Pictures that elicit many different names have lower name agreement than do those that elicit a single name. Name agreement is also a robust predictor of naming difficulty. Pictures with a single dominant response are named more quickly and accurately than those with multiple responses (Barry et al., 1997; Lachman, Shaffer, &Henrikus, 1974; Paivio, et al., 1989; Snodgrass &Yuditsky, 1996; Vitkovitch& Tyrrell, 1995). More importantly, name agreement affects naming latencies independently of the effects of correlated attributes such as word frequency and rated age of acquisition (Lachman et al., 1974; Vitkovitch & Tyrrell, 1995).

There exists overwhelming evidence in the literature to show the extent to which these pictures have been utilized in various languages with an appreciable impact factor. Ever since the days of Cattell (1886), picture naming has been a widely used technique in various domains of psychological research. It has been used to investigate a number of components of language production such as lexical access and phonological encoding (e.g., Levelt, Schriefers, Vorberg, Meyer, Pechmann, & Havinga, 1991; Santiago, MacKay, Palma, & Rho, 2000; Starreveld, 2000). Picture naming has also been used in fMRI studies (e.g., Hernandez, Martinez, &Kohnert, 2000; Rutten, Ramsey, van Rijen, & van Veelen, 2002; Spitzer et al., 1998; Damasio, Grabowski, Tranel, Ponto, Hichwa, & Damasio, et al., 2001; Hernandez, Dapretto, Mazziotta, & Bookheimer, 2001), event-related brain potentials or ERP studies (Schmitt, Münte, & Kutas, 2000; van Turenout, Hagoort, & Brown, 1997, 1998, 1999; Wicha, Bates, Moreno, &Kutas, 2000; Hauk, Rockstroh, &Eulitz, 2001; Schiller, Bles, & Jansma, 2003; Schmitt, Schiltz, Zaake, Kutas, &Munte, 2001) and studies of bilingualism (e.g., Costa, Miozzo, &Caramazza, 1999; Francis & Sáenz, 2007; Gollan, Montoya, Notestine, & Morris, 2005).

## Need for the Study

Taking these factors into account and in the absence of such a picture stimuli corpus for children in Kannada language, a strong necessity to develop a standardized picture set was identified. For this purpose, the overwhelmingly used Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980) picture set was selected, which would be standardized based on the major variables affecting the picture naming performance in Kannada. This paper presents the first phase of the standardization process.

## Aim of the Study

To standardize a set of pictures based on the name agreement variable for children.

## Method

A total of 100 subjects within the age range of 5-16 years participated in the study. All were native Kannada speakers and approximately equal number of males and females served in task. Stimuli consisted of 260 pictures, developed by Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980). Subjects above 9 years of age were given a questionnaire containing not more than 12 drawings in each page and were instructed to write the names within the space provided. Whereas, subjects below 8 years of age were presented with flash cards depicting individual drawings and oral responses were recorded by the authors. All were instructed to identify each picture with the first name that came to their mind which may consist of more than one word. For the picture of an object that was unknown to them, subjects performing oral task mentioned it verbally whereas the ones filling up the questionnaire wrote the symbol (✖) i.e., don't know object [DKO]. Similarly, if the object was known but the name was unknown, they were to respond (✓) i.e., don't know name [DKN]. If they knew the name but it was momentarily irretrievable, they were to respond (O) i.e., tip-of-the-tongue [TOT].

The collected data was suitably tabulated and was subjected to descriptive statistical treatment along with information statistic 'H' and with percentage agreement scores for each picture. Information statistic H is same as U, the measure of codability of stimulus (Snodgrass and Yuditsky, 1996). Greater importance was given to H statistics because it

captures more information than just percentage agreement scores (Snodgrass & Vanderwart, 1980). The three categories of naming failures DKO (don't know object), DKN (don't know name) and TOT (tip-of-the tongue) were eliminated when computing H but not when computing percentage agreement scores.

## **Results and Discussion**

The name agreement was computed using the liberal criteria suggested by Snodgrass and Yuditsky (1996). For the name agreement task, both H value and the percentage agreement scores were calculated. However, more importance was given to H statistics because it captures greater information than just percentage agreement scores (Snodgrass & Vanderwart, 1980). For example, consider two pictures having equal percentage agreement scores – say 60% - for their respective dominant names and suppose they have varying numbers of non-dominant names, i.e., the first one has four alternative names and the second has only one, then, the second concept will have a lower H value, indicating a higher name agreement (which is the actual case) compared to the first concept, even when both have equal percentage agreement scores.

While calculating H values, the three categories of naming failures (don't know object – DKO, don't know name – DKN, & tip-of-the-tongue – TOT) were eliminated. But, while calculating the percentage agreement scores, these naming failures were also included. Hence, a picture with H value of 0.0 can have percentage agreement score less than 100 because the picture may have produced naming failures in some participants. Therefore, while selecting pictures, it is wise to consider both the H value as well as the percentage agreement to select the best suitable pictures as per the demands of the designed study.

If a picture elicited the same name from every subject, then the concept of that picture will have an H value of 0.0, indicating a perfect name agreement. A picture of a concept that elicited exactly two different names with equal frequency would have an H value of 1.00. Therefore, in simple terms, increasing H value indicates decreasing name agreement (Snodgrass & Vanderwart, 1980; Pompéia et al., 2001).

The normative data has been provided in the appendix which maintains the same order as originally given by Snodgrass and Vanderwart (1980) and even the serial numbers

provided by the authors have been kept unaltered for cross reference. All the appendices consist of the actual response in Kannada script and the corresponding International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) transcripts using a web link: <http://people.w3.org/rishida/scripts/pickers/ipa/> of each picture along with two measures of name agreement: the information statistic H and the percentage name agreement (i.e., the percentage of subjects giving the most common name).

Appendix A provides information about the ‘dominant name’ or high name agreement responses (name most frequently provided by the subjects) which have low H value and high percentage scores. Appendix B and C provide information regarding those pictures that received misnomers. Appendix B describes the pictures which received locally substituted names as dominant responses, whereas, Appendix C tabulates the pictures that received ambiguous names as the dominant response. Appendix D consists of information on pictures with low naming responses i.e., those pictures that generated numerous alternate names or DKO or DKN or TOT responses. Appendix E encompasses the list of pictures which obtained two equally dominant correct responses.

**Table 1: Summary statistics for name agreement [H]:**

		<b>H</b>
<b>Mean</b>		<b>0.099</b>
<b>Median</b>		<b>0.073</b>
<b>SD</b>		<b>0.063</b>
<b>Skewness</b>		<b>1.76</b>
<b>Range</b>		<b>0.301</b>
<b>Minimum</b>		<b>0.046</b>
<b>Maximum</b>		<b>0.347</b>
<b>Percentiles</b>	<b>25<sup>th</sup></b>	<b>0.05</b>
	<b>75<sup>th</sup></b>	<b>0.12</b>

As it is evident from table 1 the distribution of H values had a low mean (0.099) and was positively skewed (1.76), indicating that concepts have a high name agreement overall. Out of the 260 pictures, 197 concepts had high name agreement indicating that these pictures can be utilized for clinical and research purposes concerning Kannada speaking children between the age range of 5 – 16 years. Among these 197 pictures some also had a dominant alternate name (Appendix E) and hence it is suggested that either of them can be considered as a correct response.

The concepts were grouped based on the percentile scores for H values. All the pictures which had H value less than the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile (0.12) were accepted as having high name agreement. Lower name agreement was observed for 63 of the concepts where each of the concepts had H value greater than the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile and low percentage scores. Most of these concepts received misnomers which were further classified as:

- (a) Ambiguous Pictures [Appendix C]: 4 (anchor misinterpreted as plough), 9 (artichoke as flower), 10 (ashtray as stove), 11 (asparagus as stick), 13 (baby carriage as cycle), 18 (barrel as tabla), 45 (cannon as bullock cart), 58 (cigar as pencil), 61 (clothes pin as nail cutter), 77 (door knob as wheel), 92 (flute as stick), 97 (fork as spoon), 106 (glove as hand), 110 (grasshopper as mosquito), 117 (harp as gate), 135 (lemon as orange), 142 (lobster as scorpion), 152 (nail file as knife), 163 (peach as tomato), 166 (pear as papaya), 178 (pocket book as bag), 194 (salt shaker as bottle), 206 (skunk as squirrel), 219 (stove as washing machine), 229 (tennis racket as bat), 230 (thimble as tumbler), 231 (thumb as finger), 248 (violin as guitar), 249 (wagon as basket).
- (b) Twenty pictures were named with a common local substitute [Appendix B]: 1 (accordion was named as harmonium), 33 (bow as tape), 124 (ironing board as table), 137 (lettuce as cauliflower), 144 (mitten as gloves), 159 (ostrich as stork), 177 (plug as switch), 179 (pot as cup), 183 (raccoon as cat), 184 (record player as compact disc), 192 (ruler as scale), 207 (sled as skate board), 210 (snowman as doll), 221 (suitcase as bag), 240 (truck as lorry), 246 (vase as pot), 247 (vest as shirt), 251 (water-can as jug), 256 (windmill as fan), 259 (wrench as spanner).

For fourteen of the pictures it was decided to accept two dominant names [Appendix E], as both names were synonymous and referred exactly to the same concept. In these

pictures either of the dominant names can be accepted as a correct response. These pictures were: 35 (box), 37 (broom), 44 (candle), 53 (chair), 64 (coat), 78 (dress), 80 (drum), 101 (pan), 107 (goat), 108 (gorilla), 132 (lamp), 158 (orange), 173 (pineapple), 195 (sandwich).

Even though the participants had to provide the names for the concepts in Kannada, a few concepts received the English version of the concept as the dominant responses, for example pictures 36 (bread), 39 (bus), 38 (brush), and 47 (car). These were accepted as the dominant responses as they were consistently provided by majority of the participants.

## Conclusions

Results of this study provided a positive indication that these pictures can be utilized to fulfill various experimental needs pertaining to Kannada speaking children, though standardization based upon rest of the variables namely image agreement, visual complexity, concept familiarity and age of acquisition are necessary and will facilitate the experimenters to select pictures efficiently to suit their needs. Furthermore, it is advised to the experimenters who desire to use this picture set to avoid the list of pictures mentioned in Appendix C which have a greater potential to generate ambiguous responses and may hamper the experimental results. Also, it may be noted that care must be taken while selecting the pictures mentioned in Appendix B and Appendix D.

## APPENDIX A

Pictures with High Name Agreement scores

Pic No	Actual Name	Dominant response	IPA transcript	H	Percentage
2	Airplane	ವಿಮಾನ	vima:na	0.07	60
3	Alligator	ಮೊಸಳೆ	mosa e	0.06	78
5	Ant	ಇರುವೆ	iruve	0.05	89
6	Apple	ಸೇಬು	se:bu	0.05	95

7	Arm	ಕೈ	kaĩ	0.05	92
12	Axe	ಕೊಡಲಿ	koḍali	0.07	62
14	Ball	ಬೆಂಡು	ʃɛndu	0.06	70
15	Balloon	ಬಲೂನ್	balu:n	0.07	63
16	Banana	ಬಾಳೆಹಣ್ಣು	ba:lɛɦɳ̩u	0.05	90
17	Barn	ಮನೆ	mane	0.05	97
19	Baseball bat	ಬ್ಯಾಟ್	bæt	0.12	29
20	Basket	ಬುಟ್ಟಿ	buṭṭi	0.08	46
21	Bear	ಕರಡಿ	karaḍi	0.06	77
22	Bed	ಮಂಚ	mɳ̩tʃa	0.06	74
24	Beetle	ಜಿರಳೆ	dʒiraɭe	0.1	38
25	Bell	ಘಂಟೆ	gɳ̩tɛ	0.05	97
26	Belt	ಬೆಲ್ಟ್	bɛɭt	0.06	65
27	Bicycle	ಸೈಕಲ್	saĩkɳ̩ɭ	0.05	97
28	Bird	ಪಕ್ಷಿ	pɳ̩kʃi	0.09	43
29	Blouse	ಅಂಗಿ	aŋi	0.08	49
30	Book	ಪುಸ್ತಕ	puṣṭaka	0.06	73
31	Boot	ಶೂಜ್	ʃu:z	0.06	64
32	Bottle	ಬಾಟಲ್	baṭɳ̩ɭ	0.09	40
34	Bowl	ಬಟ್ಟಲು	baṭṭɳ̩ɭu	0.06	70
35	Box	ಬಾಕ್ಸ್	baḱs	0.12	29

36	Bread	ಬ್ರೆಡ್	bred	0.06	71
38	Brush	ಬ್ರಶ್	brʌʃ	0.11	32
39	Bus	ಬಸ್	bʌs	0.05	97
40	Butterfly	ಬಟರ್‌ಫ್ಲೈ	ˈbʌt̩ərflaɪ	0.05	93
41	Button	ಗುಂಡಿ	ɡʊndi	0.07	54
42	Cake	ಕೇಕ್	ke:k	0.06	76
43	Camel	ಒಂಟೆ	ont̩e	0.05	91
44	Candle	ಕ್ಯಾಂಡಲ್	kændəl	0.12	29
45	Cannon	ಎತ್ತಿನಗಾಡಿ	ɛˈt̩ɪnagaːdi	0.12	29
46	Cap	ಟೋಪಿ	t̩oːpi	0.06	78
47	Car	ಕಾರ್	kaːr	0.05	100
48	Carrot	ಕ್ಯಾರೆಟ್	kæret̩	0.06	66
49	Cat	ಬೆಕ್ಕು	bek̩u	0.05	83
52	Chain	ಚೇನ್	t̩ʃaɪn	0.07	57
53	Chair	ಕುರ್ಚಿ	kɔːt̩ʃi	0.08	50
55	Chicken	ಕೋಳಿ	koːli	0.05	96
57	Church	ಮನೆ	mane	0.08	46
60	Clock	ಗಡಿಯಾರ	ɡad̩ijaːra	0.05	88
61	Cloud	ಮೋಡ	moːd̩a	0.11	31
63	Clown	ಜೋಕರ್	d̩ʒoːklaɪ	0.06	71
64	Coat	ಕೋಟ್	koːt̩	0.12	28

65	Comb	ಬಾಚಣಿಗಿ	ba:ʃaŋige	0.05	90
66	Corn	ಜೋಳ	dʒo:la	0.05	80
67	Couch	ಸೋಫಾ	so:fa	0.07	57
68	Cow	ಹಸು	hasu	0.05	91
69	Crown	ಕಿರೀಟ	kiri:ta	0.08	45
70	Cup	ಲೋಟ	lo:ta	0.08	46
71	Deer	ಜಿಂಕೆ	dʒinke	0.05	86
72	Desk	ಟೇಬಲ್	te:ba	0.1	37
73	Dog	ನಾಯಿ	na:ji	0.05	98
74	Doll	ಗೊಂಬೆ	gombe	0.09	43
75	Donkey	ಕತ್ತೆ	kaʈte	0.06	68
76	Door	ಬಾಗಿಲು	ba:gilu	0.05	88
79	Dresser	ಟೇಬಲ್	te:ba	0.12	28
81	Duck	ಬಾತುಕೋಳಿ	ba:tu:ko:ʃi	0.06	76
82	Eagle	ಹದ್ದು	haʈdu	0.07	61
83	Ear	ಕಿವಿ	kivi	0.05	96
84	Elephant	ಆನೆ	a:ne	0.05	96
86	Eye	ಕಣ್ಣು	kaŋu	0.05	97
87	Fence	ಗೇಟು	ge:tu	0.11	32
88	Finger	ಬೆರಳು	bera u	0.05	84
89	Fish	ಮೀನು	mi:nu	0.05	97

90	Flag	ಬಾವುಟ	ba:vuʈa	0.06	71
91	Flower	ಹೂವು	hu:vu	0.05	87
93	Fly	ನೊಣ	noṇa	0.07	55
94	Foot	ಕಾಲು	ka:lu	0.06	75
97	Fork	ಚಮಚ	ʃʌmaʃʃa	0.06	65
98	Fox	ನರಿ	nari	0.05	83
99	French horn	ಪೀಪಿ	pi:pi	0.09	42
100	Frog	ಕಪ್ಪೆ	kʌp̃e	0.05	95
103	Giraffe	ಜಿರಾಫೆ	dʒira:f	0.05	83
104	Glass	ಲೋಟ	lo:tʌ	0.06	73
105	Glasses	ಕನ್ನಡಕ	kʌñaɖʌka	0.05	86
107	Goat	ಆಡು	a:ɖu	0.1	37
109	Grapes	ದ್ರಾಕ್ಷಿ	ɖra:kʃi	0.05	90
111	Guitar	ಗಿಟಾರು	gɪʈa:r	0.07	53
112	Gun	ಗನ್	gʌn	0.06	77
113	Hair	ಕೂದಲು	ku:ɖʌlu	0.09	41
114	Hammer	ಸುತ್ತಿಗೆ	sʊʈʃige	0.1	36
115	Hand	ಕೈ	kai	0.09	42
116	Hanger	ಹ್ಯಾಂಗರ್	hæŋʌr	0.11	31
118	Hat	ಟೋಪಿ	ʈo:pi	0.06	78
119	Heart	ಹೃದಯ	hruɖʌja	0.07	62

120	Helicopter	ಹೆಲಿಕಾಪ್ಟರ್	heliko:ptʌr	0.09	41
121	Horse	ಕುದುರೆ	kuɖure	0.05	91
122	House	ಮನೆ	mane	0.05	91
123	Iron	ಐರಂಬಾಕ್ಸ್	airʌnbʌks	0.1	38
124	Ironing board	ಛೇಬಲ್	tʃebʌl	0.09	40
125	Jacket	ಅಂಗಿ	aŋgi	0.09	41
126	Kangaroo	ಕ್ಯಾಂಗರು	kæŋaru:	0.07	58
128	Key	ಕೀ	ki:	0.07	58
129	Kite	ಗಾಳಿಪಟ	ga:lɪpaʈa	0.08	49
130	Knife	ಚಾಕು	tʃa:ku	0.08	45
131	Ladder	ಏಣಿ	e:ŋi	0.05	90
133	Leaf	ಎಲೆ	ele	0.05	88
134	Leg	ಕಾಲು	ka:lu	0.05	85
136	Leopard	ಚಿರತೆ	tʃirʌte	0.06	76
138	Light bulb	ಬಲ್ಬ್	bʌlb	0.07	63
140	Lion	ಸಿಂಹ	simha	0.05	88
141	Lips	ತುಟಿ	tuʈi	0.05	89
143	Lock	ಬೀಗ	bi:ga	0.05	81
145	Monkey	ಕೋತಿ	ko:ti	0.05	82
146	Moon	ಚಂದ್ರ	tʃʌndrʌ	0.05	87
147	Motor cycle	ಸ್ಕೂಟರ್	sku:tʌr	0.08	51

148	Mountain	ಬೆಟ್ಟ	beʈa	0.05	81
149	Mouse	ಇಲಿ	ili	0.05	98
150	Mushroom	ಅಣಬೆ	aṇabe	0.09	40
151	Nail	ಮೊಳೆ	moʎe	0.06	72
152	Nail file	ಚಾಕು	ʃa:ku	0.05	88
153	Necklace	ಸರ	sara	0.05	94
154	Needle	ಸೂಜಿ	su:ɟʒi	0.06	67
155	Nose	ಮೂಗು	mu:gu	0.05	92
156	Nut	ನಟ್	nʌʈ	0.09	43
157	Onion	ಈರುಳ್ಳಿ	i:ruʃi	0.05	89
160	Owl	ಕಿತ್ತಲೆಹಣ್ಣು	kiʈʈalehʌṅṅu	0.06	66
161	Paint brush	ಬ್ರಷ್	brʌʃ	0.1	37
162	Pants	ಪ್ಯಾಂಟ್	pænt	0.05	87
164	Peacock	ನವಿಲು	navilu	0.05	94
165	Peanut	ಕಡಲೆಕಾಯಿ	kaɖaleka:ji	0.1	34
167	Pen	ಪೆನ್	pen	0.05	93
168	Pencil	ಪೆನ್ಸಿಲ್	pensil	0.05	92
169	Penguin	ಪೆನ್ಸಿನ್	penguin	0.11	32
170	Pepper	ದಪ್ಪಮೆಣಸಿನಕಾಯಿ	dʌpʌmeṇasinaka:ji	0.07	55
172	Pig	ಹಂದಿ	hanɖi	0.06	71
173	Pine apple	ಅನಾನಸ್ಸು	ana:nas	0.1	34

175	Pitcher	ಜಗ್	dʒʌg	0.06	68
176	Pliers	ಕಟಿಂಗ್ಲಿಯರ್	kaʈiŋplɪjʌr	0.09	40
178	Pocket book	ಬ್ಯಾಗ್	bæɡ	0.06	72
180	Potato	ಆಲುಗೆಡ್ಡೆ	a:lugeɖe	0.1	35
181	Pumpkin	ಕುಂಬಳಕಾಯಿ	kumbaʎaka:ji	0.06	72
182	Rabbit	ಮೊಲ	mola	0.05	91
183	Raccoon	ಬೆಕ್ಕು	beku	0.12	28
185	Refrigerator	ಫ್ರಿಡ್ಜ್	fridʒ	0.06	65
187	Ring	ಉಂಗುರ	uŋura	0.06	78
188	Rocking chair	ಕುರ್ಚಿ	kurʃi	0.08	48
191	Rooster	ಕೋಳಿ	ko:ʎi	0.07	61
192	Ruler	ಸ್ಕೇಲ್	skæl	0.05	80
193	Sail boat	ದೋಣಿ	do:ɳi	0.1	35
196	Saw	ಗರಗಸ	garag <sup>h</sup> asa	0.05	83
197	Scissors	ಕತ್ತಿ	kaʈri	0.05	96
198	Screw	ಮೊಳೆ	moʎe	0.1	34
199	Screw driver	ಸ್ಕ್ರೂ ಡ್ರೈವರ್	skrudraivʌr	0.09	41
202	Sheep	ಕುರಿ	kuri	0.06	75
203	Shirt	ಅಂಗಿ	aŋi	0.08	52
204	Shoes	ಶೂಜ್	ʃu:z	0.06	76
205	Skirt	ಲಂಗ	laŋa	0.06	65

206	Skunk	ಅಳಿಲು	aʃilu	0.07	55
208	Snail	ಸ್ನೇಲ್	sne:l	0.12	29
209	Snake	ಹಾವು	ha:vu	0.05	96
210	Snow man	ಗೊಂಬೆ	gombe	0.11	32
211	Sock	ಸಾಕ್ಸ್	soks	0.06	70
212	Spider	ಜೇಡ	dʒe:da	0.11	30
213	Spinning wheel	ಚರಕ	ʃaraka	0.08	48
214	Spool of thread	ಧಾರ	dʰa:ra	0.07	53
215	Spoon	ಚಮಚ	ʃamaʃa	0.05	86
216	Squirrel	ಅಳಿಲು	aʃilu	0.06	64
217	Star	ನಕ್ಷತ್ರ	nakʃat̪ra	0.06	64
218	Stool	ಕುರ್ಚಿ	kurʃi	0.07	56
220	Strawberry	ಸ್ಟ್ರಾಬೆರಿ	stroberi	0.08	50
221	Suitcase	ಬ್ಯಾಗ್	bæg	0.09	39
222	Sun	ಸೂರ್ಯ	su:rja	0.05	87
223	Swan	ಬಾತುಕೋಳಿ	ba:ʈuko:ʃi	0.07	61
224	Sweater	ಸ್ವೆಟರ್	sveʈar	0.07	59
225	Swing	ಜೋಗಾಲಿ	dʒo:ga:li	0.11	30
226	Table	ಟೇಬಲ್	ʈæbʌl	0.06	67
227	Telephone	ಫೋನ್	fo:n	0.09	42

228	Television	ಟೆಲಿವಿ	[ti:vi]	0.05	88
229	Tennis racket	ಬ್ಯಾಟ್	[bæt]	0.09	40
230	Thimble	ಲೋಟ	[lo:tʌ]	0.11	31
231	Thumb	ಬೆರಳು	[berʌu]	0.08	49
232	Tie	ಟೈ	[tai̯]	0.05	80
233	Tiger	ಹುಲಿ	[huli]	0.05	83
235	Toe	ಬೆರಳು	[berʌu]	0.09	43
236	Tomato	ಟಮಟೊ	[tʌmætʌ]	0.05	93
237	Tooth brush	ಬ್ರಷ್	[brʌʃ]	0.06	71
238	Top	ಬುಗುರಿ	[bugʌri]	0.05	90
239	Traffic light	ಟ್ರಾಫಿಕ್ ಲೈಟ್	[træfik  ləit]	0.11	30
240	Train	ರೈಲು	[railu]	0.07	60
241	Tree	ಮರ	[mara]	0.05	97
242	Truck	ಲಾರಿ	[ləri]	0.07	61
243	Trumpet	ಪೀಪಿ	[pi:pi]	0.08	51
244	Turtle	ಆಮೆ	[a:me]	0.05	88
245	Umbrella	ಛತ್ರ	[ʃʌtri]	0.05	90
248	Violin	ಗಿಟಾರ್	[giʌ:r]	0.09	44
250	Watch	ವಾಚ್	[wa:ʃ]	0.05	81
252	Watermelon	ಕಲ್ಲಂಗಡಿ	[kʌlʌŋʌdʌ]	0.07	63
253	Well	ಬಾವಿ	[ba:vi]	0.05	89

254	Wheel	ಚಕ್ರ	ʃakra	0.05	84
255	Whistle	ಶಿಲ್ಪಿ	ʃilpi	0.07	61
257	Window	ಕಿಟಕಿ	kiʈaki	0.08	49
258	Wine glass	ಲೋಟ	lo:ʈa	0.08	45
260	Zebra	ಜೇಬ್ರ	ze:bra	0.06	76

## APPENDIX B

Pictures with misnomers (Local Substitutes)

Pic No	Actual Name	Local substitution	IPA transcript	H	Percentage
1	Accordion	ಹಾರ್ಮೋನಿಯಂ	ha:rho:nijʌm	0.2	13
33	Bow	ಟೇಪ್	te:p	0.24	9
124	Ironing board	ಟೇಬಲ್	tebʌ	0.09	40
137	Lettuce	ಹೂಕೋಸು	hu:ko:su	0.14	22
144	Mitten	ಗ್ಲವ್ಸ್	glʌvz	0.26	8
159	Ostrich	ಕೊಕ್ಕರೆ	kokare	0.18	15
177	Plug	ಪ್ಲಗ್	sviʃ	0.14	21
179	Pot	ಬಟ್ಟಲು	bʌʈʌlu	0.24	9
183	Raccoon	ಬೆಕ್ಕು	beʃu	0.12	28
184	Record player	ಸೀಡಿ	si:di	0.2	13
192	Ruler	ಸ್ಕೇಲ್	skæ	0.05	80

207	Sled	ಸ್ಕೇಟೋರ್ಡ್	skæt[bɔrd	0.2	13
210	Snow man	ಗೊಂಬೆ	gombe	0.11	32
221	Suitcase	ಬ್ಯಾಗ್	bæg	0.09	39
242	Truck	ಲಾರಿ	lɔri	0.07	61
246	Vase	ಪಾಟ್	pɔt	0.17	17
247	Vest	ಅಂಗಿ	anj	0.15	19
251	Water can	ಜಗ್	dʒʌg	0.26	8
256	Windmill	ಫ್ಯಾನ್	fæn	0.18	15
259	Wrench	ಸ್ಪ್ಯಾನರ್	spænɹ	0.13	24

## APPENDIX C

Pictures with misnomers (Ambiguous responses)

Pic No	Actual Name	Ambiguous Response	IPA transcript	H	Percentage
4	Anchor	ನೇಗಿಲು	ne:gilu	0.24	9
9	Artichoke	ಹೂ	hu:	0.14	21
10	Ashtray	ಗ್ಯಾಸ್	gæs	0.17	16
11	Asparagus	ಕಡ್ಡಿ	kʌdʒi	0.28	7
13	Baby carriage	ಸೈಕಲ್	saikʌl	0.3	6
18	Barrel	ತಬಲ	tʌbala	0.22	11
45	Cannon	ಎತ್ತಿನಗಾಡಿ	ɛtʌnaga:dʒi	0.12	21

58	Cigar	ಪೆನ್ಸಿಲ್	pensil	0.22	11
61	Clothespin	ನೈಲ್ಕಾಟರ್	nailkaɽr	0.19	14
77	Doorknob	ಬಂಡಿ	bʌndi	0.35	4
92	Flute	ಕಡ್ಡಿ	kʌɽi	0.17	16
97	Fork	ಚಮಚ	ʃʌmaʃa	0.06	65
106	Glove	ಕೈ	kai	0.13	25
110	Grass hopper	ಸೊಳ್ಳೆ	so[e	0.23	10
117	Harp	ಗೇಟು	ge:tu	0.17	17
135	Lemon	ಕಿತ್ತಲೆಹಣ್ಣು	kiɽɽale  hʌɽi	0.13	24
142	Lobster	ಚೇಳು	ʃe:lu	0.17	23
152	Nail file	ಚಾಕು	ʃa:ku	0.05	88
163	Peach	ಟೊಮೊಟೊ	tomæto	0.14	21
166	Pear	ಪರಂಗಿಹಣ್ಣು	paraŋihʌɽi	0.19	14
178	Pocket book	ಬ್ಯಾಗ್	bæg	0.06	72
194	Salt shaker	ಬಾಟಲ್	boɽʌl	0.17	17
206	Skunk	ಅಳಿಲು	aɽilu	0.07	55
219	Stove	ವಾಷಿಂಗ್ಟನ್	waʃiŋmaʃin	0.13	26
229	Tennis racket	ಬ್ಯಾಟ್	bæt	0.09	40
230	Thimble	ಲೋಟ	lo:ta	0.11	31
231	Thumb	ಬೆರಳು	beraɽu	0.08	49
248	Violin	ಗಿಟಾರ್	giɽa:r	0.09	44

249	Wagon	ಬುಟ್ಟಿ	bʊ[ɪ̃]	0.26	8
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## APPENDIX D

Pictures with Low Name Agreement scores

Pic no.	Actual name	Low name agreement	IPA transcript	H	Percentage
8	Arrow	ಆರೋಮಾರ್ಕ್	æroma:rk	0.14	22
51	Celery	ಸೊಪ್ಪು	soɸu	0.21	12
54	Cherry	ಸೇಬು	se:bu	0.16	12
59	Cigarette	ಸಿಗರೆಟ್	sigareɾ	0.13	26
139	Light switch	ಸ್ವಿಚ್ಚ್	svitʃ	0.13	26
171	Piano	ಪಿಯಾನೊ	pija:no	0.23	10
186	Rhinoceros	ಘೆಂಡಾಮೃಗ	gʰe:ndɑ:mruga	0.14	23
189	Roller skates	ಸ್ಕೇಟಿಂಗ್	ske:ɾiŋ	0.17	16
190	Rolling pin	ಲಟ್ಟಣಿಗೆ	lʌ[ʌŋige	0.14	23
200	Sea horse	ಸೀಹಾರ್ಸ್	si: hɔrs	0.14	23
201	Seal	ಸೀಲ್	si:l	0.17	16

## APPENDIX E

Pictures with two dominant correct responses

Pic No	Actual Name	Dominant Alternate Names	IPA transcript	Percentage
35	Box	ಬಾಕ್ಸ್, ಡಬ್ಬಿ	bɔks ,  dʌbi	29,25
37	Broom	ಪೊರಕೆ, ಬರಲು	porake ,  baralu	12,10
44	Candle	ಕ್ಯಾಂಡಲ್, ದೀಪ	kændʌl ,  d̪i:pa	29,26
53	Chair	ಕುರ್ಚಿ, ಚೇರ್	kɔrtʃi ,  tʃe:r	50,45
64	Coat	ಕೋಟ್, ಅಂಗಿ	ko:t ,  aŋi	28,24
78	Dress	ಬಟ್ಟೆ, ಫ್ರಾಕ್	bʌt̪e ,  frɔk	26,26
80	Drum	ತಮಟೆ, ಡ್ರಮ್	t̪amaɽe ,  d̪rʌm	9,8
101	Frying pan	ತವ, ಪ್ಯಾನ್	t̪ava ,  pæn	8, 7
107	Goat	ಆಡು, ಮೇಕೆ	a:du ,  me:ke	37, 30
108	Gorilla	ಗೊರಿಲ್ಲ, ಚಿಂಪ್ಯಾನ್ಜಿ	goriɻa ,  tʃimpænzɻi:	23, 22
132	Lamp	ಲೈಟ್, ದೀಪ	laiɻt ,  d̪i:pa	19, 16
158	Orange	ಕಿತ್ತಲೆಹಣ್ಣು, ಮೊಸಂಬಿ	kɻiɻt̪alehʌŋɻu ,  mosambi	18, 17
173	Pine apple	ಅನಾನಸ್ಸು, ಪೈನ್‌ಆಪಲ್	ana:nas ,  paɻinaɻpʌl	34, 30
195	Sandwich	ಬ್ರೆಡ್, ಸ್ಯಾಂಡ್ವಿಚ್	bræɻd ,  sændviɻtʃ	22, 22

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# Mahesh Dattani's *Dance Like a Man* as an Epic Theatre

Dr. (Mrs.) N. Velmani., M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.

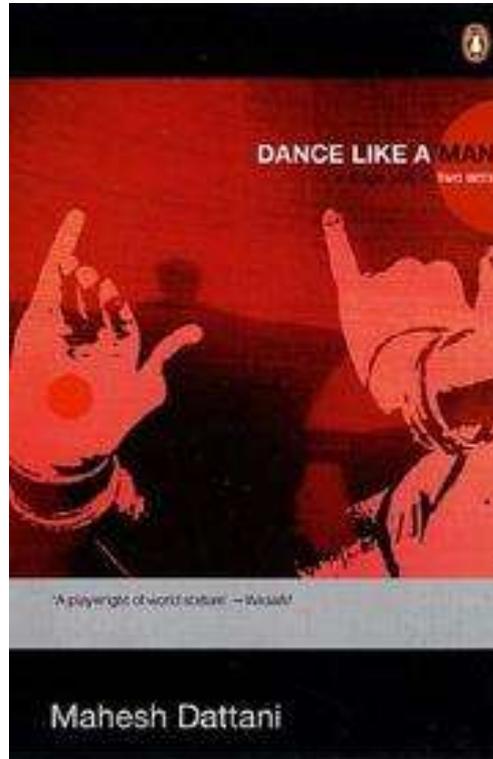
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## A Contemporary Voice

Mahesh Dattani, an authentic contemporary voice, a director, playwright, producer, founder of a theatre group known as 'Playpen' is an intellectually stimulating Sahitya Academy Winner with an excellent awareness of Indian theatre. There is proper blending of Western intellectual consciousness and Indian theatrical techniques in his plays. He himself comments on the relevance of Indian theatre:

There is going to be a good positive development because as we get into the internet age which isolates human beings, the act of communication will be a premium. Theatre is our cultural activity directly related to human beings' communication with each other (Qtd in Chaudhuri 23).

Mahesh Dattani uses his studio at Bangalore as a centre for creative collaboration among playwrights, directors, actors and audience.

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## **Theory of Epic Theatre**

Brecht, the major twentieth century theoretician of drama, evolved a major aesthetic theory, the theory of Epic theatre, fit for a scientific age. He significantly pronounced.

“If art reflects life, it does so with special mirrors” (13)

Brecht’s emphasis is on the need to alienate the audience from any illusion of reality by metatheatrical elements of stage devices like induction, prologue, play-within the play, direct speech, aside addressed to the audience, addressed primary to the mind through devices such as music, dance, plastic art, pantomime, mimicry, gesticulation, lighting, scenery with the help of sub-titles, projections and stills having the documentary effect. Brecht employed ‘complex seeing’ which

‘permit the simultaneous presentation of alternative points of view, of alternative attitudes to the central problem’ (14)

This complex seeing interrupts the process of emotional identification or empathy on the part of the spectator and creates the proper atmosphere for intellectual stimulation which is non – Aristotelian in approach.

## **Brecht’s Impact on Indian Playwrights**

Brecht attracted much attention and general acclaim through out the world. In India his relevance paved the successful balancing of the traditional forms and western sensibility for a group of contemporary Indian playwrights such as Pratap Sharma, Asif Currimbhay, Girish Karnad, and Mahesh Dattani who faced the situational conflict between the cultural past of the country and attractions of Western modes of thought. By injecting the strategies of Brechtian Epic theatre, these dramatists have communicated both a direct link between the spectator and the spectacle and a kind of distance between the audience and the happenings on the stage.

## **Mahesh Dattani on the Function of Drama**

In his interview, Mahesh Dattani stated,

“The function of drama, in my opinion, is not merely to reflect the

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malfuction of society but to act like freak mirrors in a carnival and to project grotesque image of all that passes for normal in our world. It is ugly. It is funny”. (Roy, 15 March 2002)

Dattani dispenses with the notion that the viewer can treat a play like a ‘roller-coaster ride’ which even at its most terrifying moment, one knows that it will rapidly and happily end on safe grounds.

“It is only when you are left hanging in air, you start to question your own personality, perceptions ..... the theatre is a collective experience and the audience have to finish in their own heads what the playwright began”.  
(<http://www.anitanair.net>)

The audience must arrive at their own answers, as also together in terms of a community response, because unlike T.V. or cinema where the viewer does not have to contribute because theatre is a shared experience.

### **A Live Show**

To Mahesh Dattani, theatre is a ‘live show’ which offers scope for a direct person to person communication involving four distinct forms: performers and performers, performers and spectator, spectator and performer and spectator and spectator. An important means of participation is by urging the audience to concentrate intensely on the actions of the play, mainly done in highly imaginative mimes, direct eye contact with the audience. He adapted the spatial, environmental setting of the audience. Techniques like magical sculpting in space, simultaneous action, lack of time space barriers, slow motion, freeze, choreography all appealed to the aesthetic canons of his audience and evoked powerful responses to the various socio-political realities.

### **A Socially Committed Playwright**

Like Brecht who wanted a change in the world, Dattani is a socially committed playwright who, with his sensibility and thinking, raises new vistas in the minds of the audiences through the portrayal of disintegration of social and family relationships in his plays. Dattani dramatizes the socially neglected people. Hijras (eunuchs), gays, lesbians and women are marginalized due to their sexuality. Hijras are the third gender people who are denied all rights and destined to suffer because they are biologically deprived human beings. Gays and lesbians keep their sexuality a secret for fear of ostracism. Women, irrespective

of social status, suffer subjugation one way or other. Dattani is preoccupied with these ‘fringe’ issues which are latent, suppressed and pushed to the periphery. He describes his themes and concerns:

Thematically, I talk about the areas which the individual feels exhausted. My plays are about people who are striving to expand ‘this’ space. They live on the fringe of the society and are not looking for acceptance, but are struggling to grab as much fringe-space for themselves as they can (Dattani, 2000.xiii).

### **Dealing with a Variety of Human Relationships**

Dattani has contributed to the continued growth and renewal of his art both in terms of form and content. He explores a gamut of human relationship in his plays. From *Where There’s a Will*, to the matrix of gender roles in *Dance like a Man* and *Tara to Bravely Fought the Queen* that explores the shams of the upper middle class joint family, to *Final Solutions*, a sensitive play about the Hindu-Muslim conflict, to *Do the Needful*, a comical radio play that talks about alternate sexual choices as do the plays *On a Muggy Night in Mumbai* and *Seven Steps to Thirty Days in September* which look at incest and child abuse. His latest film *Mango Souffle* (2002) questions the dominant values that construct social and gender identities.

### **Core Focus: Mechanisms of the Middle Class Family**

The setting for all of Dattani’s plays is embedded within the mechanisms of the middle class Indian family. Dattani admits

“I am certain that my plays are a true reflection of my time, place and socio-economic background..... in a country that has a myriad challenges to face politically, socially, artistically and culturally” (Dattani, 2000.xiv)

Dattani does not want to present an alien and distant westernized world with which the urban Indian audience could easily identify. He is rather concerned with the apparatus of the family that is entrenched within the middle class milieu, the background which the playwright is a part and would like to ‘connect’ with audience drawn from similar backgrounds.

## **Dattani's characters – Centred around Family and Society**

Dattani's characters situate themselves within the family and the society. For that Dattani chooses the setting within dynamics of a contemporary urban Indian family. He portrays the newer realities piling on the older realities blending the given stereotypes. He makes use of the available stage space to reveal these structures in concrete terms. His characters move and speak in these spaces with voices that echo and reverberate. His issues are deep-rooted in a definite space and time and within a stimulating societal context with no message on social issues. He maintains the stance of a non-judgemental observer and he wants the audience to judge the issues.

The setting coalesces with the themes and Dattani's stage often uses the various levels to create theatrical resonance in a special way. The stage settings are contrived to amalgamate the multiple layers of the societal, the familial, the historical contours of such a location. Dattani's Dance like a Man uses the family home as the setting, the existence of three generations. The play travels back and forth between several generations, Amrit Lal, the imperious father and social reformer who is infuriated by Bharatanatyam which is usually and traditionally performed by women. He passes irreparable harm to his son Jairaj and his wife Ratna who is taught the ancient secret of an art by an old devadasi. The old man makes a pact with Ratna that he will consent to her career in dance only if she helps him pull Jairaj out of his obsession and makes him a 'manly' man. The two can enjoy the security of his riches. They, in their turn, try to transfer their own ambitions to Lata who is a talented dancer but is quite happy to marry Vishwas, the rich mithai wala's son who is ignorant of Bharatanatyam, the passion of the preceding generation. The play presents Ratna and Jairaj, now past their prime, reflect on the past and the way the past affects their present and is to affect the future. Moving effortlessly between the past, the present and the future (as past) synchronically dissolving the different time shifts, Dattani, innovatively uses Lata and Vishwas to play the young Ratna and Jairaj during these shifts and the old Jairaj taking the role of his father Amritlal. Amritlal and the old Jairaj, Vishwas and young Jairaj, Lata and young Ratna are to be played by the same actor. As they put on different characters, the resonating sense of time and change illuminate and give newer meanings.

## **Impact of the Stereotypes**

The minimal use of characters maximizes the staged impact of the stereotypes. This is one of Brechtian techniques – the alienation effect, the actor must help destroy stage illusion by putting himself at a distance, by playing multiroles the actor keeps himself from the character he portrayed and the situation in which he was involved.

Jairaj and Ratna live within the domain of the patriarch Amritlal, Jairaj's father, His antipathy for dance draws the boundary line for their behaviour within his sphere of influence. Dance for him is the prostitute's profession, improper for his daughter-in-law and unmanageable for his son. He cannot tolerate the sounds of the dancing bells that ring through their practice sessions. He is aghast at the long-haired guru with an effeminate walk and cannot stomach the idea of his son-a-man-becoming a professional dancer. His fear is obviously dance would make him 'womanly' – an effeminate man with the subtle implication of homosexuality.

Amritlal, the frustrated patriarch, changes into equally frustrated and abhorrive Jairaj who interviews Vishwas, the prospective groom, the son of a rich mithaiwalla, an alien to the world of dance who is transformed into young Jairaj who is consumed by his love for the art form. Lata, the most pragmatic and level headed character plays the insecure, calculating and scheming young Ratna. She has to survive despite the few choices offered to him. The older Ratna will be haunted by the ghosts of her past and realize her unfulfilled ambitions through Lata, his daughter. Amritlal's house moves through time, changes character along with the owner. The home becomes crucial to the existence of three generations of its occupants, often dictating its own terms to their inhabitants. The meaning of the space alters with each generation. Amritlal carries the baggage of his own times and tries to manipulate the next generation – Jairaj and Ratna – to carry it forward and Jairaj and Ratna in their turn try to pass on their performance to Lata.

### **Crumbling Structure**

In this handing down of cultural context, a number of revelations are made and several hidden stories are told in these spaces and it reveals the cracks that widen enough to crumble the entire structure. The structure that Amritlal passes on conditionally to his son and Ratna is passed to Lata who is a talented dancer quite happy to marry Vishwas who wants nothing to do with their art and whose father owns half the buildings on Commercial street. Dattani explores the human predicament how the general inhibitions of a man towards dance affects the relationship between a husband and a wife.

The tragedy for Jairaj is that he has chosen to pursue a career that is considered 'right' only for women. Amritlal is willing to have Ratna as the dancer and not Jairaj. Like in all battles, a completely innocent individual becomes the victim. Here the victim is the only son of the dancing couple. Dattani refuses to assign the blame on the status of the 'wronged' party to anyone.

“I refuse to have protagonists in a fixed role as victim. If you have a victim, it implies that there is a persecutor and it also implies that you will eventually have a rescuer”.( 416)

Jairaj, is present in the house when the double dose of opium is administered to the baby. Jairaj shares the onus of the blame and Dattani never tries to shift to Ratna. The death of the son binds the two together in shared tragedy. The last lines of the play reverberate:

“We were only human. We lacked the grace we lacked the brilliance. We lacked the magic to dance like god” (447)

Jairaj and Ratna, though passionately devoted to dance, fail in translating their dreams into reality. Instead their daughter Lata becomes the shining star in the sky of Bharatanatyam.

### **Bharatanatyam and the Play**

Dattani says of this play, “I wrote the play when I was learning Bharatanatyam in my mid-twenties.... A play about a young man wanting to be a dancer growing up in a world that believes dance is for women”. Dattani recaptures the ancient tradition of the classical dance form, Bharatanatyam – the three fold art of music, dance and poetry which cohere into an artistic entity – Dattani who has imbibed Brechtian epic tradition, successfully achieves a heightened effect by employing the technique of art within art. Sumanaspati in the article ‘Leading the Charge’ comments

It is beautifully crafted. The way it moves back and forth in time, its use of one actor to play more than one role which really tests the actor’s talent, marks it as unique, as does the strong characterization and the seamless movements in time (The Hindu, 12 August, 2002).

### **Alienation or Estrangement**

Brecht’s theory of alienation or estrangement induces an inquiry, critical attitude on the part of the spectator towards the events shown. A critical attitude on the part of the spectator is developed, as the

actor does not identify with the character he represents, rather he could choose from any particular point of view regarding the character.

This 'complex seeing' leads to levels of multiplicity transcending mere 'tolerance' to recognition and empathy.

Mahesh Dattani uses the split stage where the interior movement of the plays collapses with the exterior fragmented locations.

“I am not interested in characters asking existential questions in a limbo. My characters exist in a definite space and time, in a social context that's what stimulates me. I don't focus on a message but the context is important”.

(Santhanam, Anitha, 2001. <http://www.maheshdattani.com>) Dance-inspired stylized movements convey shifts or extensions within the text and the sub-texts.

### **A Theatre Person**

The fact that Dattani is basically a theatre-person is evident in the stage mechanism. The multi-level set and multi-level characterization are the fine example of a blending of Western stage craft and the technique of Indian folk theatre. The lowest level that occupies a major portion of the stage represents the house of Amritlal. The play becomes a resonant work on contemporary society combined with personal relevance (Dattani's career in dance). The play moves back and forth in time, spanning three generations. The important aspect of this play is the emphatic 'staginess' that is deliberately worked into the writing. As Michael Walling points out,

“His plays fuse the physical and spatial awareness of the Indian theatre with the textual rigour of western models like Ibsen and Tennessee Williams and Brecht. It is a potent combination which shocks and disturbs through its accuracy and ability to approach a subject from multiple perspectives “(Dattani, 2000:229)

Dattani has meticulously anchored his success in Dance Like a Man by making his audiences listen with such involvement that they even forget that they are watching a play in an ‘alien’ tongue.

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# A Dalit Woman under a Strong Clutch of Patriarchy: A Comprehensive Study of *The Grip of Change*

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“Women always face violence from men. Equality is only preached, but not put into practice. Dalit women face more violence every day, and they will continue to do so until society changes and accepts them as equals.”

-- Bharati, West Godavari district, Andhra Pradesh (who was beaten, verbally abused and forcibly incarcerated by dominant caste men of her village for contesting the panchayat elections in 1999)

## Meena Kandasamy, a Leading Dalit Writer

Meena Kandasamy, the poet, presents the basic idea of ‘casteism’ in Indian Politics introduced by M. K. Gandhi. When Mr. Gandhi thought about it and implemented the idea of providing opportunities for the development of *Harijans*, he just wanted to give those ‘down-trodden’ people a stage and support socially. But afterwards it became impossible to remove that ideology of demarcation and so ‘Dalit’ people became an important focus of politics in India. The political parties won and lost with or without the support of Dalits many a times; and promises were given them for a stable life, economically, socially, politically and mentally.

## Arjun Dangle on Dalit Literature

But that dream remained a dream only because in the villages and in many other locations, the ‘Dalits’ are treated harshly as rude, rustic and asocial people by the Upper-Caste people. They are always treated as the ‘Other’ in the caste Hindu system. That is the reason why the Dalit writers put forward their literature as the literature of revolt or protest. Arjun Dangle, A Marathi Dalit Writer, editor and activist, says, “Dalit literature is marked by revolt and negativism, since it is closely associated with the hopes for freedom by a group of people who, as untouchables, are victims of social, economic and cultural inequality.” Dangle traces the origin of Dalit

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literature to Ambedkar. Ambedkar's 'revolutionary ideas stirred into action all the Dalits of Maharashtra and gave them a new self-respect. Dalit literature is nothing but the literary expression of this awareness.'

### **A Critical View of Gandhi**

A stanza taken from the poem '*Mohandas Karamchand*' is appropriate to be mentioned here.

"You knew, you bloody well knew,  
Caste won't go, they wouldn't let it go.  
It haunts us now, the way you do  
With a spooky stick, an eerie laugh or two." (21-22, Touch)

### **The Subaltern in the Village – *The Other of Upper Caste Hindus***

Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak's well-known question 'Can the Subaltern Speak?' is basically posed against the colonizer – colonized framework with reference to post-colonialist and subalternity deriving from Indian and metropolitan intellectual circles (Limbale 2010, 1-18).

Here, the researcher/writer of this paper wishes to establish the Dalits' subalternity not in a colonial structure, but in the caste-based social, cultural and economic structure of Hindu society, i.e., the village they are living in. Their 'Otherness' appears through their settlements as they cannot live inside the villages. They have to settle outside the boundaries of the villages. Their food, clothes, language, life-style, work and work-style or jobs, education and almost everything is different from the upper caste Hindus. They are living separately and also they are cremated separately. This separation creates this 'Otherness' and the Dalits become the 'Other' of Upper Caste Hindus.

### **Rejection of Tradition**

Dalit literature is marked by an extensive rejection of the tradition. The aesthetics, the language and the concerns of a Brahmanical literature, even at its best, carried within it the signs of the caste-based social and cultural order. This subaltern has started speaking through literature but

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the majority or dominant group suppresses the voice, language, tone, style or tradition of this subaltern group, just like the colonized were victimized by the colonizer because of the power the colonizers had at that time.

That is why Limbale compares the Dalit consciousness with that of a slave's Religious norms, social hierarchical system and many more notions of people make the Dalit unique and distinct. The suppression, segregation, subjugation, dispossession and experiences that resemble those of other groups result from this fundamental reality. Thus, Dalits may attain educational, economic, social and political success, but their unique 'Dalitness' remains. (Limbale 2010, 1-18)

### **Dalit Women and Patriarchy**

Specifically, when the question of women is concerned, the struggle is completely different from the Upper Caste men and women, and even it is different from the problems of Dalit men. A very famous statement 'Woman is a Dalit from Beginning to End' seems really a naked truth at this stage just because of this struggle of the Dalit women against the society, against their own outset and against the traditions their men follow. The patriarchy crushes down the originality, warmth, delicacy, tenderness and even beauty in them. They are destroyed almost at every stage and almost by everyone of their world and by the people outside their world.

Meena Kandasamy asks a question, "If the system does not allow a woman to marry a man because he is from another caste ... is it not a direct oppression of her sexuality?"

### **Discrimination Based on Work and Descent**

Discrimination based on work and descent affects globally around 260 million people – also known as Dalits, the 'untouchables' or 'outcastes'. In the countries of South Asia (India, Nepal, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka), Dalit women are placed at the absolute bottom of the social hierarchy as they face systemic and structural discrimination threefold: as Dalits, as poor, and as women. The caste system declares Dalit women to be intrinsically impure, 'untouchable', which sanctions social exclusion and exploitation. In class terms, the vast majority of Dalit women are poor; many are landless wage laborers and lack access to resources. As women they

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are subjugated by patriarchal structures, both in the general community and within their own family.

As a result of this Dalit women are subjected to inhumane living conditions and human rights violations; discrimination and violence systematically deny them opportunities, choices and freedoms in all spheres of life. This undermines not only their dignity and self-respect, but also their rights to equality and development. The nature of violence against Dalit women is accompanied by equally systemic patterns of impunity for the perpetrators.

### **Multiple Deprivations**

The causal links that result in the deprivation of political, civil, economic and social rights of Dalit women are multiple. As women, they suffer from gender bias in the same way as non-Dalit women, but caste and class status deprive them further. Compared to non-Dalit women their status of health and education is low, because they are denied access to services. They are also restricted in employment opportunities and confined to ‘unclean’ occupations, such as manual scavenging, due to the notion of purity and impurity embedded in the caste system.

### **Violence against Dalit women**

The experiences of Dalit women present clear evidence on widespread exploitation, violence and indecent, inhumane treatment. Their life stories tell of physical and verbal abuse, forced labour and slavery, trafficking, abduction, and sexual violence, including rape, which give insight into how their social position makes them vulnerable to these human rights violations. Dalit women are especially targeted for the *devadasi* and *jogini* systems of forced prostitution. Numerous other religious practices and specific social customs subject Dalit women in particular to discrimination.

Most often violence against Dalit women is used as a means of punishment and demonstration of power by the dominant castes towards both the woman herself and her community. Other demeaning and degrading abuses include dominant castes forcing Dalit women to parade naked or eat vile substances, such as human faeces.

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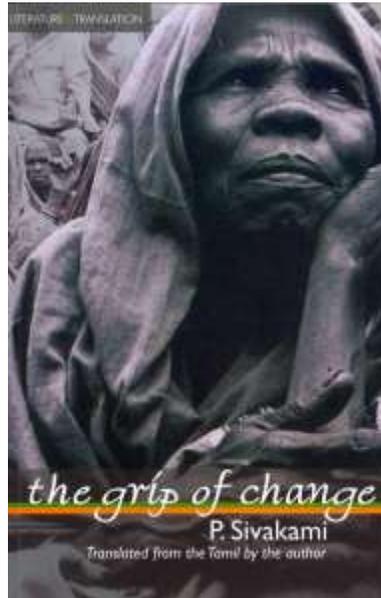
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Meena Kandasamy

Courtesy: [www.meenakandasamy.com](http://www.meenakandasamy.com)

### Focus of This Paper



In this paper, the writer wishes to center a Tamil novel named Pazhaiyana Kazhithalum translated by the novelist herself with the name The Grip of Change. This paper's first focus is the minor character – Thangam who is a childless widow and tormented at many different stages of life. Thangam means 'gold' and here, in this novel, she is misused or, we can say, she is

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related to the misdeeds and lust of the people as gold can be related to the yearning of people. Gowri – who is a narrator of the part of the novel and becomes a protest also against the other patriarchal forces, i.e., her father – Kathamuthu – a Dalit leader, and some other Upper Caste Hindus. Gowri and even the novelist – P. Sivakami focuses on the major events and incidents in the lives of the Dalit and the women are portrayed with that true and vivid picture of victimized society. They are doubly marginalized as they remain silent victims of even the Dalit men.



**P. Sivakami**

Courtesy: [www.sunday-guardian.com](http://www.sunday-guardian.com)

### **Portrayal of Dalit Women's Silence**

Through *Thangam*, the novelist gives a thorough picture of Dalit women's silence and their being victimized by the Upper Caste Hindus as well as they are sexually exploited by their own caste men equally. Body and misuses of the bodily pleasures become a central motif of the novel and yet the novelist does not glamorize sexuality by smattering the text of the novel with careless elopements and gauche marriages. The majority of the description part in the novel focuses on the incident which takes place with *Thangam* and her body. Her body bears acknowledgment to the difficulties faced by Dalit women. Her tortured body does the opening of the novel. She is a widow and so she becomes a 'surplus' woman when is harassed by her brothers-in-law when she refuses to submit to them; she is sexually exploited by her Hindu landlord – *Udayar* and the assault on her by Caste Hindu men owing to the sexual and social misconduct, and so on.

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### **Land, Body and Fertility**

Even her struggle for land is linked to her body and her fertility – she does not have children, and so her brothers-in-law refuse to give her a share in the family land. When she is sheltered and fed by Kathamuthu, her vulnerability is exploited and she is forced to physically yield to his desires. The same body, through which she was oppressed and subjugated, also grants her the power to gain ascendancy in Kathamuthu’s house and gives her dominance over his wives. ‘We will Rebuild Worlds’- a poem by Meena Kandasamy talks about the same kind of experiences of Dalit women and their lives:

“but the crimes of passion/  
our passion/ your crimes/ poured poison and pesticide through the ears-nose-mouth/  
or hanged them in public/ because a man and a woman  
dared to love/ and you wanted/ to teach/ other boys and other girls/ the  
lessons of/ how to/ whom to/ when to/ where to/ continue  
their caste lines.” (60 – 62, Touch)

### **Instruments for Joy**

They can be the instruments to be enjoyed/ of entertainment or joy for the (people) Men of their case as well as the Men of the Upper castes but they cannot raise their voice against this kind of crimes committed by the men. The men and women of different castes can fall in love but when the society punishes them, it punished the woman only and not the man. Especially, when the love-affair or physical suppression is done on the Dalit woman, she becomes the victim for the man who misuses her as well as the victim of the society.

### **The Narrator**

The narration of the novel The Grip of Change and novel’s surprising turn of events are at once authentic and terrifying. A single woman’s life and victimized status is capable of sparking a caste riot. Her casual existence, marked by mute submission and stubborn resistance at varying points of time, can trigger so many events that will leave several lives forever changed. Thangam described the torment she has gone through to Kathamuthu, “My husband’s relatives spread the

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story that I had become Paranjothi's concubine. That's why Paranjothi's wife's brothers and her brother-in-law, four men, entered my house last night. They pulled me by my hair and dragged me out to the street. They hit me, and flogged me with a stick stout as a hand. They merely killed me. No one in the village, none of my relatives, come to help me. I begged for mercy, but they wouldn't stop. They abused me and threatened to kill me if I stayed in that village any longer. They called me a whore." (6, Sivakami)

### **Assumed Feminine Qualities**

Kathamuthu asks her whether she is speaking is truth or not; what actually she has done without thinking about her 'feminine' qualities. How can she speak everything in front of a man who is almost new to her except his name and fame? Still with shame and fear she accepts the truth, 'Udayar has had' (7, Sivakami) her but that is not the complete truth. She explains the truth of events to Kathamuthu, "Sami, is there anywhere on earth where this doesn't happen? I didn't want it. But Udayar took no notice of me. He raped me when I was working in his sugarcane field. I remained silent, after all, he is my paymaster. He measures my rice. If you think I'm like that, that I'm easy, please ask around in the village. After my husband's death, can anybody say that they had seen me in the company of anyone, or even smiling at anyone? My husband's brothers tried to force me, but I never gave in. They wouldn't give me my husband's land, but wanted me to be a whore for them! I wouldn't give in. ..." (7, Sivakami)

### **Inter-caste Sexual Relations**

In conferring and trying to explore into inter-caste sexual relations, the author – P. Sivakami sheds light on how patriarchy gets diluted on its way down the caste ladder. In the affair between the Dalit Kathamuthu and the caste Hindu widow Nagamani, she earns a right place by being 'installed' as his wife in his home. On the other hand, when Paranjothi Udayar forces himself on Thangam, at best engages her as a mistress. She is not brought within the confines of a socially approved relationship because of her being outcast. Then, caste purity is not protected only through control of caste Hindu women, but also through the absence of social sanction to certain inter-caste relationships.

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Even Kathamuthu gets the money from Thangam as she gets it from the Udayar to settle the case outside the court. He tries to be sympathetic to her and starts giving her a special treatment. He, suddenly, feels that Thangam is getting a soft and glossy skin and hair. He gets interested in her and somehow rejects the social and familial bondages by managing to get her by hook or crook. He gets the 'Foreign brandy' (89, Sivakami) for the 'people' of the house: Nagamani, Kanagavalli, Thangam and himself. Even if his deed is remarked by Nagamani that, whatever he is doing is not right, he does not listen to it. And when everybody in the family gets asleep in the afternoon, Thangam – Who is lying in the kitchen – is again raped by Kathamuthu. She groans, "You are like a brother to me ... a brother." (93, Sivakami) but her eyes remain shut as she cannot face a man, who was once compassionate and sympathetic towards her, becomes full of lust and destroys herself psychologically – again into pieces.

### **Becoming a Woman**

Simone de Beauvoir's famous statement "one is not born woman, but, rather, becomes one" suggests the construction of 'woman', definitely the agent of which is the other gender (8, Butler). This is the simple reason why according to Beauvoir, the 'woman' becomes the second sex/ gender. She is placed there by the other gender rather than she herself has taken the position on the second rank. That is how the patriarchy works in every social milieu.

Moreover, according to Butler, a great deal of feminist theory and literature has nevertheless assumed that there is a "doer" behind the deed. Without an agent, it is argued, there can be no agency and hence no potential to initiate a transformation of relations of domination within society. Wittig's radical feminist theory occupies an ambiguous position within the continuum of theories on the other hand; she retains the human subject, the individual, as the metaphysical locus of agency. While Wittig's humanism clearly presupposes that there is a doer behind the deed, her theory nevertheless delineates the performative construction of gender within the material practices of culture, disputing the temporality of those explanations that would confuse "cause" with "result". In a phrase that suggests the intertextual space that links Wittig with Foucault (and reveals the traces of the Marxist notion of reification in both of their theories), she writes:

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“A materialist feminist approach shows that what we take for the cause or origin of oppression is in fact only the mark imposed by the oppressor; the “myth of woman,” plus its material effects and manifestations in the appropriated consciousness and bodies of women. Thus, this mark does not pre-exist oppression ... sex is taken as an “immediate given,” a “sensible given,” “physical features” belonging to a natural order. But what we believe to be a physical and direct perception is only a sophisticated and mythic construction, an “imaginary formation”.” (25, Butler)

### **The Power in Society**

Beauvoir, Butler and Foucault discuss the question of “power” in the society. The distribution of that power focuses on the “construction” of social status of the gender. Because of social milieus being patriarchal, the power remains with them only. They are the powerful personalities who decide what to be done and how.

How do women react to such circumstances where caste and convention and even morality are bypassed? The Dalit woman Kanagavalli, Kathamuthu’s wife, remains a silent bystander and even develops a bonding of friendship with his second wife Nagamani. “Kanagavalli and Nagamani became accustomed to having Thangam in the house. After lunch, they sat together in the coconut grove chewing betel leaves and chatting. They no longer served her left-over food. She ate what they ate.” (88, Sivakami) On the other hand, Kamalam, wife of Paranjothi Udayar, provokes her brothers to assault her husband’s mistress, Thangam. And the climax lies in Thangam ‘earning’ a place in Kathamuthu’s house. Here, caste becomes subsidiary for a small portion and patriarchy becomes a major role where women are used just like the non-living things and this loneliness of the women sheds a particular light on the sick and lusty mentality of the men. Kathamuthu, somehow, rises as an inhuman womanizer here.

### **The Truth of Dalit Patriarchy**

Thus, somehow, with the help of the character of Thangam, Sivakami does not want to focus on the patriarchy of the common society but she wants to expose the truths of the Dalit patriarchy

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and the shocking realities of Dalit Movement as a whole. She does not want to level her novel just on the subject of casts and the basic problems of the social hierarchy but she also wishes the readers to feel the feministic quality which she has as a writer. Her agenda to write the novel The Grip of Change becomes more complicated and critical just because of this reason. When Sivakami wrote this novel, she was just twenty-six. Almost after ten years, she revisited the novel and provided a mature version of experiences in Author's Notes which talks about the mature perspective of life. So the questions raised by her are answered just by her. She portrays Gowri as a victim of her mother's experiences or we can say that she has that courage to move on from the Victimhood of her mother! As a daughter, she is completely against the theory of her father's politics and mentality to misuse women in every possible way. She thinks that even women should have the right to live according to their own thoughts and they should get their own freedom. She can think like that because she is educated and mature person to understand the need of a common woman in a normal life.

### **Dogs! Dogs!**

After the incident of Kathamuthu's sexual assault of Thangam, Gowri shouts, "Dogs! Dogs in this house! Shameless as dogs!"(93, Sivakami) Gowri cannot accept this kind of lusty eyes and behavior in men and particularly in her father that is the reason why she hates her father. She does not like her father's being polygamist and his being loutish. Her notions of the 'civilized' world are completely modern and far from her father's primitiveness or crudeness.

### **The Word in Marginalization**

When we put the margin in the center of any kind of study, every word becomes a pitch for contestation. Sivakami, as a novelist, puts her idea about the marginalized people with a very bright light of criticism and analysis of the society. The novelist tries to focus on the marginalized Dalit women becoming the victims of the patriarchal system of society. Thangam, the lady whose poor and pathetic situation creates havoc in both the areas of society – Cheri as well as the gramam, is a victim on both the sides.(Cheri is a ghetto located at the margin of the village and the Dalit communities are confined to it. The village or gramam is that part where the caste Hindus lives.)

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This shows how suddenly the clouds of patriarchy are in the sky to partially cover the Sun of the human life and its sustainability. This creates a problem as the down-trodden people get a deteriorated place in the social system of hierarchy because of that. Patriarchy does not only destroy the psychological peace of the females living rather suffering under that roof but it also destructs the feministic emotions. Slander becomes slaughter-house for the women like Gowri and Thangam as they are marginalized because of patriarchy and its consequences.

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# English Listening Comprehension Problems of Students from China Learning English in Malaysia

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## Abstract

This research discusses the English listening comprehension problems of university international students from China. The research used a qualitative method to collect data from three Chinese students taking English Listening Comprehension (ELC) in University Sains Malaysian (USM). This study is a research report related to the problems encountered by China's students in ELC learning. The interview was conducted to investigate students' perspective through the main question concerning the problems of the Chinese students in their ELC self-learning process, in three steps, which include the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening. Findings from this study indicate that the main problem faced by the Chinese students is the lack of prior knowledge in English vocabulary, and this inhibits their understanding in the listening process. Moreover, the differences in the accent of the native speakers prohibit the proper understanding of the listening content, the short span of concentration, and the learning habits of Chinese students were discussed as the problems of the ELC learning. This enhances the data availability and the interpretative analysis.

In order to validate the data and the analysis, experiences and documents analyses were conducted. This research laid a good foundation for further research; it provided useful information concerning the effective strategies to enhance students' listening skills and will improve the instruction of English listening class to achieve the win-win situation.

**Keywords:** English listening strategies, English listening problems, Listening habit, vocabulary

## 1. Introduction

The study of English in China has been and still is an important subject for worldwide communication. And approximately 90% of published academic articles are written in English (Crystal, 1997). The situation in China is that language traditionally is treated as an

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academic subject, and China's student have been required to study English as a Foreign Language (EFL) beginning from secondary school. But the problem has persisted over the decades because the aim of English teaching in China has been primarily to train students to pass various kinds of examinations: entrance examinations for high schools and colleges have been especially emphasized (Lee, 1991). The traditional grammar-translation instructional methods have been widely adopted in both junior and senior high schools (Chen, 2003). Thus, a kind of examination-guided EFL instruction with heavy focus on lecturing from selected textbook materials has caused most students to fail the learning of real-life communicative English (Wang, 2008). The findings of this study are expected to provide useful information for devising and conducting more effective English as a Second Language (ESL) listening comprehension at the language center in USM.

### **1.1 Background of Study**

Listening is an essential part of the language learning process, but listening is difficult for Chinese students, even if they are using English as the second language in Malaysia. On the one hand, listening is the weakest skill in English learning due to the Examination Education System (EES), the ELC learning is focussed on the examination-oriented strategy; it is called "dumb English" by some English educator in China, such as Wang (2009), a young language researcher in China. With the aforementioned introduction, the researcher had summarized two scenarios faced by a Chinese student in ELC as below:

1. English listening skills are not sufficiently acquired by the students. This is because English listening skills are very much dependent on sufficient acquisition of grammatical knowledge and adequate vocabulary skills which many Chinese students do not possess.
2. The small and limited English speaking environment has severely restricted the Chinese students to speak English confidently. That is to say, an immersive environment for English speaking is not there. Even in the English classes, the Chinese students are afraid of being jeered at and ridiculed by the teacher or the other students when they attempt to speak English.

On the other hand, ELC is very important in English learning. Listening is widely acknowledged as a neglected skill due to the insufficient pedagogical development and perhaps even teachers' training (Mendelsohn, 1998; Takahashi, 1999). In other language

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skills, such as writing, reading and speaking, listening competency receives significantly less attention in the Malaysian classroom (Mathai, 2005). For the Chinese student, listening is perhaps the most important communication skill needed for success and for graduation. In this context, this study explores the listening problems and strategies faced by the Chinese students with the major aim of improving their listening skills in general.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

As the enrolment of Chinese students increase every year in the higher education institutions in Malaysia, the researcher felt the need to survey Chinese students' level of ELC listening comprehension and speaking proficiency. In pursuit of this objective, it is crucial that self-learning approach is emphasized as an important skill in language learning. Over the years, English communicative competence has always been inadequate for the Chinese students. This is especially true when students did not improve significantly in their ELC proficiency. Therefore, research needs to be conducted for the search of a more effective English instruction; in this regard, one of the research methods is to investigate students' perceptions regarding their ELC proficiency.

## **1.3 Research Questions**

Specifically, the following research questions guided the study:

- 1) What are the ELC problems faced by the students from China in Malaysia?
- 2) Why are these ELC problems not solved, in practice until now?
- 3) How do these problems affect students on their listening strategies and pace of listening?

## **2. Review of the Related Literature**

### **2.1 A Brief History of the Listening Skill in Language Learning in China**

According to Cheng (2012), the English listening class had been introduced into China with the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) in the 1970s. ELC was first added to the lists of subjects of college entrance examination in Guangdong Province since 1999. The College English Curriculum Requirements (for trial implementation) reported in January 2004, students' abilities of independent learning should be developed and enhanced, especially for speaking and listening. In 2006, ELC was added into the postgraduate entrance

uniform examination, and with the deepening of the innovation of college English teaching and learning, the proportion of ELC subject in College English Test (CET) has reached 35%. Therefore, the students' listening comprehension ability was made valuable gradually in the English teaching of Chinese higher education; nevertheless, exam-orientated education and ELC teaching are still in one set.

## **2.2 The Condition of ELC Learning in Malaysia**

When English becomes more and more important, a lot of students choose the different learning environments which use English as first or second language. Malaysia is a multilingual country with various ethnic groups. The Main ethnic groups are Malay 50.3%, Chinese 24.2%, and Indian 7.1%. And the national language is Malay, but English is widely used as second language. Under British colonial rule for almost a century, English education was zealously pushed by the British colonial authority, and the English language dominated the leading role in political, economical and legal fields. Malaysians adopted the Roman Script to write the Bahasa Malayu after 1957 as official language. English and Bahasa Malayu share some fairly similar language writing conventions. After that, the government, the administration of commerce and education also adopted general English, due to English environment and the British Commonwealth system. Many people can communicate in English in Malaysia; basically the local people can speak in English besides the national language. But there are some discernible differences between Malaysian English and British English.

## **2.3 Problems in Listening and in Pedagogy**

Although the previous section discussed what is involved in the skill of listening, the specific problems that teaching listening brings are not self-evident. And although research on the skill is limited, some valuable sources offer valid comments on the problems involved in teaching listening. Lund (1991) points out some of the unique characteristics of listening that differentiate it from the other receptive skill. In other words, listeners are forced to comprehend in real time, rather than having a text to peruse and review. An example Lund (1991) uses to illustrate this point is that of cognates, which could scaffold comprehension with written text, yet might not work with listening comprehension because of phonetic variations which could render them unidentifiable.

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Anderson and Lynch (2003) also address problems posed by listeners' background knowledge and schemata. Language is the means used by a community to express facts, ideas, beliefs, rules, and so on - in short, to express its culture. Although an English language learner might know the meaning of the words "paper" and "plastic," he or she might not understand that in American supermarkets, patrons are often asked to choose the type of bag for their purchases. Thus, the listener may be confused at the meanings of these words in this context, if this were not an element of shopping procedures in his or her culture of origin.

In addition to pointing out this affective, cultural aspect of problems with the skill, Anderson and Lynch (2003) also discuss prerequisite skills for listening that may pose problems for listeners deficient in these areas. The first of the three prerequisite skills which they describe is "the ability to recognize the topic of conversation from the native speaker's initial remarks". This is a top-down, cognitive process that involves reviewing, comprehension, and memory, which according to Bacon (1992), is an ingredient of monitoring, the most prevalent met by cognitive listening strategy. The second of the important skills that Anderson and Lynch (2003) mention is the listener's ability to make predictions about likely developments of the topic to which he will have to respond. This further illustrates the simultaneous, intertwined nature of the use of all these skills, and how they are likely to occur at any point during the listening process. The third skill of prime importance is the ability to recognize and signal when he has not understood enough of the input to make a prediction or a response. These explicit signals are crucial, as they usually elicit a repetition or reformulation by the native speaker, and so give the listener another chance to make a relevant response.

Research suggests that the metacognitive skills of self-monitoring and self-evaluation are crucial to learning the listening effectively, and a necessary additional instructional focus in the language classroom. Brindley and Slatyer's (2002) similar research identified still other problems. Among these are:

The nature of input: speech rate, length of passage, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, discourse, noise level, accent, register, propositional density, amount of redundancy, etc. The nature of the assessment task: amount of context provided, clarity of instructions, response

format, availability of question preview, etc.; and the individual listener factors: memory, interest, background knowledge, motivation, etc.

Whereas many of these factors overlap with the previously quoted research, these lists are not exhaustive, and these factors are multi-faceted. Holly (2008) points out that if listeners cannot use top-down processing effectively and successfully, speakers' utterances or messages cannot be understood. The reverse is also true. Without bottom-up ability, listeners cannot make good use of top-down processing. In short, for fluent listening, top-down and bottom-up processing are needed.

Likewise, a listener's effective combining of these skills for the ultimate purpose of comprehension involves a combining of systemic knowledge and schematic information (Anderson & Lynch, 2003). Schematic knowledge includes background knowledge and procedural knowledge. Listeners combine this with systemic knowledge regarding the language system, that is, including semantic, syntactic, and phonological knowledge, and the knowledge of the context of the situation, which is affected by setting and participants, and by knowledge of what has been said as well as the ability to make predictions (Anderson & Lynch, 2003). Under a modern model of listening, in which the ultimate goal is comprehension as opposed to memorization, these are some of the realistic factors that a student of second language confronts, before he can start listening effectively.

#### **2.4 Assessing Listening Skills**

Furthermore, Brindley and Slatyer (2002) point out some practical implications regarding reliable assessment task design for the listening comprehension skill. They assert that reliable assessment of the listening skill is difficult to achieve, due to issues with construct validity, pointing out that the test-developer is placed in the position of having to describe the listening skills that contribute to test performance and then design a task that elicits these. However, a number of research studies have cast doubt on the extent to which separate skills can either be identified or matched to particular listening items, since the interactive processing involved in listening may include the simultaneous exercise of a range of skills.

Another important point the analysis suggests is that particular combinations of item characteristics appear either to accentuate or attenuate the effect on difficulty by Brindley and

Slatyer (2002). The test developer describes listening skills that contribute to test performance, and then suggests designing a task that elicits these. However, there is a question as to whether these skills can be identified or matched to listening items. Brindley and Slatyer's (2002) assertions seem to mirror those of Janusik's (2002) from the previous discussion regarding model difficulties inherent in the listening skill. Both point to the admittedly complex nature of the listening process, citing difficulties with the ability to isolate particular skills used in the listening process, as well as the tendency to "focus on different aspects of the process" (Janusik, 2002).

Richards (1982), who formulated the aforementioned taxonomy of listening skills, complains that many listening activities focus on retrieval of information from long-term memory rather than on the processing activities themselves, and lists for example, an exercise involving listening to a passage and responding to true or false questions about the content of it, typically focuses on memory rather on comprehension. Further, Richards (1982) asserts that in teaching listening we can manipulate two variables, both of which serve to develop ability in particular skill areas. We can either manipulate the input, that is, the language which the learner hears, controlling for selected features such as grammatical complexity, topic, and rate of delivery, or we can manipulate the tasks we set for the learner. Manipulation of either is directed toward developing particular micro-skills.

Such insight is necessary when dealing with the listening skill, so as not to assess memory or previous knowledge, for example. Insight such as Richard's (1982) provides more specific sets of skills, criteria, and micro-skills that deserve attention if language professionals are to properly and fairly assess listening with due attention to its underlying and integral processes.

## **2.5 Models of Listening**

Although the distinction that Morley points out here was asserted in the early seventies, even more recent sources harbour the same complaint, suggesting little historical improvement in the issue. According to Janusik (2002), "Historically, more time has been spent on teaching speaking than listening, even though listening is the communication activity in which we spend most of our time".

One of the problems teachers face is the lack of a single definition of model of listening. Mendelsohn (1998) argues that other scholars agree that there is no accepted definition of the

construct of listening. Janusik (2002) also points out listening as the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and nonverbal messages. In addition to a lack of a single definition, two types of models have been used to explain listening. The dual models may cause confusion unless one states the perspective of listening under study. One model focuses upon a listener's internal processing that occurs while he or she is listening. Therefore, as Janusik (2002) pointed out that the lack of a single definition and model is two of the difficulties in teaching listening.

Janusik (2002) also describes the first model as cognitive, as it focuses only on factors inside the listener and the second model as a behavioural one, since it involves factors outside the listener. Janusik (2002) uses these descriptors to point to the nature of listening as a complex process involving both behavioural and cognitive functions and also to point out the tendency of scholars to focus on different aspects of the process. This distinction makes a huge difference in how the skill is approached and studied, since the listening skill encompasses so much. A complete picture of listening might involve at least an integration of these models discussed and others, in order to move toward a more complete model of the listening skill in ESL learning.

Recent models of listening tend to regard the skill as more active than models in the past have, due to changes in pedagogical thought and teaching trends. According to Anderson and Lynch (2003), one listening textbook states that the tape-recorder view of listening [is]... an inappropriate and inadequate view of the listening process." This "tape-recorder" view ignores the fleeting nature of listening input, which prevents immediate verbatim reproduction of, but not necessarily internalization of, the input. In other words, much of the listening process occurs internally, such as quickly extracting main ideas and forming hypotheses about unfamiliar words. The "tape-recorder" view of listening does not provide for accurate assessment of many important listening skills, such as determining the speaker's attitude. In contrast, Anderson and Lynch (2003) recommended the listener as active model builder, which requires the message to be coherent and an interpretation, thus giving a definition of listening as an active skill. This goal of listening is memorization of meaningful comprehension, with the listener and the environment each playing active roles, shaping the process. This is important because if language learning embraces the basic goal of the students' functioning in the target culture, then tools like rote memorization are not sufficient to help execute the demanding process of listening to a second language. As opposed to

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reading and writing, the skill of listening is so closely involved with conditional factors such as environment and the speaker's accent that it must be approached carefully.

## **2.6 Listening Process**

According to Anderson and Lynch (2003), listening involves the reciprocal and multiple skills; one would do well to explore some of the complex elements inherent in the active process that it involves. Then, skills can be isolated, focused upon, and improved, providing the attention necessary to be cognizant of, to integrate together, and to put the skills to more effective use. Anderson and Lynch (2003) also give an outline of the listening process and its various elements in the context of face to face interaction. Each point in this "simple, step-by-step" (Anderson & Lynch, 2003) list requires a variety of cognitive functions in order for it to be executed. The first of these steps is that the spoken signals have to be identified from the midst of surrounding sounds. This could entail tasks such as separating discourse markers from morphemes that is linguistic units of meaning, such as a prefix or a root word. That is, when listening to a second language, one initially only hears a string of unorganized, continuous sounds which emerge as sentences and words even as the language becomes more comprehensible. In the second step, "the continuous stream of speech has to be segmented into units, which have to be recognized as known words" (Anderson & Lynch, 2003). This involves the prerequisite of some lexical knowledge of the language, as well as the ability to apply this knowledge during discourse. Especially for novices, this usually involves the unavoidable "skill-getting" tasks, such as memorizing lexical and grammatical content; this could include memorizing vocabulary terms or verb conjugation rules. The third step is, "the syntax of the utterance has to be grasped and the speaker's intended meaning has to be understood" (Anderson & Lynch, 2003). The two tasks in this third step offer room for extensive speculation as to what and how many stages occur during this process, and regarding the specifics of how they function. For example, step three can occur through a process of the listener's mentally translating the utterance into the first language in order for comprehension to occur, or of relating the heard utterances to known words in the target language. This stage is a challenging part of the listening process, largely because strategies can work to the learner's detriment as well as to the benefit. For example, hearing of an "action," and having heard it used previously as a verb, a student might be able to guess that the noun "auction" involves selling. A similar strategy may prove beneficial in regard to

compound words, as students may piece together true meaning from separate parts. However, language learners can be significantly disadvantaged when applying the same strategy to understand, for example, false cognates, or for idiomatic expressions such as “give me a break,” and compound words, such as “eyesore.”

The final steps as described by Anderson and Lynch (2003) argue that the learners also have to apply the linguistic knowledge of formulating a correct and appropriate response to what has been said. This step involves interpersonal skills and some knowledge of the target culture’s conversational norms as well as a myriad of tasks associated with knowledge of the language. Having described the process step-by-step, Anderson and Lynch (2003) state that there is evidence that these listening skills are deployed not as separate steps but simultaneously which makes listening an even more formidable achievement. Therefore, it can be concluded that although this process is listed here as steps, it likely involves an overlapping and meshing of all these varieties of tasks discussed.

Although once labelled as a ‘passive’ process, listening is very much an ‘active’ process of selecting and interpreting information from auditory and visual clues. Research does tell us that there are a number of events that constitute ‘listening.’ The listening: determines a reason for listening; takes the raw speech and deposits an image of it in short-term memory; attempts to organize the information by identifying the type of speech event; sometimes predicts information expected to be included in the message; recalls background information to interpret the message; assigns a meaning to the message; checks if the message has been understood; transfers the original message into long-term memory; and deletes the original information from short-term memory. Although we do not know in what order or how this occurs - indeed the listener is seldom even aware of performing these steps. it is a guide for the teacher of the steps that take place when a message is perceived. While Holly’s (2008) perspective is largely in agreement with Anderson and Lynch’s (2003), neither accounts for the importance of other environmental factors, namely that of situational context. According to Richard’s taxonomy of listening micro-skills, these skills are employed according to the context of the listening situation. Appendix E offers his detailed list of “conversational” versus “academic” listening micro-skills. Although each list contains similarly worded micro-skills, the author’s focus on listening as dependent on context deserves attention, as it empowers students and instructors with more specific and perhaps more effective skills as applied to the appropriate listening context.

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In addition to the listening skill's meshing of so many different skills, stimuli, and processes, there is a multitude of additional factors which further convolute and complicate the study of it. For example, students may progress through the stages of listening at different rates, dictated by, among many factors, their proficiency levels, their awareness and utilization of listening skills, their ages, and the students' previous, or lack of, experience with learning to listen to a new language. Students at lower proficiency levels may need more mental energy and time to determine a purpose for listening, whereas higher-proficiency students might be able to leave this step of the process completed rather quickly. Lower-proficiency students may have to re-utilize various skills this way, doubling back on the process, progressing seemingly backwards as well as forward through the continuum of the many listening skills as their comprehension of a listening situation evolves. Younger students, who have used language-learning skills to learn their first language more recently than older ESL students have, may use their listening skills more intuitively and automatically, and so may require less focus on specifically learning those discrete listening skills. Additionally, students with experience in having previously learned a second or third language may have internalized more listening skills than monolinguals.

The target culture in question offers additional factors. A lower-ability student who has more experience in the target culture may require less attention to and revision of background knowledge during the course of the listening event than would a student with, for example, a large memorized lexicon but less time spent in the target culture. Due to the ephemeral nature of listening and to the eclectic nature of language learners, listening skill is perhaps necessarily a highly individualized, complicated matter.

Of course, other factors such as the teacher's ability in both the students' first and target language can influence students' listening processes as well. For example, an instructor may lack vocabulary in students' language that would be necessary to explain mental listening strategies to novice-level students who likewise lack English vocabulary yet, to name such concepts.

Natural variations in individual students' learning abilities and styles can also complicate the process of listening to a second language, creating the need for more individualized and time-consuming instruction in order for listening skills to be maximized. For example, a particular student may rely more on visual or kinaesthetic stimuli rather than possessing traits of an

auditory learner, who in turn may have more advantages in listening simply due to a different style of apprehending input. Even among auditory learners, some may be more attuned to tonal-and pitch-related auditory learning, as is beneficial for the study of music, whereas perhaps a natural ease with an auditory skill such as separating speech from discourse markers, may prove more beneficial in the area of language acquisition.

Anderson and Lynch (2003) concluded that three main skills emerge from the discourse analysis studies as being of prime importance for the L2 listener:

1. The ability to recognize the topic of conversation from the native speaker's initial remarks
2. The ability to make predictions about likely developments of the topic to which he will have to respond
3. The ability to recognize and signal when he has not understood enough of the input to make a prediction or a response. These explicit signals are crucial, as they usually elicit a repetition or reformulation by the native speaker, and so give the listener another chance to make a relevant response.

In order to execute these skills, listeners must have other necessary skills at their disposal. For example, background knowledge and social skills are of key importance in order for students to even approach these tasks.

## **2.7 Cognition and Metacognition in the Listening Skill**

An article by Goh (2000) reports on how self-regulation strategies affect the listener's perception of the listening situation. Goh (2000) concludes the definition of metacognitive strategies is applicable in listening situations if appropriately adapted. Participants consistently reported more comprehensive understanding, deeper level of processing, more reflective assessment of the new material, facilitated integration of new information into existing knowledge structures, and improved processing characteristics. From these results, some important conclusions may be drawn for the teaching of listening skills and strategies, Goh (2000) reported that a learner in the area of listening needs to be provided with opportunities to explore a variety of different listening strategies and the specific forms they can take. Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) agree that although it is assumed that learners react similarly to listening, as learners do to reading, it must be recognized that reading and listening are not entirely parallel skills. This is because of various differences between the reading and listening skills, including but not limited to the ephemeral nature of listening

versus the concrete nature of tangible reading material. Goh (2000) asserts that more specific research on the listening skill is necessary in order to systematically account for the demands of a listening situation, some of which are specified below:

The transitory character of speech, the problem of following the speaker's rate of information production, and demands on selective and sustained attention, all may influence the mental workload and the availability of attention capacity during listening. It is, therefore, by no means self-evident that meta-cognitive strategies are equally applicable in reading and in listening.

These strategies are inherent in any learning process and can be more effective when explicitly taught. A simple definition of these terms reads as follows: "cognitive strategies involve solving learning problems by considering how to store and retrieve information. Meta-cognitive strategies involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating comprehension" (Rubin, 1994). Another basic definition reads, "meta-cognitive strategies, or self-management strategies, oversee, regulate, or direct the listening process. Cognitive strategies are the actual mental steps listeners use to understand what they hear" (Vandergrift, 2003). Examples of cognitive strategies include repeating to memorize, summarizing, and piecing together details. An article which "presents findings from research into listening strategies and tactics of ESL learners" (Goh, 1998) offers another definition: cognitive strategies are more directly related to a learning task and involve direct manipulation or transformation of the learning material (O'Malley, 1990). Meta-cognitive strategies include the three fundamental executive processes of planning, monitoring and evaluating. Meta-cognitive strategies, therefore, involve thinking about the way information is processed and stored, and taking appropriate steps to manage and regulate these cognitive processes. Metacognitive strategies are just as important, if not more important, than cognitive strategies (Goh, 1998).

As previously mentioned, some researchers designate a third group of strategies as social or affective strategies. However, for the purpose of a smaller scope for this study, the focus will cover meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies in three different contexts. Meta-cognitive strategies include focusing attention, self-management, and self-evaluation, monitoring comprehension, and being aware of loss of attention (Bacon, 1996). They also include prediction, planning, selective attention, problem-solving, and evaluating (Vandergrift, 2003).

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Cognitive strategies include bottom-up processing such as repeating a word, relating a word to known words, using intonation and pauses to distinguish words and phrases, piecing together the details, and listening to sound instead of meaning (Bacon, 1992). Top-down cognitive processing includes listening for the topic before the details, forming expectations, using schemata, inferring from the context, summarizing, and elaborating (Bacon, 1992).

Individual listeners use these skills in different ways, and some, more effectively than others. Research has shed some light on variables affecting student success in this area. Many studies have drawn a correlation between direct strategy instruction and improvement of listening comprehension skills. Such studies offer notable conclusions, such as one which “highlights the benefit of predictions, the usefulness of discussion with a partner, and the motivational effect of focusing attention on the process as well as the product of listening” (Vandergrift, 2003). The same study also asserts a popular point: “research shows that skilled listeners use more meta-cognitive strategies than their less-skilled counterparts” (Vandergrift, 2003). Another researcher noted in her study that “the high-ability listeners were notably different from (the weaker ones) in the frequency and the quality of tactics used to put these strategies into action” (Goh, 1998). A review of research cites that “Murphy... found that ‘more proficient’ listeners placed greater emphasis on ‘personalizing’ (on elaborating from their own knowledge) and also inferred, drew conclusions, self-described, and anticipated more often than less proficient listeners” (Rubin, 1994).

Bacon (1992) provides a fairly complete breakdown of many of the most popular listening strategies. The survey for this study was formulated in part by her list, which organizes listening comprehension strategies into meta-cognitive, cognitive, pre-listening, during-listening, and post-listening activities, as well as outlines showing which of the cognitive strategies are respectively bottom-up and top-down.

Research seems to point not only to the general effectiveness of using metap-cognitive strategies to enhance the listening skill but also highlights some other variables to keep in mind. These variables, such as Goh’s (1998) attention to the quality of the approach, Vandergrift’s observation of the importance of the process of listening, and Richard’s focus on micro-skills, give good ideas of what to expect and where to start in studying strategies and the listening skill.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Participants**

Compbell and Cleland (1999) state that the qualitative research is conducted among the minority populations, and sampling size is small; and the qualitative research is focused on the intermediate process between reason and result. We need to understand many details in this process.

For this study, the researcher found three students from China learning ELC in USM. These three participants have different ELC learning experiences and English grades. According to Vandergrift (1999), ELC is a separate and important component of language learning. It is needed, so that the learners master a certain number of vocabulary and grammar. So the researcher chose the Chinese students from the highest level four in the Language Center of USM.

#### **3.2 Data Collection**

The research is focused on the self-study problems and self-learning strategies, so the location of data collection is selected from outside of classroom. Therefore, this study considers the two key research questions: what are the ELC problems faced by the students from China in the tUSM? And what are the ELC strategies used by the students from China in the USM?

This research method uses in-depth interviews and collects data on individuals' personal experiences and perspectives. There are three steps to collect data. In stage one, the researcher gathered information on exposure in general, such as materials read and problems from conversation in normal study. Due to the fact that participants lived in different places, the researcher mostly used interview techniques. The data revealed that the students had ELC problems and they worked out their own strategy. Thus, in step two, research techniques such as semi-structured interviews with research questions and observations have been used. Step two reviewed the data of exposure from participants on ELC learning and research questions as stated earlier. In the third step a much focused in-depth study has been conducted. The final step is to transfer field notes and data gathered for analysis, interpretation and presentation. The result of this analysis shall be reported later on.

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### 3.3 Sampling Procedure

As mentioned earlier, the research sample consists of three students in USM. These three participants were randomly selected in level four class of Language Centre; all participants are students from China. And the researcher is using the labels PTC1, PTC2 and PTC 3 to replace the names of the three participants. PTC 1 and PTC 3 are learning English level four in the School of Languages of USM, and they have come to Malaysia only for six months. Both of them are 18 years old; PTC 2 had passed English level four and stayed in Malaysia for eight months and the age of this participant is 19 years old. All of them are high school graduate students from China. In order to satisfy the degree entrance requirement of the USM, they must get at least 5.5 points from IELTS (International English Language Testing System) or get B from English level four class in the language centre of USM. Therefore, these three participants pay good attention to English learning, especially in ELC.

### 3.4 The Instrument

According to Silverman (1993) interviews in qualitative research are useful for gathering facts, assessing beliefs about facts, identifying feelings and motives, commenting on the standard of action, present or previous behaviour, and eliciting reasons and explanation. The interview effect may influence the research findings as the subjects may well articulate what they think the researcher may want to hear. Furthermore, in order to open dialogues, interview used only Chinese language. The researcher as the translator will translate the interview content in English. Therefore, the researcher believes that using Chinese language will get more detailed information from participants, and may truly affect the research result.

In this research, the semi-structured interviews have been used as the information gathering techniques. The semi-structured interview uses open-ended questions, and all conversation is guided by research questions that the researcher would like to explore in-depth. The interview can be either scheduled or unscheduled, and could be carried out in a formal or informal setting.

In this section, there are some examples of semi-structured interview questions that the researcher used in this research:

1. Do you have any comprehension problems in English listening practice?
2. Did you overcome these problems?

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3. How do you overcome these problems?
4. What kind of method are you still using in English listening comprehension practice?
5. Do you think that method can effectively improve your listening comprehension? Why?

During interview, if the participants' answer is not clear and detailed, or the participants' talking is far from the main topic, some probing questions will be used. This is also recommended by Grove, Fraser, & Dunne (2002) in qualitative research. The probing questions will help participants think more deeply about the issue at hand, and the good probing questions should be general, brief and widely useful, and would help move thinking from far to near main questions, but avoid yes or no responses. Also Daielson's work called these probing questions as similar to the meditational questions. These probing questions are designed to follow the main research questions if the participants digressed. The following questions will be asked:

1. Why do you think this is the case?
2. What would have to change in order to improve your ELC ability?
3. I noticed that you were still having the same reason, what were you thinking about that?
4. How did you determine to use this method?
5. Do you remember anything else?

The probing questions will be connected to the main questions during interview, and will help the researcher to piece together various kinds of data and ponder over the problems of the participants. So, just as Grove, Fraser, & Dunne (2002) report, the probing question is very helpful in interview process.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedure**

In order to carry out the research and collect data, the researcher needs to find the participants and request for the interview time. The initial preparation is very important, as it is very crucial to have a smooth rapport between the researcher, the participants and the setting. It would also act as an introduction and background (which will be presented in Chapter one) to the research as well as framing a befitting role for the researcher and the subject. The initial preparation has been done in two weeks. Data collection process or stage two is the data collection process which was done for one month. Data analysis has been carried out currently with the data collection process. Interview is the main method in data collection.

Follow-up and oversight of any of the points have been done fairly to cover and double-check everything. The final stage is the checking of the data and predicting which will be much more focused on the data analysis and will continue to further research. All short notes, and audio and video recording have been transferred for analysis, interpretation and presentation. The data collected will be discussed in Chapter four and five of this research.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

In qualitative research, raw data is gathered from the transcripts of interviews or notes from archival material (Vierra, et al. 1998). Data analysis on the other hand is a process of categorization, description and synthesis. The researcher will begin data analysis soon after data collection commences. The purpose of data analysis is to reduce the large quantities of data to manageable, intelligible units and discern relationship among these units. After data collection procedure has been done, all the information will be transcribed, typed and translated for further explanation and analysis. Data reduction is necessary for the description and interpretation of the phenomenon in this research. So in the three stages, namely, data preparation, data collection process and data's checking and predicting, the data analysis needs to follow these questions:

- What needs to be done for collecting these data?
- How to process and analyse these data?

#### **3.6.1 Data Preparation**

According to Strauss (1987), in the preliminary stage of categorization process, each listening protocol and observed listening behaviour will be analysed using the method of constant comparison. In the first stage is research preparation, all of data is the basic information of interview participant and the place of data collection. The research will engage the students in free conversation in the USM. The researcher will record in paper the interview direction and generation of ideas. The researcher will gather the students' responses and English teachers' suggestions. English learners from China in the language center of the USM will be grouped under three categories based on ELC ability, English class setting in language center and short talking. Also based on Strauss' study (1987), literature reviewed in this study will be revisited to compare emerging categories with those of previous study of listening in

second language learning. The purpose of this stage is to find suitable participants and get the first hand information of ELC learning experiences and problems.

### **3.6.2 Data Collection Process**

The data has been analyzed after all the necessary data has been gathered through interviews. In this second stage the main job of this research is interviewing three participants from China. In the second stage, data is presented as the main findings in Chapter 4. The field analysis and normal data analysis are used during and after interview.

The field analysis is the tendency to process the data during the data collection process. Researcher will analyse the responses from participants during interview, in order to control the interview time and help participants answer deeper and clearer. The aim is to get useful data. These probing questions were set in 3.4 that deals with research instrument.

Normal data analysis will be done after interview. “A rule of thumb is that analyzing qualitative data can require as much time as collecting the data” Vierra et al (1998). As the table 3.2, data sorting and translation are almost done after per-interview; first, complete typing and transcribe. Based on the researcher questions, all of the data has been put into the two categories which are ELC problems and ELC strategies, but the data gathering techniques is using field analysis and document analysis.

### **3.6.3 Data Checking and Predicting**

This is the last stage in data collection process, it is included as data analysis in section 4, and the data is again checked. This is followed by the two research questions. The collected data need to be checked again; if there are some points or answers that are not clear, the researcher may interview again.

## **4 Results**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In the previous section, a detailed account of the methodology has been described. In this chapter, the findings of these studies will be presented. The two main research questions are:

1. What are the English Learning Comprehension (ELC) problems faced by the students from China in the USM?

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## 2. What are the ELC strategies used by the students from China in the USM?

As in most qualitative research, the research questions are usually meant as a guide for the researcher to start and develop the research. These initial research questions are overtaken by more important, relevant and pertinent questions as the researcher learns more about the research. Nonetheless, for the sake of continuity and consistency in report, the initial research question will still be used as an attempt to entice the flow of more relevant enquiries. These questions form part of the answer to the initial research questions. These questions shape the findings of this study.

### 4.2 ELC Problem Findings

This section was initiated by research question 1- what kind of problem do they have in the ELC's learning? And by research question 2 - what are the ELC strategies used by the students from China in the USM? These questions were posed because the learning of listening comprehension is the main concern of this study. Thus, the data analysis is planned to identify the major cause of the listening problem and thereafter attain a good solution for the problem to help the learners.

The researcher will diagnose the listening problems based on the interviewee information. It will then be explained in three steps which are pre-listening, during listening and post-listening.

### 4.3 Pre-listening Problems

The data collection procedure will begin with the pre-listening comprehension. The pre-listening stage was set up to gather background information about students' problems as regards their listening experiences. Participants' experience will be explored by using a set of pre-listening questions. The responses from the students were gathered and categorized into different factors which are as follows:

#### 4.3.1 Lack of vocabulary

*PTC1: "I think the main reason is vocabulary and experience, sometimes the experience compensates the inadequate of vocabulary..."*

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*PTC2: “some words cannot be understood such as political, science and new technology terms.”*

*PTC3: “I have memorized a lot of vocabularies, but forgot as time pass as not using or practicing it.”*

From the participants' answer, it was identified that the main problem is vocabulary. Even though students from China start learning English from primary school, their English is still not adequate for listening comprehension. Thus, even students who learned English for more than nine years from primary school until high school were reluctant to use it in their daily routine. They may read and understand it, but their responses in listening comprehension are much slower than reading comprehension. Another cause is that the participants were not equipped with the new terminology English, especially in the field of politics, science, and new technology. Meanwhile, the pronunciation part will be discussed in the second section, which is during ELC.

#### **4.3.2 Lack of Background Knowledge**

The lack of the necessary background knowledge acquired by the students from China forms another facet of the problem. The different background of society, culture and history, especially those countries using English as their mother tongue compared to China outline great social and cultural differences between the East and the West. This brings along the differences in language priority, living habit, thinking style and so on. Related to this problem, three participants have the same answer as depicted by the first participant;

*PTC 1: “Sometimes I cannot understand the meaning of the content, even if I known every vocabulary in the listening material...”*

As there is the lack of background knowledge in ELC, researchers and educators from China suggested English listening teaching to be reformed in 2008. The researcher realized that the lack of background knowledge is a pervasive problem of Chinese students. Some Chinese students who study English in the USM, found difficulty in understanding the learning context even though they know the meaning of every single word.

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#### 4.4 While-listening Problems

Students experience much difficulty in listening due to the great differences between Chinese and English, which are two-cognate languages. In the ELC practice, if students want to comprehend a message, they must memorize some words or the key words from the listening material; this is short term memory. After that, they will go through these words and translate it into Chinese in their working memory. Based on the short term memory of the participant, students' memorizing problems was found in this study. In searching for the solutions for the listening problems, the following questions guided this study:

1. Could you understand the listening content if the speakers were American or British? Why?
2. Which one do you prefer, the lengthy listening article and short listening article? Why?
3. Do you have problem in taking notes during ELC's practice?

These three questions attempt to solve specific problems faced by the students in ELC. From these questions, the researcher found the strategy as the solution to the problems.

##### 4.4.1 Problem of Different Accent

*PTC 1: "...the pronunciation is a problem during the listening comprehension, especially the speed of reading and weakening voice..."*

*PTC 2: "...listening practice was carried out in the class or at home, all of the pronunciation is standard English, but sometime when hearing the France or foreigners speaking English through radio or listening materials, cannot understand at once ..."*

*PTC 3: "sometimes the sounds of the listening materials are not clear, such as the accent or dialect used."*

These interviews help students identify their weakness in listening comprehension. For the students, they cannot apprehend properly due to the pronunciation of the speakers with

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different accents such as American, British, Australian, Indian or Malaysian English.

#### **4.4.2 The Problem of Understanding - Method**

It is easy to understand the second language after it has been translated to the mother tongue language of the users. Due to this reason, students translated every word and lost some important information when they fail to follow the speed of the speaker during the ELC listening.

*PTC 1: "...It is very difficult to understand all of the English words during listening... I try to translate every word in order to improve the listening efficiency."*

*PTC 2: "...cannot translate the unknown vocabulary even if that is the key words... cannot correctly find the key words as soon as possible during listening."*

*PTC3: "I miss one or two sentences when translating the key word, because the translation speed is slower than the speaking speed."*

Translation is a necessary method for ESL learners during their listening process because it assists in their understanding. The problem is they are slow in translation and fail to identify the key words in the listening materials. Thus, it becomes a problem for them when the translations hampers their learning.

#### **4.4.2 The Problem of the Learning Habits**

The students have some learning habits problem in ELC. When they were far behind the listening information, they still try to work out the previous information.

*PTC 1: "I try to translate or guess the previous word, when I am listening the present sentence... "*

*PTC 2: "...the information I listen mix with Chinese and English in my mind, it confused me and hard to understand it"*

*PTC 3: "...cannot listen and translate at the same time, easily lost some sentences when I think the meaning of the last words or sentences."*

This situation happens when the learners listening to the present sentence, are still trying to figure out the meaning of the previous sentences. Thus, they missed the meaning of the present sentence. Therefore, the learning habits of the students become an obstacle for them to comprehend the content of the ELC materials adequately as they tend to translate every word during listening to the materials.

#### **4.4.4 The Problem Caused by the Lack of Patience and Prseverance**

This is the problem for students especially for those living in a foreign country. Students try to practice ELC several times but it turns out fruitless, they lose their passion to continue and thus it affects their leaning outcome.

*PTC 1: "...the long listening materials are difficult for me...cannot memory all and cannot pay attention in the listening practice... "*

*PTC 2: "...when I listened the difficult sentence or words, there is no confidence to go on...the longest time of listening comprehension is fifteen to thirty minutes...sometimes the interference come from health condition or background noise and so on."*

*PTC 3: "I cannot pay attention to ELC practice after fifteen minutes because of my tiredness..."*

The learning of ECL needs patience and perseverance for continuous practice and understanding. Students felt the overloading if the listening materials took more than fifteen minutes and they ignored it or easily give up. They lose their patience and endurance in studying ELC and this becomes a great problem for them to comprehend ELC.

#### **4.5 The Post-listening Problems**

This is the final step in the ELC process. There are some factors that had been neglected in the listening content. The inertia in the mind is the major problem in ELC practice. The

students try to translate every sentence or key words during ELC practice, and then practice the exercise which was given. But the learners ignored the context and characteristic of the speakers.

*PTC 1: "...a little bit information after listened... actually I am not pay attention to the speakers' voice or characters and speaking context."*

The characteristic of the speakers and the unique identity of their voice have been neglected throughout the process. And the listening context also neglected by the students when they tried to translate the content into Chinese.

## **5. Discussion**

### **5.1 Pre-listening Problems and Strategies**

All of the participants reported the same pre-listening problems during the process of ELC, which is the lack of adequate background knowledge and vocabulary. This finding is consistent with Wu (2004) who reported that in China's Education System, the students were provided with vocabulary and background knowledge merely from textbook and the knowledge of the English language was very limited. As a result, students without the background knowledge of the learning content fail to comprehend the meaning of the listening materials. Therefore, this study found that for the pre-listening for ESL course, students from China need to acquire some basic knowledge of the learning materials and enrich their English vocabulary as an important factor to foster their understanding in ESL.

Furthermore, this study found that there are two helpful pre-listening learning strategies that the respondents found helpful. These two strategies are story and pictures as the 'warming-up' exercises. According the Zhang (2000), these 'warming up' materials should be interesting and able to arouse students' curiosity and attention to follow the lesson; it generates students' morale to study the lesson effectively. From the interview, the researcher found that the best solution to motivate the students to learn is story-telling and pictorial information as the introduction to the lesson. Michael Berman (2003) stated that strategy to use photo, maps, and charts in the learning process able to involve active participation from the learners seeking questions and answers. Pictures could be the materials to enhance students' understanding towards the learning materials as the students actively ask questions to get more information from the learning materials.

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## 5.2 During-listening Problems and Strategies

There are four problems in the step of during-listening, which are the problem of different accent, understanding method problems, learning habits problems and the listening stamina problems. First, the accent of the speakers in the listening materials become the barrier for the students from China as they could not understand and found it difficult to follow the lesson due to the different accent in English speaking.

Moreover, the students from China tend to translate every single word or sentence during the listening practice. This situation is worse when the students lost their direction to follow the lesson but they are trying to do the translation. Based on the responses from the interview, the students cannot find the key words accurately and their attempting to do the translation for better understanding was effortless.

Nevertheless, the researcher found that the learning habit of the students from China was the big problem. In this case, students insist on doing the translation during listening even though it is effortless until it develops in themselves a kind of learning habit which is difficult to change. In the end, the ESL become more like a translation course for them and inhibited their listening process.

The fourth problem is the problem in lack of patience and perseverance. If the listening content is very difficult, students will lose their interested and patience in the listening comprehension.

The findings of this research also showed that there are three strategies used by the learners during the listening process. The first strategy is identifying the main idea during listening. The three participants in this study have good experience in identifying the main idea from the guided sentence or concluding sentence. The second strategy is finding key words from some words or sentences that are repeated many times in the listening content. The third strategy is the speed of the speech; the important information usually spoken slowly and clearly by the speaker.

In order to keep the short-term memory during ELC, notes-taking was practiced by the students. Based on Majid (2009) findings, the note-takers' scores is obviously higher than the non-note-takers in listening comprehension. Students normally use English in their note-taking which is easier for them to comprehend and refer to in doing the exercise after the

listening. It was found that students used shorthand in their note-taking which is faster and saves time.

Another finding of this study was students from China were put in effort to understand the listening materials and they tend to predict the meaning of the words which are unfamiliar for them during the listening process. This has become another strategy for them to follow the lesson.

### **5.3 Post-listening Problems and Strategies**

In the post-listening section, the main problem is comprehension. Based on the problem in the section of pre-listening and during-listening, it was found that students ignored some useful information that can actually help them to deeply understand the content, such as the context and characteristic of the speakers.

The post-listening was the evaluation level through exercises or listening practices several times. Exercises are the important step to improve the listening comprehension skills.

### **5.4 Implications**

This research has some implications for the English learners and English teachers. The implications of this study were as follow:

1. The importance of improving ELC skill.
2. The importance of teacher's instruction in the ELC class.
3. The importance of further research in ELC listening skill.

#### **5.4.1 The importance of improving ELC skill**

This research provided insight for students from China in their ELC's learning. Through this in depth investigation which included two aspects of ELC problems and strategies, it allowed the students to see clearly the problems they faced in the ELC learning. According to the respond of the five students, at least seven ELC strategies was mentioned and suggested to enhance students' comprehension in ELC. Thus, the appropriate use of the learning strategies has the potential for significantly improving students from China in ELC lesson.

#### **5.4.2 The Importance of Teacher's Instruction in the Listening Class**

The implications of research also provide insight for the instructors who are facing challenges to teach students from China. Prior to the ELC problems and strategies mentioned by the students in pre-, during- and post-listening offer some useful tips in teaching ELC. The findings of this study indicated that ELC learning through the use of the strategies provided by the students can promote and enhance motivation in ELC learning.

#### **5.4.3 The Importance of Further Research in ELC Listening Skill**

In order to effectively develop ELC listening skill among the students from China, further research is needed to determine how students learn ELC listening skills. Use of the strategies as suggested by the students appears to motivate student, it has the potential to extend the capabilities of good instruction in ELC classroom. Further research in ELC listening skills should provide data that enable the students to study ELC in a deeper manner and also enable the instructors to use a variety of teaching strategies as to improve the quality of the teaching-learning process.

### **5.5 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered for practice and further research.

#### **5.5.1 Recommendations for Students' and Instructors' Practice**

1. Students from China need to enrich and improve their English vocabulary knowledge by downloading useful and relevance listening materials from the website and practice frequently in order to facilitate their leaning in ELC.
2. Students from China should practice to communicate in English with the local students for fluently and at the same time, improve their listening skills.
3. Students from China are encouraged to discuss their listening problems with the instructors for further learning and also seek help from the local students who are their classmates.
4. The instructors need to understand that the students' basic linguistic ability is relatively low. In order to improve the students' ELC proficiency, the instructors should encourage the students to constantly improve their English linguistic ability. The students need to be advised that this is a long-term effort and eventually the outcome can be very promising.

5. The instructors need to encourage the students to develop their interest in the cultures of other parts of the world, especially the culture of target language (English). Students need to know the culture and usage of English language to foster their understanding in ELC.

### **5.5.2 Recommendations for Further Research**

1. The strategies of ELC learning should be extended for further research. This is based on the premise that for effective ELC learning instruction, the instructions has to be customized to cater the need of learners with different problem in study.
2. Further studies should be extended to cover the students with English majors since a considerable number of students from China in Malaysia's universities and college major in English. Differences can be identified between English and non-English majors regarding the problems and preferred strategies.
3. Further studies should be conducted by the survey questionnaires. The information from the responses can be used to compare with the same method using in different group. The method of qualitative cross-validation is necessary for more accurate research findings.
4. Further studies should be conducted to identify the differences between ELC strategies used by Chinese students and students in China. Larger sample are suggested to verify the problems in English learning.
5. Further studies should be designed using experimental research to investigate the relationship of English listening proficiency level and the emphasis in listening comprehension strategy. The methodology can be one-year (two semesters) longitudinal study by applying pre-test and post-test.

## **6. Conclusions**

In light of above findings and discussions, the ELC problem and strategies are found in English learning as second language in USM. There is the need for further research not only on the issue of students' self learning but also other various problems and strategies. The need becomes even more compelling as English is not only taught in ELC classes but also as the medium skills for other linguistic subjects and cross-cultural communication. Based on this research, there are seven ELC problems in students' self-learning and five strategies of ELC learning. Further research need to expand the scope of this study, extend the research time in detecting the ELC strategies' practically. In short, this study had shown that Chinese students learning ELC faced pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening problems that

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need to be addressed and also the have adopted certain self-learning strategies. Therefore this study will provide useful guidelines for instructors to assist these students so that the learning of ELC will be effective, efficient and enjoyable.

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# The Deteriorating Role of Parliament in Indian Society

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## **Creation of Indian Parliament**

As civilization progressed, new cultures developed and new institutions came to life. With democracy, various institutions and organizations came into existence. As time passed, the world population grew up and a new way to represent ourselves came; here lies the transition from representative democracy to parliamentary democracy. Executive and judiciary branches with independent roles also became a reality.

India's parliamentary democracy working over these years since our constitution came into being on 26.01.1950, has stood the test of time and has come to stay as a functioning democracy. Indian Parliament is a creation of the constitution with some influence from Western democracies, including that of Britain. A number of changes in the overall performance of parliament can be perceived that reflect changes in the political climate in the country. Parliament is the reflection of society and a replica of the political culture prevailing in the nation.

## **Right to Vote**

India, a nation in making, evolved its own system in several ways under British rule. Voting rights were extended to adult population without any restriction in several stages. Features such as possession of land and education, etc., were once required to become eligible to vote in the elections. But with independence and with the adoption of a new

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democratic constitution, everyone not mentally deranged became eligible to participate in elections and vote.

### **The Institution of Opposition**

Early Indian parliamentarians adhered to the principles parliamentary democracy, with adequate opportunity extended to create the institution of opposition. They provided a check and balance to obstruct the monarchial aspirations of ruling party governments and to ensure that no dictatorship will ever be established.

The basic concept of 'constructive opposition' was the base on which the entire parliament worked. Unity even in the midst of different views and consensus in solving problems were accepted as the ideal. Having a broader outlook above parochial ties, caste, religion, race, color and community became an ideal that all shared.

### **Parliament as a Talk Show**

Granville Austin, a self-regulating historian and chief authority on the Indian Constitution,<sup>1</sup> defines parliament as a talk show where different opinions come forward and a constructive solution emerges through proper debates and many challenges. Different options provided in our constitution were used very effectively so that a unified whole could emerge, using devices such as adjournment motion, prorogue, etc.

### **Importance of Political Maturity**

With political maturity there is growth in consensus to form coalition where no party obtains complete majority. The goal is to form a true representative democracy where there is trust and confidence. However, there is also strong negative approach to issues debated.

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<sup>1</sup> "Working a Democratic Constitution: The Indian Experience" Vedam Books. Retrieved January 27, 2009.

Sometimes it looks like that some parliamentarians forget about the nation. Their personal agenda may override the national interests. Identity crisis has emerged where both the ruling government and opposition, instead of reaching a consensus, are busy painting their own pictures of fantasies.

### **Disruption of Parliamentary Sessions**

In this era, disruption of parliamentary meetings, asking for resignation of the Prime Minister or to dissolve the government in power, and wasting time on unnecessary issues and resorting to violent and behavior have become quite common. Due to their erroneous behavior, complete sessions of parliament could be wasted. This leads to the situation where important bills could not be passed with discussion as expeditiously as possible. Major issues such as sexual violence against women, issues related to space science and technology and many other things which call for immediate attention could not be dealt with immediately.

### **Governance through Committees**

Our leaders provided us with constitutional committees such as JPC (Joint Parliamentary Committee), PAC (Public Accounts Committee), CAG (Comptroller and Auditor general), CPU (Committee on public undertakings) and Estimate committees and laid down specific procedures for their working. But by not discussing their reports in sessions, the parliament members could betray the masses that elected them and de-motivate the committee members.

### **Role of Parliamentary Language**

The vocabulary of debate and the emotions used there clearly talk about the background which the parliamentarians carry with them and their aspiration to gain power. Caste based politics, criminalization of politics and special lure to vote bank politics could

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make the parliamentarians devoid of the spirit which the Constituent Assembly carried with them while discharging their duties towards nation.

### **Parliament Members as Source of Power**

This situation has also public support in the fact that for most people, MPs and MLAs are not law-makers and public servants with incredible social responsibility, but are possible sources of power and patronage to be cultivated in their own interest. They approach them for getting extra-legal influence or help. Public relations in political dictionary have, in fact, come to signify allocation of favors and these do not come free. Thus, people play a substantial role in encouraging political corruption.

### **Possibility of Clashes between the Prime Minister and the President**

The ego clashes have occurred many times between the Prime Minister and the President where the status of President is seen only as a nominal head. The presiding officers of both houses should be listened to. Special provisions of asking starred and unstarred questions have not been used in proper sense.

### **Lack of Attention to Issues in Debate Sessions**

Moreover, the discipline and ethos which some parliamentarians show by viewing pornography or dosing off when special issues concerning the defense of the nation like NCTC bill is getting framed shows the lack of devotion of some of the representatives to serve their nation. Moreover, fractured mandate of voters also leads to deterioration of parliament and finally 'policy paralyses' emerge where deadlock sums an end in itself.

### **Problems Faced by Parliamentary Democracy**

The problems our parliamentary democracy is facing today (such as the instability syndrome, criminalization of politics or even Parliament being forcibly made dysfunctional

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through disruption, confrontation or forced adjournments) could be improved. For this, two things are needed (a) necessary reforms to be undertaken within the existing Parliamentary system (b) improvement of the character and integrity in the political system.

It has been rightly said that if the people who are elected are capable men and women of character and integrity, they would be able to make the best even of a defective constitution. If they are lacking in these, the constitution cannot help the country. After all a constitution like a machine, is a lifeless thing. It acquires life because of men and women who control it and operate it. India needs to-day nothing more than a set of honest men and women who will have the interest of the country before themselves

### **Positive Role of Constructive Criticism**

The positive role of 'constructive criticism' should be recognized. In addition, judiciary as an instrument should be used to discharge its functions without excessively encroaching upon the powers of legislature and executives, thereby strengthening the basic structure of the constitution which provides for the separation of powers. That is, judicial activism should not become judicial overreach. Last but not the least, the moral responsibility of citizens to vote should be emphasized.

### **Human and Material Sources**

Thus the effectiveness of a parliament depends upon the availability of human and material resources, including information. These are often lacking in the emerging democracies and the deficit has to be filled through international cooperation at both the multilateral and bilateral levels. It is clear that the Parliaments should take seriously the challenges to engage in an ongoing process of reform, making their own practices more open, accountable and responsive. Indeed, Parliamentarians should take the initiative to influence

the future of their country; they should have the confidence to exercise the powers they already possess.

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