Recent Advances in Linguistics

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Affirmative – Negative Expressions in Modern Tamil

A Study on Language Structure and Language Use

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Introduction

Language structure displays different types of expressions (structural) in the use of language in various socio cultural contexts and situations. Affirmative – negative, question – answer, imperative, opposite words (antonyms), acceptance – rejection/ refusal, liking – disliking, exclamation, emphasis and so on are some of the expressions which are not only basic and common but also frequent and significant in the day – to- day communication. These expressions are found not only in the lexical level, but also in the morphological and syntactic levels of the language. Also these expressions are used in varying degrees both in the formal and informal domains of language use.

This paper tries to focus on the structure and use of affirmative negative forms/expressions found in the modern Tamil with suitable illustrations and conditions of occurrences. As affirmative – negative distinction is quite prevalent and explicit in the day –to –day use of language (spoken or written), special emphasis becomes a must in language – learning- teaching process. This becomes quite obligatory in the teaching – learning of a second language or foreign language.

For example, the following examples bring out the affirmative – negative dichotomy in Tamil and English, at a glance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unṭu</td>
<td>X is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:m/a:ma:m</td>
<td>X illai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>periya</td>
<td>X is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitikkum</td>
<td>X is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tamil English

( it ) is X ( it ) is not
yes X no
Big X small
like X don’t like
The affirmative – negative distinction is found both in the morphological structure as well as in the phrase/syntactic structure of Tamil, in addition to the lexical level.

**Lexical level: usages**

**Negative words:** there are two negative words which occur as free forms having allomorphs.

i) **alla** ‘no/not’ and ii) **illa** ‘no/not’

**Occurrences**

1) **alla** ‘no/not’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>alla</th>
<th>‘no/not’</th>
<th>/al –</th>
<th>alla:- ‘no/not’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>atu eñkal</td>
<td>vi:tu</td>
<td>alla:-</td>
<td>alla:mal (unnai alla:mal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avar tami</td>
<td>a:ci</td>
<td>alla:tu (unnai alla:tu)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘he (hon.) is not’</td>
<td>Tamil teacher</td>
<td>alla:vi</td>
<td>ṭa:l (appati alla:vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appati</td>
<td>alla</td>
<td>angi (angi unaiyangi)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) **illa** ‘no/not’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>illa</th>
<th>‘no/not’</th>
<th>illa:-</th>
<th>‘no/not’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>illa</td>
<td>‘no’</td>
<td>illa:-</td>
<td>(allomorphs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avar</td>
<td>u:ril</td>
<td>illa</td>
<td>il</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘he (hon.) is not in town’</td>
<td>illa:vi</td>
<td>ṭa:l</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atu</td>
<td>eñkal</td>
<td>illa:ta</td>
<td>illa:mal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘it is not our home, illai en</td>
<td>ṭa:l ’</td>
<td>‘if not…..’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| illa:tavarkal | illa:mal |

---

**Table:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V antiqua</th>
<th>X vara:mal</th>
<th>having come</th>
<th>X without coming</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pat</td>
<td>ṭ</td>
<td>X pat</td>
<td>ṭ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:lkal</td>
<td>X po:kaːrkal</td>
<td>you go</td>
<td>X you don’t go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:rtta</td>
<td>X pa:rkkaːta</td>
<td>(one) who saw</td>
<td>X (one) who didn’t see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vagta po</td>
<td>ḷuːtu</td>
<td>X vara:ta po</td>
<td>ḷuːtu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The negative base forms behave as verbs, in the sense they take verbal suffixes like participles, gender-number suffixes etc., other than the tense suffixes.

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{alla:tu} / \texttt{alla:mal} ‘without’
\item \texttt{alla:vita:l} ‘if not’
\item \texttt{allan} ‘not (he)’
\item \texttt{illa:mal} ‘without’
\item \texttt{illa:vita:l} ‘if not’
\item \texttt{illa:ta} ‘a person not having…….,
\end{itemize}

The negative verb bases have allomorphs such as \texttt{il-}, \texttt{illai}, \texttt{illal-}, \texttt{illa-}, \texttt{and al-}, \texttt{alla}, \texttt{allat-}, \texttt{alla-}, etc. As \texttt{al-}, and \texttt{il-} are negative bases, there is no need to make them negatives by adding negative suffixes \texttt{-a:t-} and \texttt{-a:-} as done in the case of regular verb bases.

\begin{itemize}
\item \texttt{o:tu} - \texttt{a:-} - mal
\item \texttt{o:tu} – \texttt{a:t - e:}
\item \texttt{o:tu} – \texttt{a:-} - vi\texttt{ita:l}
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Negative suffixes}

\begin{itemize}
\item i) \texttt{-a:-} \\
\item ii) \texttt{-a:t-} \\
\item iii) \texttt{-ma:tt-}
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Conditions of occurrence}

\begin{itemize}
\item i) \texttt{-a:-} occurs before consonants.
\item ce\texttt{y-a:-mal} > ce\texttt{yya:mal} ‘without doing’
\item ii) \texttt{-a:t-} occurs before vowels.
\item na\texttt{ta -kk -a:t-a} > na\texttt{takka:ta} ‘that which did not walk’
\item o\texttt{tu - a:t - e:} > o\texttt{tta:te:} ‘don’t run-you’ (sg.)
\item iii) \texttt{-ma:tt-} occurs before PGN suffixes.
\item vara- \texttt{ma:tt- a:n} > varama:tt\texttt{a:n} ‘he will not come’
\end{itemize}
Use of opposite (antonyms) words

1) Q: ilaṅko: unnutaiya tampiya ? ‘Is Elango your little brother?’
   A: i) a:ma:m ilaṅko: unnutaiya tampi ‘Yes, Elango is my little brother’
      ii) illai ilaṅko: unnutaiya tampi alla
           or
           illai ilaṅko: unnutaiya tampi illai.
           ‘No, Elango is not my little brother’

2) Q: atu marama:? ‘Is it a tree?’
   A: i) a:ma:m atu maram ‘Yes, it is a tree’
      ii) illai atu maram alla / illai ‘No, it is not a tree’
   Here, alla and illai occur in free variation.

3) Q: niṅkal añke: po:vatu uṇṭa: ? ‘Do you (hon.sg.) used to go there?’
   A: i) a:ma:m na:n añke: po:vatu untu ‘Yes, I used to go there’
      ii) illai na:n añke: po:vatu illai ‘No, I do not used to go there’
   In this kind of sentences alla and illai are not in free variation with one another. That is, after the verbal noun form only illai occurs.

4) Q: unnutaiya putinam uṅkalitam irukki ratu:? ‘Do you have my novel book?’
   A: i) a:ma:m uṅkalutaiya putinam enniṭam irukkiṣatu ‘Yes, your novel is with me’
      ii) illai uṅkalutaiya putinam enniṭam illai ‘No, your novel is not with me’
   (irukkiṣatu ‘your novel book’ + illai (FV is deleted)
   In the above illustration (4) also illai doesn’t occur in free variation (as it replaces irukkiṣatu + illai).

Occurrence of negation in noun phrase sentences

S Ṣ NP₁ + NP₂ Ṣ : avar a:ciriyar ‘he is a teacher’
   (Affirmative)
   NP₁ + NP₂ + alla / illai
   (Negative): avar a:ciriyar alla / illai ‘he (hon,) is not a teacher’
Occurrence of negation in verb phrase sentences

\[ S \ \bar{Y} \ NP + VP \]

(Aff.) : na:n tinamum añke: o:tuvatu untu ‘I used to run there every day’
(Neg.) : na:n tinamum añke: o:tuvatu illai ‘I do not used to run there every day’

(Aff.) : uñkalutaiya puttakam araiyil irukki ratu ‘Your book is in the room’
(Neg.) : uñkalutaiya puttakam araiyil illai ‘Your book is not in the room’

Occurrence in Imperative sentences

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Affirmative} & \text{Negative} \\
\hline
\text{ni: o:tu} & \text{ni: o:ta:te} \\
\text{ni:ükja o:ükja} & \text{ni:ükja o:ta:tirka} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Negative Imperative form

\[ = [\text{Verb Base} + \text{Neg. Suf.} \ + \text{Imp. Suf.}] \]

Neg Suf \( \bar{Y} -\alpha:t- \), Imp. Suf. \( \bar{Y} -e \) & \( -i:rkal \)

Affirmative – Negative expressions in impersonal verb sentences

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Affirmative} & \text{Negative} \\
\hline
1. \text{venːtum} & 1. \text{venːtum}:m \text{‘don’t want’} \\
2. \text{teriyum} & 2. \text{teriya:tu} \text{‘don’t know’} \\
3. \text{poːtum} & 3. \text{poːta:tu} \text{‘is not enough’} \\
4. \text{piṭikku} & 4. \text{piṭikka:tu} \text{‘doesn’t like’} \\
5. \text{muːtiyum} & 5. \text{muːtiya:tu} \text{‘cannot’} \\
6. \text{puriyum} & 6. \text{puriya:tu} \text{‘do not understand’} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

There are no person – gender – number endings in the above impersonal forms (which are finite). When these forms occur in the verb predicate, they have dative subjects as follows:

eg. \( \text{venːtum} / \text{venːtum}:m \text{‘want / don’t want’} \)

1. \( \text{enakkup puttakam venːtum} \text{‘I want a book’} \)
2. *enakkup puttakam ve:nta:m* ‘I don’t want a book’

*mu:liyum/ mu:liya:tu* ‘can / cannot’

1. tampiya:l *mu:liyum* ‘little brother can….’
2. tampiya:l *mu:liya:tu* ‘little brother cannot…….’

Affirmative – Negative in participle constructions

a) In verbal participle structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o:ti ‘having run’</td>
<td>o:ta:mal ‘without running’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:ti:tu ‘having read’</td>
<td>pa:ti:kka:mal ‘without reading’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sentences

i) tampi ve:kama:ka o:ti ki:le: vilu:nta:n ‘little brother ran fast and fell down’


iii) avar pa:ji:tu e:lu:ta:n ‘he read (something ) and wrote it’

iv) ira:man pa:ti:kka:mal e:lu:ta:n ‘Raman wrote something without studying’

In conditional participle structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conna:l ‘if (one) says’</td>
<td>colla:vi:ta:l ‘if (one) doesn’t say’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na:ta:ni:ta:l ‘if (one) walks’</td>
<td>na:li:ka:vi:ta:l ‘if (one) doesn’t walk’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sentences

i) tampi conna:l appa: ke:pa:r ‘if little brother says, father will listen’

ii) avar pa:la:vi:ha:l ma:ni pa:tu:va:r ‘if he (hon.) doesn’t sing mani will sing’
In relative participle structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eļutina, eļutukira</td>
<td>eļutata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘one who wrote / one who writes’</td>
<td>‘one (who) didn’t write’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patikkira, patittta</td>
<td>patikka:ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘one who reads/ one who read’</td>
<td>‘one who didn’t read’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sentences

i) appa: conna ve:laiyait tampi ceyta:n  
   ‘little brother did the work that father asked him to do’

ii) aciriyar colla:ta ve:laiyaik kannan ceyta:n  
   ‘kannan did the work that the teacher did not tell (him)’

In temporal participle structures

Temporal participle -1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ca:ppitukira</td>
<td>ca:ppitata + polutu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca:ppitita</td>
<td>‘when one didn’t eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca:ppitum</td>
<td>‘when (someone) ate / eating/ will eat’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sentences

i) na:n ca:ppitita polutu vilakku erintatu  
   ‘the light was on when I was eating’

ii) na:n ca:ppitata polutu eta:vatu kutippen  
   ‘I drink (something) when I am not eating’
Temporal participle -2

There is no negative in this structure.

**Affirmative** ‘as soon as an action takes place’

ca:ppitta + utane:/tum

(only in past tense) > ca:ppitta utane: ~ ca:ppittatum ‘as soon as’

**In sentences**

i) tampi ca:ppitta utane: koñcam tu:ram natappa:n

‘little brother used to walk for sometime as soon as he finished his eating’

ii) avar tinamum ca:ppittatum tu:ña po:va:r

‘he (hon.) used to go to bed as soon as he finishes eating’

**Affirmative – Negative expressions in complex verb forms**

**Structure:** MV + Aux. verb

a) **Past Negative**

Aux. verb ‘! illai

e.g.

aval nanga:kap pa:ja:villai ‘she did not sing well’

aŋta naṭikai egappa:ka naṭikka villai ‘that actress did not act well’

b) **Future Negative**

Aux. verb ‘! -ma:tt - + PNG suf.

e.g.

i) avar ve:kama:ka or:ama:ttar ‘he (hon.) will not run fast’

ii) na/n ańke: po:ka ma:tt:en ‘I will not go there’

iii) avar kal na:laikkup pallikkku varama:ttar:ra ‘they will not come to the school tomorrow’

c) **Prohibitive**

Aux. verb ‘! ku:ţa:tu ‘should not’

eg.

i) maːni inimeːl ińke: varaku:ţa:tu

‘Mani should not come here, hereafter’

ii) avar aŋta ve:laiaic ceyyakkutu:ta:tu

‘he (hon.) should not do that work’
d) Prohibitive

Aux. verb ’! ve:nta:m ’need not’
i) tampi añke: po:ka ve:nta:m ’little brother need not go there’
ii) ni: ataic ca:ppi:ta ve:nta:m ’you (sg.) need not eat that (food)’

Affirmative vs. Negative Expressions with participial noun and verbal noun

a) Participial noun constructions
Relative participle form + PNG suffixes
eg.
paṭiṭṭa + PNG suf. (in affirmative)
paṭiṭṭika:ta + PNG suf. (in negative)

In sentences
i) aṭa apaiyil paṭiṭṭikavavān ennuiyiya tampita:n ’one who is reading in that room is my little brother’
ii) igla ongut:na vavar paṭiṭṭika:tatu ’this is the only one that he (hon.) did not read’

b) Verbal noun constructions

VB + Ten. suf. + Neg. suf. + atu (non-hum.sg.suf.)

eg.
vara:tatu ‘the act of not coming’
paṭṭtatu ‘the act of reading’

Illustrations (in sentences)

i) ni: ne:ru iñke: vara:tatu enakkut teriyum ‘I know about your absence yesterday’ (not coming here)
ii) aval paṭa:tatu nallatu ‘it was a good thing that she did not sing’
iii) ni:ñkal viruptu ca:ppiṭṭatai na:n pa:rtte:n ‘I saw you eating dinner’ (act of eating)
Use of Interrogative word + particle –um constructions

Inter. word + um

It gives both affirmative and negative meanings, depending upon the structure

Structure:

\[ \text{eñke:} \]
\[ \text{etu} \]
\[ \text{eppo}+\text{lutu} \]
\[ + \text{um} \]
\[ \text{ya:}r \]
\[ \text{………} \]

Use \[ \text{eñke:yum} \]
\[ \text{etuvum} \]
\[ \text{Affirmative or Negative} \]
\[ \text{eppo}+\text{lutum} \]
\[ \text{ya:rum} \]

Illustrations

i) intap puttakam \text{eñke:yum kitaikkum}  
   ‘this book is available (one can get) everywhere’

ii) intap puttakam \text{eñke:yum kitaikka:tu}  
   ‘this book is available nowhere /not available everywhere’

iii) ingiya vija:vukku \text{ya:rum (ello:rum) varuva:rkal}  
   ‘everyone will come for today’s function’

iv) ingiya vija:vukku \text{ya:rum varama:ttar:rkal}  
   ‘no one /none will come for today’s function’

\[ \text{everywhere} \quad (\text{in affi.}) \]
\[ \text{nowhere} \quad (\text{in neg.}) \]

\[ \text{eñke:yum} \]
\[ \text{everyone} \]
\[ \text{none} \]
\[ \text{ya:rum} \]
\[ \text{(same)} \]
So, in modern Tamil negative structures are lexical – morphological and syntactical. The occurrences are conditioned and quite systematic. There are a few exceptions as well.

**Future Finite verb (Aff.)**

Use of – ma:t- + PNG suf. (in negative)

- o:tama:tte:n ‘I will not run’
- po:kama:ta:rkal ‘they (hum.) will not go’

But, when non–human endings follow:
- atu o:tu > atu o:ta:tu ‘it will not run’
- avai o:tu > avai o:ta:tu / o:ta:ta:ta:va: ‘they (n.hum.) will not run’
Descriptive Strategies in Tamil Grammars
(Tolka:ppiyam, Vi:raco:liyam and Ne:minata:m)

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1. Introduction

Among the three grammars chosen for this seminar, Tolka:ppiyam (shortly as Tol.), the earliest extant grammar in Tamil belongs to Old Tamil period but its metric dating is controversial, ranging from 3rd cent. B.C to 2nd cent. A.D. and the other two grammars, Vi:raco:liyam (shortly as Vira.) and Ne:mina:tam (shortly Nemi.), to the Middle Tamil period more specifically, 11th century 12th cent. A.D. respectively. The authors of Tol. and Nemi. are considered to be Jains and the author of Vira. to be a Buddhist.

Tol. and Nemi. are considered to follow to Tamil tradition while Vira., to Sanskrit tradition. This is revealed even in names of the chapters: Vira calls punarcc, as sandhi (1st chap.), noun derivatives as tattitam (4th chap.) vīgai as kiriyai:(patam) Moreover, the cases in Vira, are described in terms of Sanskrit tradition,

Tol. is more comprehensive not only covering many domains of language use like poetry, music and colloquial but also explaining the structure in detail while Vira. and Nemi. are shorter explaining salient features only. Tol. contains 483 +463 sutras while Vira., 28 +55 and Nemi., 24 + 71 for elutta and col respectively.

2. Number of Systems

Language is considered to have only two sub-systems called elutta and col in all the Tamil grammars. Tol. divides into nine chapters each and so equal importance for phonology and grammar. But Vira. and Nemi. deal elutta in one chapter and col with six and nine chapters respectively. This shows that the phonology is not as important as the grammar or the latter is more complex and so col alone should be treated elaborately.
3. Number of Sub Systems

3.1 eluttu

i. Even though Tol. has nine chapters, three major sub-divisions of eluttu can be recognized: i. phonology (inventory of phonemes, their distribution, syllable in first two chapters), ii. phonetics (one chapter-third) and iii. sandhi (6 chapters - last six).

ii. Vira. has named the chapter of eluttu as sandhi (cantip paTalam) and this shows the importance given to sandhi. Even, theoretically, the contrast in the sandhi behavior is considered more important to decide the phonemic status of a phone, i.e. to consider some unit phoneme as cluster of phonemes or an allophone or as a separate phoneme. It is to be noted that the generative grammarians call the phoneme by the term of morphophoneme because they give importance to the contrast in the sandhi behavior.

iii. Nemi. has no separate title for eluttatikaram while collatikaram has sub titles.

3.2. COL

Eventhough Tol. Col has nine chapters, one can classify the first three chapters as syntax, next five chapters, as morphology and the last chapter called, remnants (Eccaviyal) which includes morphology and syntax. The first chapter (kilaviyakam) includes some aspect of discourse analysis such as the agreements between subject and predicate, question and answer sentences, and also the description of doubtful things and inter-sentence relations. The second (ve:rrumaiyiyal) and third chapter (ve:rrumai mayarjkiyal) deal with the first seven cases from syntactic point of view and reveal his awareness of the basic concept of deep and surface structures. The fourth chapter (viliMarpaau) is vocative case and this is purely morphologically point of view. The next four chapters are four parts of speech in Tamil, noun (peyar), verb (vina), suffixes and particles (iTai) and attributives (uri). The eighth chapter called uriyiyal also contains meaning of some 120 words which are considered to be rare. And so it is forerunner to the lexicography. Some sutras in that...
chapter deal with the concept of descriptive semantics also.

ii Vira. has six chapters out of the first three chapters deal with syntax and last three chapters, with morphology.

iii. Nemi. has same number (9) and same division of chapters as that of Tol. but the names of the chapters are slightly different, but his treatment is very brief.

4. Nature of Data

The structural differences among these grammars are due to the historicity in some cases. Between two middle Tamil grammars, Vira. has given more historical information giving importance to the language of his time than Nemi.

Tol. is more elaborate and classify the two varieties, valakku, spoken variety and and ceyyul, written variety. In many surras the special features of these two are noted. It has recognized four varieties, standard dialect (iyacol), regional dialects (ticacol) technical terms (tiricol) and loan words (vaTacol literally northern words) theoretically and some more varieties like social dialects, poetical dialect, music language and meta language without generalization.

Due to the awareness of varieties, the optional sandhi rules are noted in many places. In one instance, four different variations (te:n ~ te:r ~ tc:k ~ ten ‘honey’ (Ss. 340-4) are noted. This involves two major isoglosses, m-¢ (phonological variations) and Ø-P (sandhi variation, no-doubling and doubling of the following plosive)

Vira. has noted some contrastive aspects of Tamil and Sanskrit and not noted varieties within the language.

Nemi. has also not noted any varieties but noted some historical changes, i.e. sound change and shape changes (s. 36) for the first time.

5. Descriptive Strategies

5.1. eluttu

Tol. has first classified the Tamil sounds into eluttanap paTupa
the *eluttu* and *elutt-ranna* which are dependent (*ca:rntu varum marapu* (Ss. 1&2) but grouped them simply as *eluttu* in the first sutra on sandhi chapter which also implies the concept of morphophoneme. Moreover Tol. treatment of sandhi in six chapters also reveals the importance given to sandhi.

Tol’s grouping of some dependent sounds like shorter / and *u* and *ayarn* as the similar to *eluttu* (*eluttoiranna*) or dependent sound (*cairntu varum marpi*) under *eluttu* in the first sutra of the chapter on sandhi imply that the phonemes are to be identified not on the basis of distribution but on the difference in the sandhi behavior. The omission of some of dependent sounds like shorter *ai*, elongated vowels (*uyiraLapeTai*) and shortened *m* in the inventory of *eluttu* confirms the concept of morphophoneme since these are conditioned variants.

Tol. has noted the distributions of *eluttu* in terms of initial and final and medial in terms of clusters of consonants. Even he has noted the frequency some forms. Tol. is typically a structural grammar in the modern sense.

The third chapter is mainly articulatory phonetics explaining the distinctive features only.

Sandhi: Tol. has grouped sandhi rules applicable to more than one *eluttu* in a separate chapter called *Tokaimarpu* and other rules under the chapters named on the basis of the final sounds like vowel, consonant and shorter *u*. Even dealing with the individual changes, the conditioning factor includes the morphological, syntactical, semantics and semantic fields, like tree name or names of taste. That is the mixing of levels is found in the descriptions of sandhi chapters of Tol.

There is one chapter exclusively devoted to the *ca:riyai* ‘empty morphs’ and their distribution. It is clear that *ca:riyai* for Tolkappiyar is only an empty morph. Tol. has in some cases followed the concept of rule order in the sandhi but it is not found in other two grammars. Some irregular forms are explained by positing empty morphs (S. 347) so that the regularity of sandhi rules is preserved. For instance
the proper names ending in -n undergoes regressive assimilation. 
\textit{cattan + korran} ‘korran, son of Cattan’ \textit{\rightarrow cattan korran.}
Since -n, will undergo either no change or \textit{r}, and not \textit{Tol.} posited the empty morph -\textit{am} to explain the irregularity (S. 350).

The concept of abstract base forms for sandhi and the concept of \textit{cattan} which is empty morph in modern terminology found in Tol. are theoretically more advanced and they are not found in other two grammars. The base forms of sandhi in Tol. follow the structure of the language. Interestingly, the form -\textit{kku} is identified as the alternant forms of one morpheme (-\textit{ku}, the dative case) and two empty morphs as -\textit{akku} and -\textit{ikku}. In some cases the economy of rules is forsaken to maintain the structural pattern of the language.

**Formation of sandhi rules**

\textit{Tol.} has even explained the suppletive forms like \textit{onpatu toN(Nu:ru)} (s. 445) \textit{toL(La:yiram)} (S. 463) ‘nine’ as phonological changes. Nemi. has followed the same method but in slightly different manner (S. 21) but \textit{Vira.} has simply listed as alternant forms (S. 23) in the sandhi chapter. Even the irregular alternants of the other numerals are described as phonological alternants by \textit{Tol.} That means that Tol. has not distinguished between the phonological conditioned allomorphs and other alternants in sandhi chapters, i.e. under phonology.

The irregular alternants of personal pronouns (\textit{ya:n en ‘I’; ni:n ‘you(sg)’; ni:yir num ‘you(pl)’}) are described in the phonology section as phonological changes in Tol. but \textit{Vira.} has noted them as alternants in the grammar section (S. 37). This means not only the distinction between phonologically conditioned allomorphs and morphological conditioned allomorphs but also their place of description, the former in the sandhi section and the latter in the morphological section.

ii. \textit{Vira.} Even though \textit{Vira.} calls the chapter by the term, sandhi, it describes the inventory of phonemes and classifications of them in the first 5 sutras, phonetics in one sutra (6) and distribution of phonemes in 2 sutras (7 & 8) and sandhi in 20 sutras (9 to 28). But
he has simply listed the inventory of vowel and consonants and 
\textit{aLapetai} and shorter \textit{u} and not even grouped them as \textit{mutal} ‘primary’
and \textit{ca:rp}u ‘secondary’.

iii. Nemi, has not given a separate name but discussed phonology
in 24 sutras. The first sutra describes the inventory which is 31, i.e.
12 vowels, 18 consonants and one \textit{a:ytam} and grouped as \textit{mutal
vaippu} ‘primary class’ which could be considered as phonemes in
the modern terminology, the next sutra (2), the sub-classification of
vowels and consonants; the third and fourth sutras, so called
dependent sounds without giving any common name but the
commentator has called \textit{iraNTa:m vaippu} ‘second class’; the fifth
sutra, the quantity i.e. \textit{ma:tra}; the sixth sutra, the phonetics;
the sutras 7 to 9, the distribution of \textit{eluttu}; the sutras 10& 11 tamiilsation
of Sanskrit sounds and the sutras 12 to 24, the sandhi changes.

5.2. COL
i. To! has defined the word and the classification of words only
in the fourth chapter on Noun (Ss.640 - 44) and so the importance given
to the syntax could be understood. The first chapter called
\textit{kiLaviyaikkam} ‘the formation of utterances’ deals with the subject
-predicate concord in term of gender- number, the concord between
question - answer sentences , the type of finite verbs to be used in
the case of natural and artificial qualities of things, selectional
restriction of the pronoun forms with regard to the verbs of give and
go etc. The second and the third chapter deal with the cases and
their syntactic behaviors. The concept of surface and deep structures
are implied in many instances. For instance, the third case which is
mainly instrumental meaning is said to occur mainly two meanings,
agent (\textit{vigai mutal}) and instrumental (S. 557) . The popular example
given by the commentators is \textit{akattiyagan tamil urakkatippaTtata’
Tamil is said by Agastya. Here the word \textit{akattiyag} ‘Agastya’ occurs
with the instrumental case and it is identified as the agent because of
its deep structure relation, \textit{akattiyag tamil urittag} ‘Agastya said
Tamil’. Many of the casal frames involve complex surface structures.
For example, one of the frames of the fourth case is \textit{atuva:ku kiLavi’
one becoming another’}. The traditional example \textit{lu:likkup pog} ‘gold
for ta:li ‘an instrument worn by the ladies as a symbol of marriage’. It means ta:li ceyvata:ku pong ‘gold to make ta:li; Even though the deletion of verbal noun ceyvatu ‘doing’ is sufficient to derive the phrase, it is more complex in terms of deep structure.

In the case of noun morphology Tol. has noted the casal morphemes, the empty morhs and not gender- number suffixes because it is a selectice category, which is noted by Tol. as uriyavai uriya peyarvayi:ne: (646). Tol. has classified the nouns into human class, non- human class and common class (a:yiru tiNaikkum o:ranu urima:ya ‘having same privilege. The latter is called by the term common class’ viravut tiNai’ and this classification is extended to the verbs also. This is to avoid the repetition the listing the words under two classes, uyartiNai ‘human class’ and akriNai ‘non-human class’. This is one of linguistic strategies adopted by Tol. and followed by later grammars like Ne:mi, Nannu:! and not by Vira.

In the case of verb, Tol. has not segmented tense suffixes even though verbs are defined as those which take tense markers (S.683). From the morphological point of view, the recognition of three tenses is questionable during his period, Old Tamil period because there were two tenses called past and non-past.

ii. Vira. The first chapter is ve:rumaip paTalam ‘chapter on case’ and it describes the cases in term of the Skt. ka:raka theory, i.e. in term of semantic relations. So the cases are named on the basis of ka:raka relation, like the first case as karutta: ‘agent’ the second case as karumam ‘object’, the third case as ka:ranam ‘instrument’ (S. 29). Since there is no case for the first case, the gender- number markers which are eight according to him: (i. masculine (mas) singular (sg),ii. mas. honorific (hon) sg., iii. feminine (fern) sg., iv. fern. hon.. Sg. v. human plural (pi), vi. neuter (neu.) sg., vii. neu. pi. and viii. neu. hon sg) are considered marker for it.(S. 33) That is, it lists these grammatical categories first and then the markers for them. Even though there is no variation according to the gender- number of the nouns except in the case of locative, Vira. has noted that 64 case suffixes multiplying number of gender- number (8) and the number
of cases (8, 8X 8). (S. 31) Definitely this reveals the influence of Skt. grammar.

The compounds (tokai in Tamil) are discussed in the third chapter (tokaip paTalam) where Skt. and Tamil compounds are noted separately. The gender suffixes of the nouns and their semantic derivations are discussed under the tattitap paTalam. Since it follows the Skt. method, the Tamilisation rules of Skt sounds are included in this chapter in three sutras (S. 57-9). Since Tol. has said that the special letters of Sanskrit should be omitted in Tamil, the detailed conversion rules are VC’s contribution to Tamil linguistics. exhaustive The fifth chapter (ta:tp paTalam), where ta:tu ‘root’ mainly describes verb, the nature of verbal root and list of verbal suffixes. In the chapter on verb, the tense and gender number suffixes are included as one unit and classified on the basis of pronouns. This chapter reflects clearly the direct influence of Skt.

The major lacuna in this grammar is the absence of the treatment of iTaiticogkal ‘suffixes and particles’ and uricogkal ‘intensifies and other attributives’. So it cannot be called complete grammar but at the same the concept of contrastive grammar (Tamil and Sanskrit) is introduced here.

iv. Nemi: The introductory stanza of the second section of Nemi describes the work as a boat useful to cross the ocean called Tolkappiyam and this is shorter version of Tol. As noted above, it has the same number of chapters and the order of the chapters are same but the names are slightly different. But it has omitted many important aspects of a language like variations, the varieties. Only it is simplified version.

6. Conclusion

Tol and Nemi follow similar strategies while Vira. follows different strategies. The study of strategies are important to understand the intellectual achievement of the ancient society and history of Tamil linguistics.
Bibliography


Relativizer as BE Verb in Tamil

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1. There are two types of relative clause constructions in Tamil associated with tensed explicit and tense implied noun modifying participles. Such constructions as mātaviy-ay-p pirint-a kōvalan ‘Kovalan who parted with Madhavi’, and vāq-il pārrak-um pārava ‘the bird that flies in the sky’ are tense explicit relative clause constructions. The constructions such as qrr-ay-t tīnkal (Pūram.112.1) ‘the month (that was) then’, qrr-ay-t tīnkal (Pūram.112.3) ‘the month (that is) now’, qrr-ay-a ceṭṭi ‘the news of this day’, aḷak-iy-a peṭ ‘beautiful girl’ peṭ-iy-a malay ‘big mountain’, aṟ-um ceṭṭal ‘difficult task’, nall-ā pōyiy ‘good boy’ etc., are identifiable as tense implied relative clause constructions. The relative clause constructions of both types under reference are semantically interpretable as follows.

A. Tense Explicit Relative Clause

1 (a) mātaviy-ay-p pirint-a kōvalan
    (b) mātaviy-ay-p pirint-aṭti vākiya kōvalan
        ‘Kovalan who parted with Madhavi’.

2 (a) vāq-il pārrak-um pārava
    (b) vāq-il pāraṭṭi-ṭṭi vākiya pārava
        ‘the bird that flies in the sky’.

B. Tense Implied Relative Clause

3 (a) qrr-ay-t tīnkal
    (b) aṟu ḍṛnt-a tīnkal
    (c) aṟu ḍṛnt-ṭṭi vākiya tīnkal
        ‘the month (that was) then’.

4 (a) uṟ-ay-t tīnkal
    (b) iṟu ṛnt-a tīnkal
    (c) iṟu ṛnt-ṭṭi vākiya tīnkal
‘the month (that is) now’.

5 (a) ĭgr-ay-a ceyti
(b) ĭgru u]-a ceyti
(c) ĭgru u]-at-ākiya ceyti
‘the news that is of this day’.

6 (a) aḷak-iya pen
(b) aḷak-ul]-a pen
(c) aḷaku u]-aval ākiya pen
‘the girl who is beautiful’.

7 (a) per-iy-a malay
(b) perit-ākiya malay
(c) perit-āka u]-a malay
(d) perit-aka u]-at-ākiya malay
‘the mountain that is big’.

8 (a) nall-a nutal
(b) nāgr-ākiya nutal
(c) nāgr-āka u]-a nutal
(d) nāgr-aka u]-at-ākiya nutal
‘the forehead that is good’.

9 (a) ar-um ceyal
(b) ar-it-ākiya ceyal
(c) ar-it-āka- u]-a ceyal
(d) ar-it-āka- u]-at-ākiya ceyal
‘the task that is difficult’.

2. It is to be noted that the members of the constructions figuring in (1)-(9) are not only semantically identical, but structurally related as well. Significantly the relativizers i.e., relative participle suffixes -a and -um occurring in (a) versions are in complementary distribution with the noun modifying participle ākiya marked with Be meaning. This ensures that the relativizers are basically and also semantically suffixal Be verbs. As for the noun modifying participles of ceyum
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3. As a rule the gender of the head noun that follows the noun modifying participle (a) versions in the foregoing examples decides the gender of the finite system that occurs before the noun modifying participle akiya. Consequently, the relative clause constructions vel-ay enity-a murukaq ‘Murugan who wielded the spear’, and murukaq enity-a vel ‘the spear which Murugan wielded’ will be semantically interpreted as vel-ay enity-avay akiya murukaq, and murukaq enity-atu akiya vel respectively. Notice the past verbal construction enity occurring before -a is in complementation with enity-avay and enity-atu occurring before akiya. This is a valuable evidence to maintain that the past verbal bases occurring before the relativizer -a are historically and also synchronically identifiable as impersonal finite verbs. This is further confirmed by the fact that the past verbal bases occurring in the verbal phrases of ceyt-ega and ceyt-änku/pättiy-änku types attested in early Tamil are in complementary distribution with the personal Finite System +äku and the impersonal finite system that occurs in ceytat-äd and ceytatu/pättiyatu-pöl types. E.g. kō-makal cignat-ega (Nag.300.1)cignant-äd äku/cignat-äd ‘since the queen/princess was in angry’, tofut-änku (Nag.300.2)tofutat-är+–pöl/tofutatu pöl ‘similar to worshipping (past)’, nachiy-änku (Karu.60.4)nachiy-är+–pöl/nachiyatu pöl ‘similar to likening’. Also consider the example ni pällyt-ää pöl (Paga.43.17) ‘as if you(sg) erred’ where the personal finite verb pällyt-ää is in complementary distribution with the impersonal finite verb pällyt-äd and pällytatu occurring in pällyt-är+–pöl and pällytattu pöl. We have now reason to hypothesize that not only ceytatu and ceytä types but ceytu/pää types
are impersonal finite verbs functioning in restricted syntactic contexts in early Tamil. This provides the clinching evidence to hold that the past verbal bases of ceytu and pāṭi types occurring before the relativizer -a are past impersonal finite verbs.

4. In Tamil, the relativizer -a has -am as a variant as evidenced in the constructions of ceyt-ak+kāl/ceyt-ak+kātay ‘when one did’ and pāṭi-ak+kāl/pāṭi-ak+kātay ‘when one sang’ types. The labial nasal of the relativizer -am assimilates to velar plosive in the construction types under reference. As for the relativizer -a, it is traceable to *ay(-ai). In early Tamil, we come across such constructions as mallar kāyyat-ay kār-vāl (Pāram,144,14,15) ‘the sharp swords which are in the hands of Mallar (i.e. warriors)’ and (murūkām amarntat-ay . . . tan-panāṇkugram ‘the cool Parankunram is the place where Murugan has stationed’ (Pāri,21,12) which are semantically and syntactically related to the constructions mallar kāyy-il ułḷaṭ-āṭṭa kār-vāl and murūkām amarntat-āṭatu tan-panāṇkugram. This relationship between the constructions under reference testifies that ay (=ai) occurring in the constructions kāyyat-ay and amarntat-ay is identifiable as a Be verb. This is due to the fact that ay has the variants āṭṭa and āṭatu which are the constructions conjugated from the Be verb. It is concluded that the relativizers -a and -um are semantically Be verbs in character.

5. There are such tense implied noun modifying participles as paḷaya (viṭu) ‘old house’, ilāya (talāyumrap) ‘younger generation’, paḷam (pāy) ‘old mate’, ilam (pēn) ‘young girl’, kāṛi(-kal) ‘sharp stone’, and īra(-katir) (Akkam,130,9) ‘cool brightness’. Descriptively, the participles under reference can be analyzed into paḷay-a, ilāy-a, paḷ-am, il-am, kāṛ-m and īr-m. As for the last two participles, the nasal -m will be identified as a relativizer. In early Tamil we come across such tense implied relative clause constructions as cem-palām ‘red earth’/cev-vāḷay ‘red banana’, vem-paral ‘hot small stones’/vev-varay ‘hot mountain’ and am-ciray ‘beautiful wing’/vam-vāḷay ‘beautiful bangle’. The noun modifying participles cem/cev, vem/vev, and am/av are analyzable into *cey-m*/cey-v, *vey-m*/vey-v, and *ay-m*/ny-v occurring in the foregoing illustrations suffer deletion of
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6. Notice, ay is a short version of āy attested in āy-mayil (Kurajal, 1081) ‘beautiful peacock’. The noun modifying participle kaṇam noticed in the NP construction kaṇam-kaṭay (Kurajal, 1081) ‘heavy eat-ring’ is analyzable into kaṇay-m. There are certain other tense implied relative clause constructions such as on-uctive ‘bright flame’, ven-kuṭay ‘white umbrella’, ten-kaṭal ‘clear ocean’ etc. The noun modifying participles on, ven, and ten occurring in these constructions are traceable to ol-m, ve mắt-m and tel-m which before assuming surface representation develop into *om, *venm, and *tem respectively. In all these cases, –m is an instance of relativizer traceable to *Vm where V is a short vowel referring to u or a preferably the former in most cases.

7. The relativizer -am noticed in paṭ-am and il-am is traceable to *ay-m where ay is an instance of Be verb. In regard to paṭaya ‘old’ and ilaya ‘young’, they are historically analyzable into *paṭya+ay-a and *il+ay-a where ay again is a Be verb. This implies that ay-a itself is a case of noun modifier with the Be verb ay as its base. Notice the Be verbs ay and ai cannot be conjugated for tense. As a result, the conjugated versions of these verbs are tense implied in character. Now we have reason to analyze paṭaya into paṭ+

ay-a ‘ancient’, and ilayal into il+

ay-al ‘the lady of early stage’. This provides the basis to analyze nēṭaya ‘of yesterday’, ikaya ‘of today’ and naṭaya ‘of tomorrow’ into neṭ+

ay-a, ik+

ay-a and naṭ+

ay-a. This analysis leads to identify nāl as variant of nāl ‘tomorrow’. Neminatham, an 18th/19th century grammar observes (Sutra, 43) that the suffix -a in the constructions under reference is identifiable as possessive case marker. However, this suffix is to be treated as relativizer. The Be verb ay has the reflexes īy, i and a as evidenced in iq+iy-a (pāl) ‘the milk that is/was sweet’. The tense implied personal finite constructions ilaya, iyayar, ilaya etc., and iqiyag, iyayal, iqiyar, iyaya etc., with the Be verb ay and its reflexes will be historically analyzed.
into *il+ay-ag* (masc), *il+ay-ar* (hum.pl), *il+ay-a* (nh.pl), *ig+iy-ag* (masc), *ig+iy-al* (fem), *ig+iy-ar* (hum.pl), *ig+i-tu* (nh.sg), and *ig+i-y-a* (nh.pl).

8. As for *nall-a payyap* ‘good boy’ (lit. ‘the boy who is/ was good’), and *tly-a palaikkam* ‘bad habit’ (lit. ‘the habit that is/ was bad’), the suffix -a as already stated is a reflex of the Be verb *ay*. The personal markers in such constructions as *nall-ag* ‘good person’ (masc), *nall-al* ‘good person’ (fem), *nall-ar* ‘good persons’ etc., and *tly+ag* (masc), *tly+al* (fem), *tly+ar* (hum.pl), *t+tu* (nh.sg) will be identified as variants of personal Be verb of suffixal type.

9. Synchronically, *palqa* ‘old’ and *igjya* ‘sweet’, for instance, will be analyzed as *pajay-a* and *igjy-a*, and *not as paly-ay-a and igjy-y-a*. This is due to the fact that language moves from analytic to synthetic stage. This can be noticed in such expressions as *illay* (< *il-ay*) ‘not’, and *egga* (< *eg-ya*) ‘what’. Consequently, what was a Be verb originally loses its semantic significance and becomes an integral part of the preceding morpheme.

10. The long version of the Be verb *ay* is *ay* which is profusely attested as a copula verb in Parji, one of the Central Dravidian Languages. Consider the following examples from Burrow and Bhattacharya (1953):

10 (a) *ân vilen ãy* (pp.32) ‘I am white’
(b) *t puval vilove ãy* (pp.32) ‘these flowers are white’
(c) *t cir erot ãy* (pp.41) ‘whose is this buffalo’
(d) *ân êren ãy* (pp.41) ‘who am I’
(e) *in pidir nátot ãy* (pp.42) ‘what is your name’
(f) *ûr nätter ãy* (pp.42) ‘who are these people’

Notice the verb *ây* in Parji occurs after predicate constituents, a fact which provides the basis to identify this verb as an instance of Be verb functioning as copula.
Abbreviation
Akam - Akanāṅgu
Kuṟaḷ - Tiṟukkuṟaḷ
Kuru - Kuṟuntokai
Naṟṟaḷ - Naṟṟinaḷ
Pari - Pariṉṭal
Puṟaḷ - Puṟanāṅguṟu

Reference
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Pragmatic Insights in *Tolkappiam*
With specific reference to the chapter *Eccaviyal*

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The chapter ‘Eccaviyal’ in the ancient Tamil grammatical treatise ‘Tholkappiam’ is perceived to be problematic due to the apparent heterogeneity and incompatibility of the information portrayed there and hence it is considered as a summary of the grammatical points other than those presented in the constituent chapters of ‘Colliyal’ of ‘Tholkappiam’ (SV Subramaniam) and as a controversial chapter susceptible to be interpreted as dealing with grammar of discourse (SV Shanmugam)

The varieties of linguistic information presented in ‘Eccaviyal’ are the following: 4 word types for poetry (880-84), 6 phonological modification of words (885-6) 4 kinds of processes for meaning assignment (887-92), non- segmentable words (893), repetitive words (894), 6 kinds of clipped or contracted forms (895-901), 4 kinds of positions of nuclear word in clipped forms (902-4), grammatical deviations (905), 3 kinds of purpose for word repetition (906-8), alternate use of words (909), 12 kinds of finite verb forms (910-12), 13 kinds of participle (913-24), euphemism (925-26), status marked words like ‘ii, taa, koTu’ (927-31), words violating grammatical conventions (932), other types of words such as imperatives, implicatives, synonym compounds and selection restriction violations (33-45).

Description of forms like contracted forms, finite verb forms, non finite verb forms or participles etc. appear in the other chapters falling under colliyal. The points like varieties of language, contractions, non-finite forms, arrangement of words, meaning interpretation, syntax or formation of construction etc. do not appear to be in co-related or compatible form. Keeping these in view, one may naturally raise a question as to why the author of Tholkappiam duplicated the information presented elsewhere or dubbed incompatible information within the chapter *Eccaviyal*?
Keeping in mind the matchless intellectual supremacy of Tholkappiar, the author of Tholkappiam, and the undisputable nature of Tholkappiam as a resource potential for alternate interpretations as evidenced by the voluminous commentaries provided by different commentators, I inclined to think that in Eccaviyal of Tholkappiam, the author shifts his focus of attention from the description of the language or grammar to the description of the speakers’ use of the language or pragmatics.

Language exists in static and dynamic forms, and these forms are perceived as langue and parole by Saussure, or as competence and performance forms by Chomsky or as latent and manifested forms by Psychologists. The latent form is considered as a homogeneous, mental form made up of signs and the description of it is known as grammar. In particular this form is explained with due generalisation, taking into account the signs and sign combinations, their form, meaning and function. The manifested form is a heterogeneous and physical form used by the speakers of the language. While speakers use language, they use the linguistic signs as such or with due modification in their form, meaning and function or create new ones according to the communicative demands of the context of communication, oral or written. The way in which the signs are used as such or with modification or with due creation according to the communicative context is explained under Pragmatics in modern language description.

When speakers use language in communicative situation, they use signs and the forms of signs as utterances according to their interest and the demands of the context. They use deictic categories to represent the components of the communicative context viz. participants like speaker, hearer, others, the social roles of participants, location and time. To the utterances they provide referential, intentional, presuppositional, implicational meanings. In addition they organize the transaction and interaction of their speech and writing.

Assuming that focus is on the user of the language in communicative situation and the concomitant changes in the linguistic signs and their meanings brought about by the speakers in the event of language use, the points discussed in the chapter Eccaviyal of
Tholkappiam appear to be homogeneous and compatible. This is substantiated by the last sutra of eccaviyal and the placement of eccaviyal at the end of colliyal ‘chapter on grammar’ and before the beginning of poruliyal ‘chapter on substance’.

Since the last sutra (947) of eccaviyal implicates that grammar should take into consideration both spoken or common man’s language and the language of composition or of the elite, in particular, poetry, we can presume that Tholkappiar, keeping in mind language use in general and the speakers’ act of using language both in speech and writing in particular, assigns eccaviyal to focus on the speakers, to the ways in which speakers manipulate language during the process of communication and to the linguistic elements which result due to such manipulation.

The placement of eccaviyal at the end of colliyal and before poruliyal also justifies associating eccaviyal points to pragmatics. In colliyal, rules pertaining to the grammar are exposed. In poruliyal Social life, Psych of people etc. which form the substance of literary composition and the compositional techniques along with conventions are depicted. This is the chapter where linguistic action per se is exposed. Thus eccaviyal stays as a bridge depicting the role of speaker uniting language (grammar) with action (composition).

A review of the apparent chaotic points presented in eccaviyal will appear to be cosmic, in the light of pragmatics, that is giving due focus on the speaker and his language manipulation. Composing poetic or prosaic forms either in oral or written mode is a process that involves presentation of varieties of linguistic material. That means, the process of composition involves selection of available alternant forms and meanings, creation of new alternant forms using phonological, grammatical and semantic processes and sequencing alternant forms making use of alternate ways of sequencing.

Eccaviyal portrays different alternant forms a speaker may select, the phonological, grammatical and semantic processes he or she uses to create alternant forms, the alternate ways of sequencing linguistic forms in order to emphasize the chosen meaning and content to be communicated in accordance with
the context even if such alternant forms and creative processes
do not conform to the established standards of grammar.

Speakers may make use of alternant forms of 4 types of words
such as iyarcol ‘indigenous words’ (nilam ~ vayal), tiricol ‘words
with alternate meanings’ (unti= koppuul, teerttaTTu) and alternate
words with the same meaning’ (malai= kunRu, varai, viNTu),
ticaiccol ‘regional words’ (ttaay ~ taLLai) and vadacol ‘northern
words’ (nilam ~ buumi) with or without due manipulation making
use of phonological processes like transcription (iruTi ~ rishi),
plosivization (muntai ~ muttai), nasalization KuRRiyalukaram ~
kuNRiyalukaram), expansion (taN ~ taNNam), contraction
(mazavarai ~ mazavar), lengthening (pacclai ~ pacclai) and
shortening (tiyen ~ tiyen) during the composition of speech or
writing in appropriate context (880-86)

Speakers make use of 4 alternate sequencing processes like
niralniRai ‘linking’, cuNNam, ‘agglutination’, aTIMaRimaaRRu
‘permutation’, and mozimaaRRu ‘apposition’ in order to create
alternant forms to meet demand of expressing the intended speaker
meaning (887-92)

They make use of 3 kinds of alternant forms such as non-
segmentable forms(taman), repetitive forms ‘atukkai’ (tii tii) and
clipped forms ‘tokai’ (kati naay) of which the repetitive forms may
be used for 3 reasons namely satisfying musicality icainiRai, (ee
ee) maintaining communicative flow(enne-enna) acainilai or for
denoting meaning poraLoTu puNartal (varuka-varuka). The clipped
or contracted forms or tokai remain in 6 alternate forms obtained
from normal forms by way of clipping the case (mara veeli), tense
(cuTu niir), adjective (een taamarai), comparison (pavaLa vaay)
and conjunction (kapila paraNar) markers and referents (poRRoTi)
respectively (893-904).

They use, contrary to the established grammatical conventions
certain sign sequences violating selection restrictions by saying non
moving things as moving (uur vantatu) and non speaking thinks as
speaking (mazai mazai enkiRatu payir) (905)(946)

They may make use of 12 varieties of finite forms or muRRu and
13 varieties of non finite forms eccam of which 10 require some
ending forms and 3 do not require any ending form. The finite and non finite forms serve as alternant forms.

The variety of non finite forms are pirinilai eccam,'differentiating NFF (taaneel kaLvaN) vinai eccam verbal participle (paTittu munneeRu), peyareccam relative participle (vanta paiyan), oziyicaeccam opposing NFF (Kuuriyatoor VaalLman), etirmaRaiyeccam negating NFF (yaanoo aracan), ummaiyeccam inclusive NFF (avarum vantaar), kuRipeccam implicational NFF (nalla veelai ceyyaay), icaiyeccam exclusive NFF (maiviziyyar mania akal), colleccam declarative NFF (uNavu tayaar) and enaven eccam quotative NFF (Ol ena olittatu) etc. of which um eccam carries the feature called temporal ambiguity and enaven eccam has the property to end up with a verb (910-924).

They may make use alternant words such as taboos & (netuntuukam~caavu), status marked & unmarked words (ii ~ taa ~ kodu), different forms of imperatives (paaraay ~ paar, cenrii ~ celmee), forms representing normal & implied meanings, (kuzaai koNTu koozi eRivaar ~ celvar), synonyms & synonym compounds (oonku ~ nivantoonku), forms with grammatical perfection & deviation (pulavu vaayp paaNa[s]+ paTkuviiraayin [pl]) (925-946).

Thus, eccaviyal presents context based, user based activities of selecting, creating and sequencing linguistic alternant forms so as to compose poetic or prosaic, oral or written composition appropriate to the context of communication and hence eccaviyal is concerned with alternant forms and manipulation of alternant forms by speakers in real context and reflects inclusion of pragmatic insights. Thus Tolkappiar is not chaotic but cosmic in placing Eccaviyal and organizing its content in his monumental grammar Tolkappiam.

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I. Introduction

The phenomenon of Globalization has been stretching up its versatile arms, as far as it could, to all ranges of human activities and fields which consequently ensure a lot of sea changes in their working styles and characteristics. In modern age, no field or domain is free from the impact of globalization. There has always been a bone of contention between the efficacies of globalization and of localization. However, the phenomenon of globalization is being globalized. In many a context, the globalization yields fruitful results, but at the sometime, one should not ignore the ill effects it offers. However, let us optimistically believe that globalization brings in infinite number of comforts in all the domains we embark on.

Through the globalization, different cultures and economic systems around the world are becoming connected and similar to each other because of the influence of improved communication. This improved communication network yields a remarkable linguistic diversity existing across the cultural and national boundaries. This will in one way solve many a linguistic problem raised because of the multilingualic settings lingering either within a country or across the countries. But there are enough reasons, as envisaged by the great linguist David crystal that one language is going to be a language of globe. There is no doubt at all that English has every possibility to become a global language incorporating the features from various languages. So, in order to play the role of global citizen, besides playing the role of local citizen, everyone in this world has to acquire both spoken English and written English as he has to interact globally either through oracy or literacy skills in English.
In the course of time, the problems pertaining to spoken English will gradually be washed out as the native pronunciation of English will be accessible to everyone through communication network. But the written English, or otherwise the literacy of English being used in the traditional mode of communication has been losing its colours and gaining a lot of modernity. So, at present, a literate in English, with his literacy skills alone, cannot effectively participate in all types of the written communication. Because the modern means of communication especially the computer mediated communication requires totally a new literacy skill.

II. Literacy

The characteristics of literacy and the ways we perceive it differ fundamentally in dependence not only on socio-economic settings but also on the communication mode. The concept of literacy has been viewed differently by different people in different contexts.

In the traditional society, the use of writing or literacy was for ritual purposes and for basic practical tasks and in advance societies it is the vehicle of philosophy, literature, history and science. So literacy, in the society forms an important asset and accomplishment of an individual, but not a necessary condition of his survival and dignity. In such a condition either non-literacy or illiteracy is not treated as a major communication problem.

But in the industrial age, the literacy skill was considered as one of the prerequisites for every individual as literate man power in industry and commerce has a lot to do and as literacy skill is used for communicative function, performative function, Instructional function, self regular function, contact function etc,

In the modern society, the characteristics of literacy undoubtedly changed in to functional literacy. In this stage illiterate, becomes synonymous not only with ‘uneducated’ but also with ‘ignorant’ or ‘back-ward’. During this stage, the literacy is designated as functional literacy, reading competence, or competence in written language.

Generally the consequences of literacy will be viewed in two different perspectives one is linguistic consequence and another is
social consequence. The latter includes social change that is movement from non-literate culture to literate culture important things like accuracy, permancy, authenticity, treasure while the former includes certain things like of knowledge etc. diglossic nature of language, standard variety of language, evidences for understanding the language, language changes etc. So, the introduction of new skills that is literacy skills makes effect in language and society. But now-a-days, the skills of literacy themselves have got influenced by the phenomenon of globalization.

The use of language in totally a new domain that is electronic domain has changed the colours of language especially the colour of literacy. It is the tradition of language that the mode at which language is used will in turn affect the same language. For example, the variety of language used in the spoken mode, has got changed while it is used in written mode. Similarly the language used in the written mode is now used in electronic mode, which consequently changes the colour of the language. It is inevitable. These changes happen because of the constraints of electronic devices as well as the language users. The electronic devices avail the written text predominantly the written language rather the literacy has got dramatic changes. So, the concept of literacy has under-gone various metamorphoses.

Literacy is not just the matter of learning how to decode and put to paper letters and words, but rather a matter of mastering a process. This includes mechanics, ethnographic and pragmatic aspects of literacy. These are deemed valuable in particular society, culture and context.

Of course the development of printing press redefined the concept of literacy but again, the concept of literacy has been reshaped by the advent of electronic device in general and on-line or www communication in particular. In modern days, we willingly or unwillingly have to use computer, most of our reading and writing activities take place on computer screen. This has given birth to e-literacy although reading and writing on-line are closely related to reading and writing in print. These two literacy contexts are significantly different and they demand theoretical and practical attention.
E-literacy is how people use computer to interpret and express meaning. It can otherwise be called as information literacy. That is the ability to find, organize and make use of information and also how to read and write in a new medium.

To acquire and use the e-literacy one should have the knowledge of computer literacy that is the working knowledge in computer. Both e-literacy and computer literacy are interdependent and interrelated. Now-a-days, it is imperative to every literate to acquire e-literacy and computer literacy for using language in electronic devices.

In modern days computer mediated communication is a must for everyone. Because, computer or internet allows us to communicate to people all over the world, simultaneously at little cost and in an achieved format. This allows us to record, reflect on, and refine our previous words as well as those of our interlocutors. It brings about a revolution in human interaction. It is very difficult to master, and if used poorly, it can do as much harm as good. This computer mediated communication requires certain features of typical traditional spoken and written communication strategies like forms of salutation and greetings and also requires characteristics unique to computer medium like condensed forms, special spelling rule etc. It also allows individuals to contribute at their own time and pace.

If computer literacy is handled well, free-flow of communication will take place, if it is poorly handled, then the communication will heavily be affected. So, the users have to develop both the skills simultaneously.

Learning how to communicate effectively through computer involves more than just translating from one communication medium to another. So, the competency in traditional literacy may not be useful or usable for e-literacy domain. E-literacy includes skills like knowing how to use search engine effectively for information, and critically evaluate and interpret what is found, making of the spot judgement of the content etc. These are all receptive side of e-literacy and there are a lot, on the productive side of the e-literacy, like spelling rule, functors
deletion, mechanism of key-in, ethnographic and pragmatic aspects of e-literacy.

It is a known fact that literacy includes reading and writing. The reading activities both in traditional print mode and in computer screen mode are approximately one and the same. There is no significant difference in the fine motor of activities of the reader. If the variety of language used in e-text is known to the reader, there will not be any problem in making meaning from it. So, the skill of reading in e-literacy has not got any radical change.

But the skill of writing in e-literacy has drastically changed rather the skill of writing has lost its character. In a sense, an e-literate does not involve in the task of writing rather him key-ins or keys-in the words or sentences and in most of the contexts he breaks the traditional grammatical rules of spelling, word formation, and even sentence construction. So, the fine-motor activities and cognition involved usually in traditional writing activities have no role to play in the act of key-in. A Chat in a chat group is like a face to face chat or conversation but typing is slower than speaking. An e-mail looks like a letter when one writes it, but there seems to be more informality in e-mail contact just like a message left on an answering machine. In the new mode of communication, a perfect mix of spoken and written language is used. That can be labeled as ‘textual conversation’ ‘talking in writing’ written speech or spoken writing or net speak or net writing. The fine –motor activities required for the user of e-literacy are completely different from them. Even if an e-literate wants to maintain the traditional spelling system or tradition grammatical rules, he need not rely upon his own memory rather the computer memory will come and rescue him. But at the sometime, the neo e-literate cannot completely discard the use of traditional literacy as he will encounter ample opportunities to use it in other traditional domains which are part and parcel of his social life. So, in modern days, a literate has to acquire e-literacy and computer literacy and traditional literacy as well. So, e-literacy is an extra burden to the literates.

In those days while teaching literacy effort had been spared for good penmanship. For this ample exercises would be given and, tha
will inculcate both handsome writing and correct spelling of words and correct formation of words. These exercises reinforce the linguistic competency of the language user: Notwithstanding such exercises are given, most of the people are not able to achieve perfection in language use. In e-literary such exercises are not used in learning session, and then their linguistic performance will be in desperate condition.

At present some of the computer users write something on paper and try to copy them through key-in and there are some people who directly key-in from their own speech. The written text mediated key-in culture will gradually fly away and they directly feed the oral text to the digital text. Thanks to speech synthesizer. Similarly people, now-a-days do not write any materials, rather they go for getting them Xeroxed.

Therefore, of our writing activities are found missing as we mainly depend upon computer oriented literacy activity, which lessen the burden of language user. So, the traditional writing activities are getting minimized and literates can develop, reinforce and retain written language nuances and intricacies only through reading skill.

IV. Conclusion

The foregoing discussion reinforces the point that the traditional literacy was consisting of two skills viz. Reading and writing but the modern e-literacy comprises of skills viz. Reading, skill of key-in- and computer literacy at the cost of scarifying the traditional writing skill. Moreover, identification of written mode has separated written language from spoken language and electronic mode has given birth to still more variety of written language. E-language which deviates greatly from the original and even the errors the neo-e-literates commit are totally different in e-language.

Generally every language at its beginning will be used mostly in spoken mode thereby the skills of listening and speaking come into existence. Then at the developed stage, that language would be used in written mode, thereby the skills of reading and writing will come into use, which we call as literacy. But, in modern age, while using a
language in electronic device it gains some more skills, apart from those four skills LSRW.

The role of using writing skill is gradually getting minimized and the skill of key-in gains momentum along with computer literacy. The skill of writing will be handled by the language users or literates in marginal level. If speech synthesizer or recognizer comes into active use, the writing skill and the skill of key-in would vanish away totally. Generally any development taken place in the society will affect the aspects of language. Car and train changed our mode of transportation. Similarly Telephone changed our conversation. So the mode of communication or communication network will certainly influence over the very core aspects of language. Example use of emoticons (Smile : -), laughing <gg>). Repetition of letter helllooo, more like speech than writing eg. U2, KQ, BA, F2F, FY1, ILU, KIT, WAN2, X, XLNT. Because of the electronic communication network or because of using the language in electronic communication mode, the language, if it is to be used in it, has to change its colours. That leads to the inclusion of certain new components of language or modified components of language in the teaching and learning process of the language. Thus, in modern days the English cannot be taught as it was taught in the past as it gains new colours and loses its old colours day by day.
Efficacy of Linguistic Researches on Teaching Tamil Linguistically

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Introduction

Tamil is taught and learnt differently for different purposes. It is taught as first language or second language. The method, approach and strategy of Teaching Tamil vary from person to person and place to place. To teach or learn the Tamil, various teaching aids are employed in the process of teaching and learning. Even the state of art technology e-learning devices has also been availed to improve the pace of learning Tamil. However, still there are certain learning problems found to exist on the road to Tamil learning. Tamil scholars, Linguists, Educational thinkers are putting their heads together to unearth a fool-proof way of learning or teaching Tamil. Under this circumstance, it is highly imperative to ponder over the components of Tamil to be imbibed in the minds of Tamil learners in terms of curriculum engineering. In modern days, there are a lot of paradigm shift in the domain of education and a lot of sea changes in the fashion of linguistic research. Any research finding must be implemented in the field concerned. So that the field would yield real fruits of field research.

Linguistic Research

For the past few decades, a lot of intensive researches have been carried out by linguists touching the various components of the language and they came along with a lot of insightful understanding about the various elements of language. Those results have to reach the mind of language users. So that the research activity can be justified in terms of academic relevance and social relevance. Whatever the linguistic researches bring pertaining to the components or elements of language which in turn help to understand the language, have to be taught to the language learners. So that, they can fare
well in their linguistic behavior. Keeping this view in mind, the infinite numbers of research findings appearing in the array of language research. All those findings must be incorporated in the curriculum of Tamil teaching. Generally, all components or traits of language cannot be learned or acquired in the teaching learning processes, but most of the linguistic components are obtained by the language users by the linguistic socialization. However, certain basic things of language must be taught to the students through the learning process, through this foundation, they can form a strong edifice of language. So, certain basic model elements must be introduced to the learners of language. The linguistic socialization is quite possible to the learners who have enough room of opportunity to use those learned items of language. But for others who have no opportunity of using the language in a society where the language being used, certain basic things of language must be introduced. For example, if Tamil is taught in Tamilnadu, the Tamil learners have a bright opportunity of using the Tamil. But if is taught in other places where Tamil is not popularly used by the people, there is a less exposure to the Tamil learners. To enable these learners, everything must be taught in the classroom or learning sessions.

As stated above the breadth and length of Tamil has been researched by many language scholars of India and abroad and they came out with a lot of pregnant concepts which will broaden the mental horizon of Tamil learners. Those components must be taught to the Tamil learners of other countries like Singapore, Malaysia etc.

Speech act and Discourse studies

In linguistic research the speech act studies and discourse studies are quite popular. The results of those researchers are not used in the teaching learning process. There is always a wide gap between the linguistic research and the process of language Teaching. If a language has to be taught properly, it must be taught linguistically. That is to say that the linguists’ view points of the language have to be taken into account while selecting the linguistic components for teaching the language. So, if the linguistic perspective of the language is considered, perfection in language learning and use can be achieved.
While planning for the curriculum of Tamil for Singapore, the following points can be considered exploiting the findings of the linguistic researches, so that, it would yield a fruitful result in the process of Tamil teaching and learning.

Language or discourse is a two-way instrument, an instrument for a speaker and a listener or a writer and a reader. Or as the Danish linguistic philosopher Otto Jespersen wrote in the introduction to his philosophy of Grammar (1924). The essence of language is human activity – activity on the part of one individual to make him understood by another, and activity on the part of that other to understand what was in the mind of the first.

If two parties use an instrument for an “activity”, then such an activity can only be successful if both parties adhere to general rules or principles and thereby utilize certain strategies. This can be illustrated with a non-linguistic example. If two people want to hang a painting (activity), they use a hammer, nails, and a ladder (instruments), and they have to coordinate their actions. There will have to be some form of cooperation; while one is standing on the ladder, the other can hand the tools to the first, etc. Rules concerning politeness will also have to be followed; while one person is on the ladder, the other should not try to push the first off. One general principle of collective activity is cooperation and an often-used strategy to achieve this is politeness. This is also true in the case of verbal communication. On the basis of this cooperation principle and guided by so-called politeness strategies the communicators have to perform their communicative acts. But what precisely are those communicative acts? The theory, called speech act theory, provides an answer to this question.

Austin says that all expressions of language must be viewed as acts. He distinguished three kinds of action within each utterance. First, there is the locution, the physical act of producing an utterance. Second, there is the illocution, the act that is committed by producing an utterance: by uttering a promise, a promise is made; by uttering a threat, a threat is made. Third, there is the percolation, the production of an effect through location and illocution, for example, the execution
of an order by the addressee. So, the findings of the speech act studies have to be incorporated in the curriculum of language teaching in general and Tamil teaching in particular.

Moreover, language users are not, however, always interested in the effective transfer of information or relevance of an utterance. In the following examples the speaker wants the addressee to close the door.

a. Katavai mu:Tu ‘Close the door.’
b. Kulirnta Ka:rraTikkitu ‘There’s a draft.’
c. Katavai mu:TamuTiyma: ‘Would you close the door?’
d. tayavu ku:ruT tu katavai mu: ‘Would you be so kind as to close the door?’

According to the maxims of the cooperative principle, a) is sufficient. Language is, however, often used more indirectly, as in b). Sometimes certain politeness forms such as in c) and d) are applied as well. These types of variations have to be introduced to the learners. So that they can easily go for creative use of Tamil.


Murugan wants to visit his girlfriend. Mr. Raman lives in a small village nearby. The electric light didn’t work. The shopkeeper down the street couldn’t help. The last paper had been sold. It is going to be a long dull letter.

This fragment seems to have come into existence by a number of unrelated sentences being placed in random order. But if some words are changed, a piece of discourse is the result. Murugan avanatu kattaliyai pa:rrka virumpina:n. valli arukil ulla kira: mattil va:lkira:l. moTTar va:kanattai eTukka muTiyavillai. Workshop ka:rar utavi ceyya muTiyavillai. kaTesi pasum po:yviT Tatu. itu kaT Tamana neTu: naTayakappo: kiratu.
Murugan wants to visit his girlfriend Valli lives in a small village nearby. The car wouldn’t start. The garage down the street couldn’t help. The last bus had already left. It is going to be a long hot walk.

The example illustrates that the existence of connections between sentences is an important characteristic of discourse. The term connection is, however, somewhat vague. Robert de Beaugrande (1981), one of the grand old men in discourse studies, has formulated seven criteria for textuality, that is, criteria that a sequence of sentences must meet in order to qualify as a discourse.

Cohesion is the connection that results when the interpretation of a textual element is dependent on another element in the text.

Intentionality means that writers and speakers must have the conscious intention of achieving specific goals with their message, for instance, conveying information or arguing an opinion.

Acceptability requires that a sequence of sentences be acceptable to the intended audience in order to qualify as a text. Consider the claim itu ennutaya puttakam, e mpe: r itule irukkata pa:kkaleya “This book is mine. Don’t you see my name is in it?”

Informativeness is necessary in discourse. A discourse must contain new information. If a reader knows everything contained in a discourse, then it does not qualify. Likewise, if a reader does not understand what is in a discourse, it also does not qualify as a discourse. The learners must be imbied with this knowledge.

These apart the Tamil learners should have knowledge on the following concepts.

Effective communication does not always depend on the use of verbal signals, Laughter, for example, is considered as peculiarly human and is language of sorts. We cry, sob, scream and use other primitive sounds as well as gestures and bodily movements. Knowledge about these components has to be transferred to the learners.

Non-verbal communication includes the way we speak and move, our gestures, the physical distance between the speaker and the hearer, facial expressions, etc. Similarly, kinesics is the study of the visual
aspects of non-verbal, interpersonal communication. It may be the closing and the opening of the eyelids, winking, blinking, the way one looks, movement of the hands, etc. This may be called 'body language'. The learners have to be trained in those activities.

The study of gestures is interesting as a subject in itself. Gestures vary from community to community and the same gesture may mean different things in different communities. So the gesture types of Tamil have to be introduced to the learners.

Proxemics is the study of the ways in which space is handled in human communication. Spatial changes give a 'tone' to communication. The distance between people may function as an aid to communication. This knowledge must be known to the learners.

There is always a gap between what we wish to say and what we say. Perhaps the intensity of human ideas, emotions, and feelings cannot be neatly captured in any expression system. Creative writers try to narrow down the gap, using all available devices. So the learners at least in advanced stage, have to be trained to exploit all available devices to narrow down the gap between what they wish to say and what they say.

Similar, silence communicates; there is communion in silence. One must know when to say nothing since flashes of silence make communication delightful. Poets and thinkers have celebrated silence because there is a time for speaking and a time for being silent. So, the Tamil learners should be equipped to identify the contexts where they can speak and where they can refrain from speaking.

Conclusion
The foraging discussion is a suggestive not exhaustive. Keeping the eye on the above factors and others, if we plan for selecting the linguistic components for teaching, our teaching would be meaningful. It is a well-established fact that every living language is dynamic. Similarly Tamil is vibrant and dynamic, so we have to keep the teaching learning process of Tamil also dynamic by incorporating the results and findings of the linguistic research in the stream of language teaching. So that the end users of the language will get the benefit of linguistics and the linguistics either.
Case Assignment in Tamil Based on Chomsky’s Theory

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Introduction

Case is a grammatical category which indicates the syntactic and semantic relationship exists between a noun and a verb or noun and noun in a sentence. In Tamil the term “veeRRumai” is used to refer case. Tolkappiyar explains about cases in his book Tolkappiyam and he devoted three chapters for Case system in Tamil. He proposes eight cases for Tamil based on thematic roles of the noun in a sentence and names the cases after the case suffixes such as ai, oTu, kku, in, atu and kaN. There is no case sign for nominative and vocative. Thus six case suffixes found in Tamil are used to denote the cases in Tamil. Caldwell follows Nannular, the medieval Tamil grammarian, for explaining the case system and he calls the cases as first, second, third etc., by making use of numbers. Scholars like Annamalai, Kothandaraman, Sam Arul raj, Natarajan, Vasu, Radhakrishnan, Mallika, Murthy, Athithan and few others worked extensively on Tamil cases and come to the conclusion that there are possibilities in Tamil to have more cases. However, all these scholars have not viewed the Tamil cases based on the Chomky’s case theory. Thus the present paper aims to study the Tamil cases based on Chomsky’s case theory.

Chomsky’s case theory

1) Case Filter

Every phonetically realized NP must be assigned abstract case (Chomsky 1986:30). The abstract case is taken to be universal. Languages with rich morphological case marking like Tamil, and languages with very limited morphological case marking like English are all resumed to have full case system of abstract case. The above case filter will thus predict the ungrammaticality of sentence from the grammaticality of the sentence. For example in the following
illustrations, the first sentence is ungrammatical, but the second sentence is grammatical one.

1) Raaman nalla ` Rama Good’
2) Raaman vantaan ` Rama came’

In the first sentence, there is no source of case on ‘nalla’, because the word ‘nalla’ being adjective cannot assign nominative case to the subject NP ‘raaman’ and hence it becomes ungrammatical. But in the second sentence, ‘vantaan’ has a source of case and hence it is grammatical. Thus according to Chomsky abstract case is argued to be assignment to NP’s by various case assigners, namely verbs, preposition and INFL. The verbs and prepositions are said to assign accusative case to the object NP’s and AGR in the main verb assigns nominative case to subject NP.

2) Visibility Condition

An element is visible for theta marking only if it is assigned case (Chomsky 1986a:84). Since theta-roles or semantic roles are plausible primitive categories of the structure of language, in having their correlation outside the structure of the language, the visibility condition provides a potential explanation for the presence of the case Filter in the grammar.

3) Case Theory and Government

Government theory plays an important role for case assignment in GB theory. Case is assigned through government. Government is defined in C-command relation.

X- C-Commands Y if the first branching node dominating X dominates Y and X does not dominate Y, nor does Y dominate X (a branching node is a node which branches into two or more immediate constituency).

4) Assignment of Case through Government

In the following condition, an NP will get case 1. An NP gets case if it is in governed position and if the governor is a case assigner and 2. In specific ungoverned positions an NP may get case through exceptional case marking.
5) Configuration of Case Assignment

The issue can be broken down into two parts a) what are the elements that assign case and what are the cases they assign?
b) What kind of relation that holds or must hold between a case assigner and a case assignee?

6) Case Assignment

The following are five important principles proposed by Chomsky (1981:p 170) on case assignment.

1) NP is nominative if governed by AGR
2) NP is objective if governed by V with the subcategorisation feature: NP -(i.e transitive)
3) NP is oblique if governed by P
4) NP is genitive in (NP-X) and
5) NP is inherently case marked as determined by properties of its ( -N) governor.

However, Chomsky (1992) reviewed his earlier stance and said that lexical items carry their features with them rather being assigned their features based on the nodes that they carry case with them, and that their case is “checked” when they are in SPEC position of AGRs or AGRo , which subsequently disappears.

In 2005, Chomsky’s case theory was extended in X-TAG grammar formalism. In this theory instead of checking the features the case values are assigned to NP by the verb during the unification of the feature structures.

Chomsky’s theory and Tamil

An attempt has been made in this study to analyze the validity of the case assignment properties for Tamil language. Most of the case properties are found to suit very well for Tamil language. However few changes in principles are also required for the Tamil language.

Nominative case Assignment:

According to Chomsky, the INFL in the main verb will assign
case. If the sentence is embedded, then AGR feature of the INFL in the main verb will pass to subject NP through Complimentizer(COMP). For example, in the sentence  
‘John said that he will come’  
The AGR feature in INFL of the main verb assign Nominative case to the subject NP through the COMP. In following Tamil sentence, the word ‘enRu’ will act as COMP and through ‘enRu’ the AGR feature of main verb will assign nominative case to the subject NP.  
e.g raaman varuvaan enRu connaan ‘Rama told that he will come’  
The above illustration shows that INFL features such TENSE, AGR, PARTICIPLE, COMP, NEG and MODAL etc will assign nominative case to the subject NP.  
**Objective Case assignment**  
According to Chomsky an NP is objective if it is governed by a verb with subcategorization feature i.e a transitive verb. Example: John gave a book to Bill. In this construction, the NP ‘a book’ receives object case from the verb.  
Example from Tamil:  
Raaman oru malaraik koTuttaan ‘Rama gave a flower’ Here the word ‘malar’ is an object governed by verb through c-command. Thus the verb ‘koTu’ is the case assigner for the object NP ‘malar’.  
**Dative Case Assignment:**  
According to Chomsky, the Dative case is assigned by inherent case. Example: John gave Bill a Book. The NP ‘Bill’ receives case from its governor ‘gave’. But the problem is the NP ‘a book’, which is far away from its governor ‘gave’. Thus he says ‘a book’ receives case inherently based on the theta roles it takes.  
Example from Tamil,  
Raaman siitavukku oru malarai koTuttaan “Rama gave a flower to Sita”
In Tamil too, the dative NP ‘Sita’ is not in governed position. So it should get case based on the thematic roles it takes. Traditionally the Dative NP has been associated with various meanings like ownership, Knowledge, Belief, Perception/Liking, Disliking, Need, Obligation, Ability etc. All these meanings can be brought under the broad title recipient and goal. Thus the theta role recipient or goal will assign case to the Dative NP.

**Genitive Case Assignment**

According to Chomsky NP is genitive (NP-X) that is construction which has two noun phrases with an N configuration. Example: His brother. In this sentence, the word ‘his’ gets case through configuration. But for Tamil it is not so. In Tamil a separate possessive (POSS) element ‘atu’ or ‘uTaiya’ is found along with genitive NP.

e.g: avanuTaiya caTTai ‘his shirt’

Thus in Tamil, POSS element which is attached in genitive NP will assign case to the genitive NP.

**Conclusion**

The main finding of the study is given below.

1) Each and every functional head is a case assigner in Tamil

2) Nominative case is assigned by any one of the following functional heads according the sentences 1) TENSE 2) AGR 3) PARTICIPLE, 4) COMP, 5) NEG AND 6) MODAL.

3) Objective case is assigned by the verb.

4) Dative case is assigned inherently based on certain theta roles.

5) Genitive case is assigned by POSS element present after the first noun.
Interdependence of Incompatibility and Hyponymy
A Structural Semantic Approach to Tamil

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Introduction

Generally opposition can be divided into two types, namely (a) Binary opposition and (b) Non-binary opposition. Binary opposition is one of the most important paradigmatic sense relations governing the semantic structure of language. In the earlier works on semantics it was called opposition of meaning or antonymy. They were used more or less equivalently for various kinds of binary contrast or contrast between two lexemes. But John Lyons uses opposition or binary opposition as a general term for all contrasts within two member sets and restricts antonymy to one type of binary opposition called gradable opposite (Lyons, 1977). The remaining paradigmatic sense relation is non-binary contrasts or incompatibility.

Incompatibility and Hyponymy

The non-binary contrasts or incompatibility is the next important sense relation (Lexical relation) based on contrast within similarity. When semantically related lexemes show contrast between more than two lexemes or words it is called as non-binary contrasts or incompatibility. Sets such as color terms, names of flowers, days of a week, months of a year, etc., are many member sets of incompatibility. Lyons (1977, p.288) defines incompatibility as “The relation of sense which holds between the lexemes in many member sets”. For example, (‘Sunday’, ‘Monday’… ‘Saturday’).

Cruse (1986:93) opined that the sense relation which is analogous to the relation between classes with no members in common is incompatibility. Saeed (1997:232) states that the words like spinster, bachelor, and wife are incompatibles and form a comparison of their component.
Bachelor [MALE] [ADULT] [HUMAN] [UNMARRIED]

Spinster [FEMALE] [ADULT] [HUMAN] [UNMARRIED]

Wife [FEMALE] [ADULT] [HUMAN] [MARRIED]

It can be suggested that the definition like lexical items P, Q, R ..., are incompatible if they share a set of features but differ from each other by one or more contrasting features. Thus spinster is incompatible with bachelor by contrast of gender specification; and with wife by marital specification.

Consider the following fragment of taxonomic hierarchy in Tamil.

uyiruLLavai ‘creature’

vilanku ‘animal’

paRavai ‘bird’

miin ‘fish’

puucci ‘insect’

naay yaanai kiLi mayil vilanku iRaale Rump paTTampuucci
‘dog’ ‘elephant’ ‘parrot’ ‘peacock’ ‘eelfish’ ‘prawn’ ‘ant’ ‘butterfly’

raajapaaLayam alcesan
‘rajapalayam dog’ ‘alsation’

The above taxonomic hierarchy seems to be fairly clear intuitively that two sense relations (lexical relation) are essential to this configuration: daughter-nodes must be hyponyms of their respective mother-node (naay ‘dog’: vilanku ‘animal’, puucci ‘insect’: uyiruLLavai ‘creature’, iRaal ‘eel fish’: miin ‘fish’). It may be accepted that this taxonomic lexical hierarchy is a sense relation which can be called taxonomy.

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Identity test for Incompatibility

Incompatibility can be defined on the basis of the relationship of contradictoriness, between sentences on the basis of the following implication test. If one sentence, $S_1$, explicitly denies other sentences, $S_2, S_3, \ldots S_n$ then $S_1$, and $S_2, S_3, \ldots S_n$, are contradictory, and if they differ only in that where $S_1$ has the lexical item $x$ and the others have $y, z$ etc., they are called as incompatibles (cf. Lyons, 1968, p.458).

For example in English, when we say,

1. This is a blue shirt
2. This is a white shirt
3. This is a red shirt
4. This is a green shirt
5. This is a yellow shirt etc.

The sentence (1) again explicitly implies
6. This is not a red shirt
7. This is not a green shirt
8. This is not a yellow shirt

Similarly, if we say in Tamil,

9. kaNNan uuriliruntu canikkilamai vantaan
   ‘Kannan came from his place on saturday’

   It implicitly denies

10. kaNNan uuriliruntu nayiRRuk kilamai varavillai / tinka Tkilamai / cevvay-K-kilmai…etc., varavillai.

   ‘Kannan did not come on Sunday/ Monday/ Tuesday….etc.’

Here we can see that the sets of color terms in English and the names of the days of a week in Tamil hold the relation of contradictoriness i.e. one member of the set implicitly denies the other members. Therefore the member lexemes of these sets are incompatibles.

The following are some more sets of incompatible lexemes in English and Tamil which result due to the application of the implication test.
English
(a) square, rectangle, round, oval, triangle, pentagon, hexagon, octagon.
(b) cotton, silk, velvet, nylon, polyester, wool.

Tamil

The incompatibility is the lexical relation of contrasts within similarity. Now the question arises how to establish similarity or relatedness of meaning is different from unrelatedness of meaning. For example: the English words rose and pig contrast in the sentence.

16) This is a rose.
17) This is a pig.

But they are not compatible as they are unrelated. This we know because of the fact that rose is a flower and pig is an animal and the sense of one word cannot be said to delimit the sense of the other as in the case of incompatibles. But the sentence

18) This flower is a rose
   Automatically denies the sentences
19) This flower is a lotus
20) This flower is a tulip
21) This flower is a marigold….etc.

Similarly,

22) This animal is a pig
   Implicitly denies the sentences
23) This animal is a dog
24) This animal is a cat
25) This animal is a horse
26) This animal is an elephant…etc.
Now we can see the sets of incompatibles like *rose, lotus, tulip, marigold*, etc., and the other sets *pig, cat, horse, elephant* etc., hold the relation of incompatibility as they are similar because they are grouped as flowers and animals respectively.

In other words the meaning of the first set of words is included in the meaning of flower.

The meaning of the second set of words is included in the meaning animal. When we say,

(27) This is a rose  
It implies the sentence  
(28) This is a flower  
And when we say,  
(29) This is a pig  
It implies the sentence  
(30) This is an animal.

This leads us to use the sense relation of hyponymy or meaning inclusion. In the meaning of the generic terms *flower* and *animal*, the meaning of different specific flowers and animals are included respectively. The generic term is called the hyperonym or superordinate. The specific terms included in the meaning of the generic terms are called hyponyms. The words *flower* and *animal* are the superordinates; the lexemes *rose, lotus, tulip, marigold* are the hyponyms of the superordinate *flower*. Similarly, the lexemes *pig, cat, horse, elephant*, etc. are the hyponyms included in the superordinate, *animal*.

The words which are hyponyms of the same superordinate on the same level are called co-hyponyms. For example, the English words like *rose, lotus, tulip, marigold* etc., are co-hyponyms with reference to the superordinate *flower*. Similarly, the lexemes *pig, dog, cat, horse*, etc., are co-hyponyms with reference to the superordinate *animal*. We can see from the above discussion that incompatibility and hyponyms are interrelated. This is because all the hyponyms grouped together with or without a superordinate hold the relation of incompatibility.
Identification Test for Hyponyms

Hyponymy is a relation of meaning inclusion i.e. the meaning of the specific term or hyponym is included in the meaning of the generic term or superordinate. Apart from this the relation of hyponyms can be identified with the help of the test of unilateral implication. One sentence, \( S_1 \) implies another sentence \( S_2 \), but the converse implication does not generally hold i.e., \( S_2 \) does not generally imply \( S_1 \) and \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) are identical except for \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \), in which case \( L_1 \) is the hyponym and \( L_2 \) is the superordinate. For example if we say in Tamil, \( S_1 \) naan kattirikkaay vaankineen, ‘I bought brinjal’ it implies \( S_2 \) naan kaRikaay vaankinaan, ‘I bought vegetables’. But, the converse implication does not hold. If one says \( S_2 \) naan kaRikaay vaankinaan ‘I bought vegetables’ it does not generally imply \( S_1 \) naan kattirikkaay vaankineen ‘I bought brinjal’. Here the difference between the two sentences is that of \( L_1 \) kattirikkaay ‘brinjal’ and \( L_2 \) kaRikaay ‘vegetable’. Therefore kattirikkaay is the hyponym and kaRikaay is the superordinate or hyperonym.

Hyponymy as a Kind of Relation

Hyponymy is also explainable as a kind of relation (Lyons, 1977; p292 and Cruse 1986 p.137 f). When the relation of hyponymy holds between nouns, it is possible to insert syntactically appropriate expressions containing them in the place of \( x \) and \( y \) in the following formula ‘\( x \) is kind of \( y \)’ (where \( x \) is the hyponym of the superordinate \( y \)). We can say,

\[
\begin{align*}
(31) & \text{Rose is a kind of flower} \\
(32) & \text{Pig is a kind of animal} \\
(33) & \text{Apple is a kind of fruit} \\
(34) & \text{Oak is a kind of tree, etc.}
\end{align*}
\]

Similarly, we can use the Tamil phrase oru vakai ‘a kind of’ as the test frame.

The following examples will make this clear.

\[
\begin{align*}
(35) & \text{mullai oru vakai puu} \\
& \text{‘Jasmine is a kind of flower’}
\end{align*}
\]
(36) kiLi oru vakai paRavai
‘Parrot is a kind of bird’
(37) veempu oru vakai maram
‘Neem is a kind of tree’
(38) irumpu oru vakai ulookam
‘Iron is a kind of metal’

The above English and Tamil examples relate the following sets of hyponyms and superordinates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hyponyms</th>
<th>Superordinate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rose</td>
<td>flower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pig</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apple</td>
<td>fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oak</td>
<td>tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullai ‘Jasmine’</td>
<td>puu ‘flower’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kiLi ‘Parrot’</td>
<td>paRavai ‘bird’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>veempu ‘Neem’</td>
<td>maram ‘tree’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irumpu ‘Iron’</td>
<td>ulookam ‘metal’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This ‘kind of relation’ can also be used as a test for hyponyms and their superordinates by using the test frame, ‘x is a kind of y’. This test frame works well for the identification of hyponyms which are nouns. But in the case of hyponyms belonging to other parts of speech like verbs, adjectives, etc., the test frame cannot be used simply by substituting those categories of words in the place of x and y in the frame. They have to be nominalised i.e. converted into noun form. For example in English, verbs have to be nominalised in the form of gerund by adding –ing like eating, cleaning, etc and adjectives have to be nominalised by adding suffix –ness or other suitable nominal suffixes.

For example, the English verbs wash, bath, sweep, wipe, brush, etc., are hyponyms which have the superordinate verb clean. They
can be substituted in the frame x is a kind of y in their gerund forms as follows

(39) Bathing is a kind of cleaning
(40) Washing is a kind of cleaning
(41) Sweeping is a kind of cleaning
(42) Brushing is a kind of cleaning

In Tamil, avi / veekavai ‘steam’, ponKu ‘boil’, poRi ‘deep fry’, vaRu ‘fry’, cuTu ‘bake’, etc., are verbs of ‘cooking’ having the superordinate camai/camaiyal cey ‘cook’. The superordinate camai/camaiyal cey has its noun form camaiyal ‘cooking’ which can be substituted in the frames in the place of x and y and other verbs will be nominalised by adding the suffix – tal/ttal. The following examples in the test frames will make the hyponymy relation clear.

(43) avittal/veeka vaittal oru vakaic camaiyal
‘steaming is a kind of cooking’
(44) ponkutal oru vakaic camaiyal
‘boiling is a kind of cooking’
(45) poRittal oru vakaic camaiyal
‘deep frying is a kind of cooking’
(46) vaRuttal oru vakaic camaiyal
‘frying is a kind of cooking’
(47) cuTutal oru vakaic camaiyal
‘baking is a kind of cooking’

Hyponymy as a Transitive Relation

The logical relation of transitivity holds between items in the following conditions: If A is equal to B and B is equal to C, then A is equal to C. This type of relation is found in the case of hyponymous words. If ‘x is a hyponym of y’ and ‘y is a hyponym of z’, then ‘x is a hyponym of z’ (Lyons, 1977, p. 292). For example, the word creature is a superordinate term which includes animals, birds, insects, etc., which are again superordinates for a number of hyponyms and we say,

(48) Dog is an animal
(49) Animal is a creature
Then it implies

(50) Dog is a creature

Thus we find the relation of transitivity between the words dog, animal and creature.

In Tamil, niilam, paatiri, malkoova, centuuraa, etc., are types of mangoes which have the superordinate maa / maampalam ‘mango’. We can say,

(51) malkoova oru vakaip palam
‘malguva is a kind of mango’

Maa / maampalam ‘mango’, along with pala ‘jack’, vaalai ‘banana’, koyyaa ‘guava’, elumiccai ‘lemon’ are the names of fruits which are hyponyms included in the meaning of the superordinate palam ‘fruit’. Now we can say

maampalam oru vakai palam
‘Mango is a kind of fruit’

As we can say,

(52) malkoova oru vakai maa / maampalam
‘malgova is a kind of mango’

It automatically implies,

(53) malkoova oru vakai palam
‘Malgova is a kind of fruit’

By this way it is clear that hyponymy holds transitivity relation.

The Absence of Superordinate Term

Lyons (1968 p. 456) makes an important point about the relation of hyponymy as it is found in the natural languages. In natural languages, the relation of hyponymy does not operate comprehensively or systematically as it does in the various systems of scientific taxonomy. Many gaps, asymmetries and indeterminates are found in the vocabulary of the natural languages. This is reflected in the fact that a set of co-hyponyms or specific terms may not have a superordinate or generic term in some languages. For example, the
English words *square, round, rectangle, triangle, hexagon*, etc., are co-hyponyms that have no superordinate corresponding to all of them. But corresponding Tamil co-hyponyms vaTTam ‘round’, caturam ‘square’, mukkooNām ‘triangle’, cevvakam ‘rectangle’, etc., have the superordinate vaTivam ‘shape / form’.

It is clear from the above discussion that the lexical relations of incompatability and hyponymy are interdependent.

**References**

Recent Findings in Bodo-Garo Tonology

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1. Introduction

The Bodo-Garo languages are primarily spoken in the Assam floodplains of Northeast India. The Bodo-Garo subgroup of languages belongs to the Tibeto-Burman language family consisting of Bodo, one of the widely spoken Tibeto-Burman languages. This subfamily of languages (see Figure 1) has received considerable attention from the linguists’ community starting from the second half of the 20th century. Hence, tones in these languages have also been of interest to the linguistic community.

Although it is claimed that proto Tibeto-Burman may have originally had a two tones inventory (Mazaudon, 1985), some of the Tibeto-Burman languages do not have any tones, at least in the synchronic variety. On the contrary to Mazaudon’s claim, it is also shown that tones in the Bodo-Garo languages emerged due to the deletion of certain segmental elements (Joseph & Burling, 2001). However, not intending to go into the discussion about the tonogenesis of the Tibeto-Burman languages, I, in this work will limit my discussion to the synchronic variety of the Bodo-Garo languages and only to four languages of the group that I am more familiar with; namely, Bodo, Dimasa, Rabha and Tiwa. I will discuss the tonal features of these four languages in the following sections.

2. Tones of four Bodo-Garo languages

In the subsections to follow I provide a brief overview of four Bodo-Garo languages discussed in this paper; namely, Bodo, Dimasa, Rabha and Tiwa. Considering the multitude of views regarding tones in the literature, I will report my findings in section 3 of this paper.
2.1. Bodo tones

The number of tones in the Bodo language has been a controversial issue. While Weidert (1987) reports that Bodo has no tones, on the other extreme, Bhattacharya (1977) reports that Bodo has as many as four tones. In one of the earliest literatures available on Bodo tones, Halvorsrud (1959) concluded that Bodo has three tones, high, mid and low. He observes that the difference between the high and the low tone is very evident. But he does not talk much about the mid tone, as it lacks perceptual salience. In the absence of any data exemplifying the ‘third’ tone in his work, we must come to the conclusion that Bodo has only two lexical tones according to Halvorsrud. Similarly, Burling (1959) also finds evidence for only two
tones: high and low. He postulates that the high tone ends with a glottal stop but at the same time he speculates the possibility of a high tone not associated with a glottal stop. On the other hand, Weidert (1987) is of the opinion that the tone patterns in Bodo are dependent on the syllable types and the consonantal specification of the syllable coda. According to him the ‘smooth’ and the ‘stopped’ syllable types give rise to different pitch patterns on the following syllables. The main generalizations regarding tones in Bodo, according to Weidert, are:

a) Tone contrasts are not present in monosyllables.

b) Tones are to be derived from syllables codas, which may or may not be realized on the surface.

However, Baro (1991) says that Bodo has a two-tone system with a rising and a falling tone. The syllable with a falling tone, according to him, has a lengthened vowel without any glottal check. A glottal stop, according to him, occurs only in syllables with a rising tone with one of the consonants /r, m, n, ʔ/ as a coda. We can infer from Baro’s observation that, he too, like Weidert, associates a glottal stop or a glottalic consonant with high tones. His conclusion is that Bodo has unpredictable lexical tone and that every lexical entry must be specified for tone as well. Bhattacharya (1977) claims that Bodo has a four-tone system, with three tones available in different positions and a neutral tone, which is dependant on either the preceding or the following non-neutral, toned syllable. According to Bhattacharya the three lexical tones in Bodo are high, mid and low (indicated by 1, 2 and 3 respectively). He identifies tone 1 as having a level or a rising pitch pattern. Tone 2 as having a level or a falling and tone 3 as having a falling pitch pattern. Joseph and Burling (2001) on the other hand concluded that Bodo has only a two-tone system with a high and a low tone. However, Burling and Joseph (2010) claim that in disyllabic words Bodo has a three way lexical tone contrast namely, high (rising), low (level) and falling.

2.2. Dimasa tones

The earliest known grammatical work on Dimasa (Dundas 1908) does not comment on tones and tonal phenomena at all. Singha (2001)
sheds some light on Dimasa phonology and morphology and, regarding its tones, he claims that there are three register tones: high, low, and mid/level, with the mid/level tone being an ‘unmarked’ tone. From the 13 examples of words with contrasting tones that Singha (2001) provides, it is noticed that every Dimasa syllable must be assigned one of the three tones. In Singha (2001) this also holds true for disyllables. However, according to online resources on Dimasa, available at RCILTS, IIT Guwahati, Dimasa has only two tones: high and unmarked level. Neither Singha (2001) nor the RCILTS website provides any further description of how the unmarked tone operates, nor do they offer an acoustic phonetic description of any of the tones.

2.3. Rabha tones

Rabha is one of the lesser-studied languages among the Tibeto-Burman languages of the North-East India. Until recently, Rabha was considered to be merely a dialect of Bodo owing to its lexical similarity with the Bodo language. However, recently there has been some interest in the language demonstrating that despite its being related to the Bodo language, it is not merely a dialect of Bodo. Basumatary (2004) compared the Bodo and Rabha languages where tonal similarities between the two languages were also taken into consideration. According to Basumatary (2004), Rabha has two underlying tones—high and unmarked low tones. He however, does not explain why the low tone is considered unmarked in the language.

On the other hand, personal communication with many Rabha scholars indicated that Rabha has one more tone leading to a three-way contrast among tones in the language.

2.4. Tiwa tones

Tiwa, according to Joseph and Burling (2001, 2007) has two contrasting tones, which are high level and falling. They postulate that there can be either a high-level or a falling tone on a monosyllabic word. Speculating that either syllable in disyllables in Tiwa is capable of hosting either one of the two lexical tones, Joseph and Burling (2001, 2007) claim that disyllabic words can have four possibilities to

1 This information is retrieved from http://www.iitg.ernet.in/rcilts/dimasa.htm
host lexical tones: i) the first syllable has a high tone, ii) the first syllable has a falling tone, iii) the second syllable has a high tone or iv) the second syllable has a falling tone. In case of (iii) and (iv), the first syllables are assigned a neutral tone. In case of (i) and (ii), they claim that the tone tends to spread to the syllable on the right. However, this raises the question of what motivates the first syllable (in case of (i) and (ii)) or the second syllable (in case of (iii) and (iv)) to be the primary tone bearer. In a similar manner, according to Joseph and Burling (2001, 2007), trisyllables can have six possibilities of tone assignment.

3. Acoustic analysis of tones of four Bodo-Garo languages

In order to resolve the long-standing issues with Bodo-Garo tonal inventory and tone assignment, I conducted a series of acoustic analysis of Bodo-Garo tones in different phases. In the following subsections, I will report my findings of each language.

3.1. Acoustic analysis of Bodo tones

In 2004, I recorded a native speaker of Bodo producing a list of segmentally homophonous words in the language that are potentially distinguished by tones. In total 46 minimal sets of monosyllables and 25 minimal sets of disyllables were recorded. In my work (Sarmah, 2004) I was unable to locate any three-way distinction in terms of tones in the language.

As seen in Figure 2 and Figure 3, the pitch tracks of the four words show two distinct tone patterns. While the ones on the left show a high-rising pitch, the ones on the right show a low-falling pitch contour.

**Figure 2.** Pitch tracks for the monosyllables [eo] 'clear jungle' and [ta] 'to plough'
I further investigated disyllabic words to see the tone assignment pattern in them. In Figure 4 and Figure 5, I provide the pitch tracks noticed in four disyllabic words in Bodo. As seen from the pitch tracks of the four words, the initial syllables are either too short to host an audible tone or they host a mid tone that is not lexical. In case of [kʰuser] for ‘sugarcane’, the initial syllable of the word is too short for any tone to be realized on that. In case of [gudu?], both ‘hole’ and ‘hot’ have the same tone on the initial syllable. In other words, the only tone that distinguishes the two words in each set occurs in the second syllable of the words. Hence, I conclude that in case of disyllables, the lexical tones occur only in the second (or the rightmost) syllable.

3.2. Acoustic analysis of Dimasa tones

In 2006, I recorded 8 Dimasa speakers of the Hajowali variety producing 53 monosyllable of Dimasa. Considering the large number of speakers in this study, the standard pitch values in Hertz were normalized to z-scores (Disner 1980, Rose 1987, Rose 1991, Ishihara 1999 etc.). They were subjected to statistical analysis to make sure that individual speaker differences do not affect the analysis. Tones were identified by calculating the slope of the pitch contour (F0d) by subtracting the onset of each pitch contour from its offset. In other words, a level tone is expected to result in a F0d value of near 0, a rising tone is expected to result in a positive F0d value and a falling tone is expected to result in a negative F0d value. The F0d values were compared statistically to see if the tones are salient or not.
In Figure 6 and Figure 7, the pitch tracks of the [zao] and [kʰu] monosyllables of Dimasa are shown. As seen from the two figures, each of the meanings of the words represented by [zao] and [kʰu] is associated with a distinct pitch track. The [zao] for ‘puncture’ and the [kʰu] for ‘serve’ have a high pitch contour, the [zao] for ‘winnow’ and the [kʰu] for ‘dig’ have a low-falling contour and the [zao] for ‘row’ and the [kʰu] for ‘face’ have a mid-level pitch contour. Similar three-way pitch pattern is noticed in all the Dimasa words that I examined.

Figure 4. Pitch tracks for the disyllables [kʰuser] ‘prick with nails’ ‘sugarcane’

Figure 5. Pitch tracks for the disyllables [gudu?] ‘hole’ ‘hot’

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g. The most honorific forms that are used to address the most elite or creamy layers of the society

- **sæm:** ‘lord (honorific)’
- **ejama:n:** ‘boss (honorific)’
- **paNnakka:r:** ‘land owner (honorific)’
- **motala:Li:** ‘owner (honorific)’
- **darmakarita:** ‘trustee (honorific)’
- **makara:si:** ‘daughter of luck (honorific)’
- **ayya:** ‘father (pseudo kinship)’

### The Variations Observed in the use Of Address Forms

#### Structure of Address Forms: Attention Callers

The address forms are mainly consisting of attention callers. The attention callers are basically having the interrogative words such as **e:n** ‘why’, **enna:** ‘what’ etc. The markers of politeness, neutrality and intimacy or authoritative are added to the interrogative word bases to obtain the address terms. The terms take the definite structure depending upon the relationship between the speaker and hearer.

#### Politeness Markers

If the speaker or hearer belongs to the elite group (in a sense that if he is having lands, belongs to the higher caste, educated and working in the good organization with higher rank etc) then the polite marker **-Mka** is added to the interrogative base as cited below:

\[ e:n + -Mka \quad \text{why} \quad e:nuMka \quad \text{‘hello (honorific)’} \]

\[ e:n + -Mka \quad \text{why} \quad e:Mka \]

\[ enna: + -Mka \quad \text{what} \quad ennaMka \]

On some occasions, the polite attention caller may be added with pseudo kinship terms to address the honorific people in a more polite way.

\[ e:nuMka + aNNa: \quad \text{hello (hon.)} \quad e:nuMka aNNa \quad \text{‘hello brother’} \]

\[ e:nuMka + aNNa: \quad \text{hello (hon.)} \quad aNNa \quad \text{‘hello brother’} \]

\[ aNNa + e:nuMka \quad \text{hello (hon.)} \quad aNNa \quad \text{‘hello brother’} \]

\[ aNNa + e:nuMka + aNNa \quad \text{hello (hon.)} \quad aNNa \quad \text{‘hello brother’} \]
On other occasions, it can be added with the most honorific words to tend extensive politeness.

Sometimes, the influence of caste is noticed on the speech behaviour of persons, i.e., especially on the politeness marker.

It can be added to both masculine and feminine genders.

Neutral Markers
When the addressee intended to avoid the politeness or intimacy markers to the addressee then he selects the neutral markers such as -ppa:, -mma etc. These neutral markers are gender specific, -ppa: is used for masculine and -mma: is for feminine.

Intimacy Or Authoritative Markers
When the addressee intends to show the intimacy or authoritative feature, then the marker -Ta or -Ti is added to interrogative word. Again, -Ta and -Ti are gender specific and -Ta is added to masculine and -Ti is for feminine.

The persons belonging to the creamy layer such as landowners, shop owners, village leaders, priests, professionals etc. are addressed with the honorific terms such as -Mka suffixed attention callers
The selection of an address term is depending upon the status of hearer. A land owned Gounder caste man is addressed with kavunthar or ennامka kavunthar by a Naickar land owned man and will get the equal reciprocate caste name nayykkar or ennамka nayykkar. However an agricultural labourer will address the Gounder man as ennамka paNnakkar and will receive the attention caller plus personal name ennамka palanisami etc.

The authoritative marker -Ta is used to show the power of people. It is generally used to address the subordinates. The authoritative address term is having the following structure:

\[ \text{e:n} + \text{-Ta:} \quad \text{ embeddedNTa:} \quad \text{‘hello (non honorific)’} \]

Usually, it is joined with the personal names.

\[ \text{e:NTa: ve:lu} \quad \text{‘hello (non honorific) Velu’} \]
\[ \text{e:NTi lacumi} \quad \text{‘hello (non honorific) Lakshmi’} \]

Concluding Remarks

The attention callers such as e:NTa/ e:NTi ‘hello (non honorific)’; the kinship terms which are having some effect of regional or social class/caste etc. such as aNNA: ‘father’, appan ‘brother’, a:ya: / a:tta: ‘father’s mother’, appucci ‘mother’s father’, amma:yi ‘mother’s mother’, manni ‘brother’s wife’ etc.; the highly honorific terms such as sa:mi ‘lord’ ejama:n ‘boss’ etc. and the caste professional terms such as to:TTi ‘sweeper’ and so on are used comparatively lesser than the earlier times in general now a days and avoided by the younger generation to address the persons at present.

They are replaced with the standard forms such as appa: ‘father’, aNNA: ‘brother’ tatta: ‘grand father’, pa:TTi ‘grand mother’ etc due to the standardization of vocabularies that are used in the school text books. The innovative term such as citti ‘mother’s younger sister’ is used extensively instead of cinnamma: or cinnacyi. The term is very precise and easy to pronounce. Hence it is used in novels and

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movies more frequently and reaches the entire mass with a rapid speed. When it is accepted in the society, the same finds a permanent place in the corpus of Tamil language replacing the earlier ones attested with regional and social variations.

The economy of village is agricultural oriented and hence land owning communities are revered much by the people residing in the villages. This lead to address them by pannakkar, sa:mi, ejama:n etc by the labours who depend on them. Moreover, caste, a predominant player in assessing the status of persons on earlier times, is also used to address the persons. However one notable change is observed contemporarily.

The social variable education plays a crucial role after the independence of India. Educated persons prefer the professions other than agriculture. The role of caste also got less importance in the post independence era. These factors led the use of older address forms less and in place, the standardized forms more. Thus, the change in the use of address forms reflects the change that takes place in the society.

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Dialectal Variations in the use of Question Particles in Thai

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1. INTRODUCTION

Thai is spoken in Thailand and is the official language. It has a number of regional varieties. There are a lot of variations across these regional varieties of Thai. In this paper, we attempt to describe the variation in the use of question particles across the four major varieties of Thai language. The four major regional varieties of the Thai language are given below:

I. Central Thai: It is the language spoken in and around Bangkok having speakers about 20 to 25 million people. It is considered to be the standard language of Thailand and is popularly known as Bangkok Thai.

II. Northeastern Thai (also known as I-san): It is spoken by about 23 million people in the northeastern territory of Thailand.

III. Northern Thai (also known as Khammuang): It is spoken by about 6 million people and from the northern part of Thailand.

IV. Southern Thai (also known as Paktay): It is spoken by about 5 million people.

The Central Thai (Bangkok Thai) is the Standard Thai and is used as the official language of Thailand spoken by people from different parts of Thailand who reside in Bangkok and have active interactions among them. We can also mention here that Thai is a tonal language and the meaning of a word is determined by the tone or pitch of the voice. Thai uses words, usually tacked onto the end of a sentence, called particles, to convey a large number of different functions. Phothisorn (1986) argues that these particles are used in Thai because

\[ ^1 \text{There are five different tones in Bangkok Thai:} \]
\[ ^1 \text{mid, ^2 low, ^3 fall, ^4 high, ^5 rise} \]
the use of intonation of voice to express feelings and moods may interfere with the tone and influence the meaning of a word. Thai has a large number of particles that end an utterance. These particles play an important role in sentence construction and determination of sentence meaning. One of these particles is the question particle. The question particle is placed at the end of a statement to transform it into a question sentence of the type of yes-no question. There are two main question particles that can occur either alone or in combination with other words (such as negation particle, emphatic particle, etc) to form a question, as in example (1).

1) a. khun¹ pay¹ ba:n¹ ru:⁵?  
   you go home QP  
   ‘Are you going home?’

b. khun¹ pay¹ ba:n¹ ru:¹-may¹  
   you go home QP-NEGPs  
   ‘Are not you going home?’

c. khun¹ pay¹ ba:n¹ ru:³, chay¹-may⁵?  
   you go home QP-EMPPs-NEGPs  
   ‘Are you going home, aren’t you?’

The examples discussed above are illustrative of the question particles used in Bangkok Thai. In other regional varieties, there are different particles for question. In the next section, we discuss with relevant examples the different question particles in Bangkok Thai and Northeastern Thai, the two major Thai dialects.

2. Question Particles in Thai

2.1 Bangkok Thai

There are different question particles in different Thai dialects. The question particles in Bangkok Thai are: may¹, may³, ru:³, ru:²-pa:w², and chay'/may¹. Let us look at the contexts in which these question particles are used in Bangkok Thai.

may¹ ([my]): This question particle (QP) is used when the speaker do not know the topic/matter. The speaker wants an answer but does not anticipate whether the answer is positive or negative. An example is given in sentence (2).
2) khun¹ ca¹ pay¹ roK’rian¹ may³
   ‘Will you go to School?’

*may⁴ (หม่):* This is another question particle in Bangkok Thai that is used at the end of an affirmative sentence to make it an interrogative sentence. It is used as a yes-no question particle and seek to know the answer in ‘agreement’ or ‘negatives’ only. An illustrative example is given in (3) below:

3) khun¹ pay¹ ta¹la:t² jiK¹ may³
   ‘You go to market, is it true?’

*ru:⁴ (ว่):* This question particle is used when the speaker knows the speaker or addressee agrees with the proposal in the sentence and just want to confide or in some cases, the speaker do not expect an answer or response from the addressee. The example in (4) is an illustrative sentence.

4) khun¹ pay¹ ta¹la:t² ru:⁵
   ‘Do you go to market?’

*ru:⁵* is also used in the case when the speaker and addressee are talking about a third person, particularly when the speaker asks the addressee to confirm the related matter about the third person. The sentence in (5) is an example for this use of *ru:⁵*.

5) khow⁵ bo:k² ʔK’nan³ ru:⁵
   ‘Does he tell like that?’

*ru’pa:w² (ว่ผาว):* This question particle is used when the speaker has no knowledge of the addressee. That is, the speaker has no presupposed belief/opinion of him/her and the speaker is seriously interested to know/get the answer.

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¹ Sometimes *may⁴* becomes *may³* but in that case it is non formal.
² Sometimes *ru:⁵* has a variant in *ru:⁵*.
6) khun¹ hen³-duay⁴ ru:²-pa:w²
you agree QP
‘Do you agree?’

chay¹-may⁴ (คำถาม): This form is derived from man¹-chay¹+may⁴.
This is used when the speaker needs confirmation as to whether the
matter is true or not. That is, the speaker has some knowledge of the
matter or may be he/she is confident of it but need some re-
confirmation from the addressee. An illustrative example is given in
(7) below.

7) man¹ jiK¹ chay³-may⁶
it true QP
‘Is it true?’

2.2 Northeastern Thai

Northeastern Thai is another major regional variety of the Thai
language spoken in the Northeastern provinces of Thailand. The
question particles used in this Thai dialect are different from Bangkok
Thai. There are four different question particles in Northeastern Thai.
They are: bo³, me:n³-bo⁴, ti:³, and wa:⁵. The different question
particles are used in different functions. Below we discuss the contexts
in which they are used.

bo³ (คำถาม): This is the normal question particle used in yes-no
question sentences. Some of the examples can be seen in (8) below.

8) a. phu:³-?:i:n² hen³ (caw³) bo³
someone see (you) QP
‘Does someone see you?’
b. caw³ hed³ bo³
you do QP
‘Did you do (it)?’
c. pra’sit⁴ si³ ma:¹ bo³
Prasit will come QP
‘Will Prasit come?’

¹Northeastern Thai has six tones: mid, low, mid-falling, high, high-falling, rising and 20
tonal consonants: p, ph, b, m, f, t, th, s, d, n, l, c, j, k, kh, ?, h, w, K, r
bo\'i is also used when the speaker seriously wants to know the answer and needs reconfirmation from the addressee. It also indicates that speaker is close to the addressee and knows him/her well. An example of this use of question particle is given in (9).

9) caw\'si\^\, mu\^\, huan\^\: ni:\^\, bo\'i
   you \ will back home today \ \ QP
   ‘Will you be back home today?’

me\^l\'-bo\'i (\u0251\u0250\u0250\u0250\u0250): This question particle is used in situations where the speaker is seeking confirmation. This is like the tag question constructions of English. The sentence in (10) is an example of this.

10) caw\'\, pay\^\, talak\^\, me\^l\'-bo\'i
    you \ go \ market \ QP
    ‘Do you go to market?’

This use of the question particle also shows that the speaker has presupposed belief/opinion of the addressee in question. That is, the speaker is rather familiar with the addressee.

ti:\^\ (\u0251\u0251): This question particle is used to form yes-no question sentences in situations where the speaker is having some pre-supposed belief/opinion about the matter and the conversation is happening with interest in getting the response. This also has some sense of reaffirming the matter in question. The illustrative examples are given in (11) below.

11) a. caw\'\, pen\^\, nak\^\, lian\^\, ti:\^\,
    you \ be \ student \ QP
    ‘You are a student, aren’t you?’
    b. caw\'\, bo\^\, jack\^\, pen\^\, tam\^\, l\^\, lat\^\, ti:\^\,
    you \ not \ want \ be \ policeman \ QP
    ‘Don’t you want to be a policeman?’

wa\^\ (\u0251\u0254): This particle is like the previous one ti:\^\, However, they differ with respect to the degree of politeness. ti:\^\ is more polite than wa\^\, Therefore both the sentences in (12) are well-formed but the one in (12a) is used to express more politeness than the one in (12b).
12) a. mua¹ ti:³ khab³
   b. mua¹ wa:³ khab³
   go-back QP PP
   ‘Do (you) go back?’

The pragmatics of these question particles in Thai can be briefly presented, in the following manner:

**Bangkok Thai**

1. *may⁴* (มัทยา)
   - presupposed belief
   - information

2. *may⁴* (มัทยา)
   - presupposed belief
   - informal

3. *ru¹* (รู้)
   - presupposed belief
   - information
   - opposed

4. *ru'pa:⁵* (รู้พวกเขา)
   - very interesting
   - informal
   - opposed

5. *chay'may⁴* (ช่วยมา)
   - presupposed belief
   - informal

**Northeastern Thai**

1. *bo'⁴* (บ่)
   - presupposed belief
   - information
   - opposed
   - interest

2. *me:n'-bo'⁴* (ม่นบ่)
   - presupposed belief
   - information
   - opposed
   - tendency of new information

3. *ti:³* (ติ)
   - presupposed belief
   - information
   - opposed
   - very interesting

4. *wa:³* (ว่)
   - presupposed belief
   - information
   - very interesting

5. *chay'may⁴* (ช่วยมา)
   - presupposed belief
   - informal

3. Concluding Remarks

The topic of question particles in Thai is interesting from different points of view. Besides the socio-cultural factors determining a
particular form of the question particles, there are subtle semantic differences that are also responsible for the use of different forms of question particles in Thai languages. We have also seen that different forms of question particles are attested in Bangkok Thai and its regional varieties, particularly the Northeastern variety. Dialectal variations in the use of question particles in Thai can be captured through categorization of their distinctive features and this way there are six bases on which the use of question particles in Thai depend. (i) speaker’s expectation from the addressee, i.e., the speaker may anticipate an answer from addressee, (ii) speaker’s knowledge of the answer, i.e., the speaker may assume an answer herself/himself, (iii) speaker’s confidence in the addressee regarding the answer, (iv) speaker’s presupposed belief in the matter, (v) speaker’s level of interest in getting the answer, (vi) (in) formality of the setting.

In this short paper, we have shown that these criteria are further influenced by the intercultural factors representing the Thai society across the speakers of different Thai dialects.

References


1 QP: Question Particle,
2 EMPP: Emphatic Particle
3 NEGP: Negation Particle
4 PP: Polite Particle
English and Soft Skills

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The Soft Skills

Language coaching will entail, therefore, not only the teaching of grammar or lexis, but also the teaching of work-related skills or, better said, the soft skills. As defined in Career Opportunities News, October 2002, Volume 20, Number 2, Ferguson Publishing Company.

“A soft skill refers to the cluster of personality traits, social graces, facility with language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that marks each of us to varying degrees. Persons who rank high in this cluster, with good soft skills, are generally the people that most employers want to hire. Soft skills complement hard skills, which are the technical requirements of a job. The ideal, of course, is someone strong in both job and personal skills, but as one employer put it in a recent report, Hard Work and Soft Skills, “Don’t worry so much about the technical skills. We need you to teach them how to show up on time, how to work in teams, and how to take supervision”.

As language coaches or communication consultants, teachers will have to dace both teaching and learners differently. They will have to help learners use the language suitably in their working contexts. This will include the insertion of the soft skills in their teaching in a very explicit way. Teaching will, more than ever before, be learner-centered and student-oriented. Teachers can make immediate use of this in their teaching today. By being aware of the fact that we live in an ever-changing world, they must deepen their knowledge of human resources in order to continue providing teaching solutions to their learners' specific needs. The not so distant future will require enhancing the learner's linguistic competence, and preparing them to improve their (inter) cultural competence, i.e. that they are endowed with the extra-linguistic demands of handling the language aptly. By incorporating the soft skills, language coaches will certainly help students achieve their goals.
Speech is an art. It is inevitable for effective communication. Students need to interact orally with their teacher and classmates, make explanation during tutorials and practical session; they should participate in seminars and workshops and technical presentations in an interesting manner. Infact, efficiency in professional knowledge alone does not guarantee success in ones professional career. It is very much essential that knowledge that has been acquired must be presented in an effective manner.

This study presents results of the soft skills and competencies sought in today’s engineering graduates that would be required for a successful engineering professional. In today’s changing global environment many organizations, have voiced the need for few graduates of engineering programmers to have a strong soft-skills emphasis for example, employers need new graduates to be good communicators and to work in multidisciplinary teams of diverse cultural back grounds and differing personality styles.

Therefore, learning institutions are able to align with industry demand to produce graduating engineers with the right king of skills.

Each company focuses on a specific computer language and a candidate who knows that language is given performance. However, in most interviews, soft skills too are given prime importance. The term "Soft Skills" refers to a group of skills and personal qualities that present-day employers look for and value in their employees. Soft skills relate to excellent communication skills, both spoken and written positive personality traits, social skills and personal attitudes. In this sense, soft skills compliment hard skills, which have to do the technical requirements of a job. Hence, you may have the right professional qualification, be academically brilliant and perhaps even have the required work experience, but you will be successful in an organization only if you know, for example, how to work as part of a team or how to get along with both your senior junior colleagues. In other words soft skills are acquired early in life and depend to a great extent on the environment in which you were brought up; they can also be consciously learnt.

It is widely acknowledge that India will soon be facing a serious
manpower shortage. The phenomenal growth that the Indian economy has witnessed in the last decade was largely driven by the growth in the service sector and particularly fueled by industries such as IT services, ITes retail, hospitality travel, and financial services. This growth is now threatened because the effectiveness and growth of India's talent pool has been seriously constrained due to a deepening soft skill crisis. As the employee base larger year, the number of new hires required to sustain of this growth rate has increased sharply, further exacerbating this situation.

Soft skills India was set up to meet the growing needs for soft skills among employees at the entry level and at supervisory and managerial levels in the corporate Sector. We provide customized need assessment and training services in the areas of soft skills and English language skills to corporate India.

**Importance of Soft Skills**

The importance of soft skills is distinct from hard skills or domain knowledge is increasingly being recognized in several sectors of today's highly competitive market place. Research in many field such as sales and marketing, software development, engineering and law, has show that to be successful in the work place, knowledge alone is not enough. Soft skills are needed to deal with the external world and to work in a collaborative manner with one's colleagues Soft skills in India offer several short duration programs to meet the needs of our corporate clientele.

**Communication Skills**

One of the most important soft skills that employers look for proficiency is the use of language. This means the ability to read, write and speak English that can make communication possible. It is however, not enough to know the right words and the appropriate structures. They must also have the skills of knowing when to use standard forms ofr colloquial expressions, what tone to use in different situations, etc. oral communication, public speaking and telephone skills while the written forms that you will need to master or writing of reports, official letters and summaries.
Communicating ideas in the work place is different than in an academic setting. In a classroom, the instructor usually leads group discussion or assigns written homework, and students respond or ask question when directed to do so, in the work place however, the format for interaction varies. Sometimes the company supervisors may specifically ask you for you opinion or ask you to express that opinion in writing. More often than not, however they assume that if they need to know something, you will bring it to their attention. The challenging of communicating in the workplace is learning how and when to share your ideas or concerns.

Listening is also an important communication skill. Employers report that the average entry-level candidate struggles with knowledge how to listen carefully. They may not immediately process essential instruction or be able to understand how their tasks relate to the overall goals of the organization. One way to improve your listening comprehension skills is to ask questions. Other tactics include restating what you thought you heard to confirm you understand, and taking notes.

Presentation Skills

There are many skills that contribute to professional success, no is more important that he ability to communicate orally in front of a group of people. Business people rank oral presentation skills among the most important factors responsible for their success. Oral presentation is a tool of professional and business interaction. Infant, in some organization, institutions, or universities, recruitments is made on the basis of a selection process, which involves oral presentation in the form seminar presentation, short lectures, business presentations or some other forms of oral presentation.

A good presentation can do wonders for a person it may help in getting a lucrative job offer from the company he/she always wanted to join; he/she may get a big business deal or the promotion he/she had been waiting for. On the other hand, a poor presentation of ideas not only reduces the professional image of the person presenting it, but may result in major business or personal loss.
Some Strategies For Good Presentation

- Concentrate on the three P's: planning, preparation, and practice.
- Set realistic goals
- Avoid negative thoughts
- Begin the presentation with a pause
- Speak slowly
- Learn and practice stress reduction techniques.

Checklist For Making An Oral Presentation

- Start with confidence
- Be organized
- Stay relaxed
- Pay attention to body language
- Use appropriate visual aids
- Pay attention to all details
- Close in memorable way

Improving Your Non Verbal Communication Skills

Non verbal communication is important because actions speak louder than words. Body language is more difficult to control than words and may reveal a person's true feelings, motivation is more efficient. With a wave of your hand or a wink, you can streamline your thoughts and so without much thought. Types of nonverbal expression include facial expression, gesture and posture, vocal characteristics, person appearance, touching behavior, and use of time and space.

Pay Close Attention to Nonverbal

1. Avoid giving conflicting signals.
2. Try to be as honest as possible in communication your emotions.
3. Smile genuinely. Faking a smile is obvious to observers.
4. Maintain the eye contact your audience expects.
5. Be aware of your posture and of the gestures you use.
6. Try to use appropriate vocal signal while minimizing unintentional messages.
7. Imitate the appearance of the people you want to impress.
8. Respect your audience's comfort zone.
9. Adopt a handshake that matches your personality and intention.
10. Be aware of varying attitudes towards time.

**Leadership Skills**

Leadership quality incorporates many of the diverse skills and the qualities, and for many of the people it does not come naturally. Good leader is a one who can find balance in managing, disciplining, delegating, instructing, encouraging, and sympathizing. Good leader do strives to accomplish the goal common among most of the leader. To make the people believe in your vision, make them follow you, and do whatever it does take to get a job done. As the manager / leaders, all the eyes are on you. You will be representing the company. Do choose your words carefully, be confident leader, and do make your presence known without being haughty or condescending.

**Ten Skills of Leadership**

1) Understanding the group need and characteristics
2) Knowing and understanding the group resources
3) Controlling a group
4) Counseling
5) Setting an example
6) Representing a group

**Campus Recruitment**

In the employment market where there was less number of jobs than the number of job seekers the employers dictates the terms and called the shots by making selections at their will. The educated youth were at the mercy of the industry. Now also, through the situation is the same, with more opportunities flowing from abroad, it is the educated talents who, after getting trained and getting trained and gaining experience dictate terms by switching jobs so frequently thus
putting owns on the industry to evolve methods to retain the talents and thus reduce manpower turnover. One way is to catch them young, train them for their company needs and retain them by satisfying all their needs, campus recruitment is one way of catching the educated, young.

**Employment**

There is a general cry that unemployment is more in India and the educated youth are not provided with opportunities of good employment. But the reality is that there is more number of unemployables than the unemployed. The reason is that the educated youth are not properly trained for the industry. We have been guided missiles but unguided men. Getting in to the first employment is the most difficult task. Changing employment is easy. Once you are employed with some company the new employer always takes for granted that you have certain special qualities and talents and that’s how you are selected by your previous employer.

**Role of the Students in the Campus Placements**

Though every college takes all efforts to call companies to their campus to recruit their students, it is the students who have to play a major role in it. It is the students who have to meet the managers of various industries with the brochures of the college impress upon them by their apt presentations about the infrastructure, academic activities, intellectual capital, governance, efficiency, discipline and other specialties of the college and of the students. Keeping regular contacts with the managers providing updated information regularly and requesting them to visit their college for campus recruitment, getting information about the companies, visiting other colleges for campus recruitment are some routine functions the students have to do.

**Industry Expectations On Students**

1. Consistent academic performance
2. Excellent attitude, skills and knowledge.
3. Commencement to the organization
4. To be smart well organized and adjusted
5. Integrity, values and wisdom.
Soft Skills: The Competitive Edge

What do employers look for in new employees? According to the 2006 report are they really ready to work? Employer's perspectives on the basic knowledge and applied skills of new entrants to the 21st century U.S workforce, it may not be what some young job seekers expect. This in-depth survey of 461 business leaders conducted by conference board.

Corporate voices for working families, partnership for 21st century skills, and society for Human resource management reveals that while the three "R's" (reading, writing and arithmetic) are still fundamental to every employee's ability to do the job, employers view "soft" skills as even more important to work readiness. The report also finds that younger workers frequently lack these skills, which include:

1. Professionalism or work ethic
2. Oral and written communication
3. Teamwork and collaboration skills
4. Critical thinking or problem-solving skills.

In 2007, the U.S Department of Labor's of Disability Employment Policy (ODEP) discussed the importance of such skills with the circle of champions, a distinguished group of U.S business that have received the secretary of labour's new freedom initiative award for innovative and proactive efforts to recruit, hire, and promote people with disabilities. As part of this dialogue, the companies identified the following competencies as key to the success of young workers in the 21st century workplace.

Conclusion

Soft skills are not normally found on a CV, soft or social 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.

As regards 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. For the teacher the framework of soft skills confirms the ideas that ‘good English teachers will always remain diligent English learners’ and also that ‘students learn best from what their teachers enjoy teaching’. The two qualities inherent to all of the abovementioned requirements of teachers. I.e., their teachers enjoy teaching’. The two qualities essential soft skills are the notion of holistic, situational problem solving, and the willingness to continuously revise one’s own sense of meaning. It is not a closed shop we want to provide access to it is not a finalized book we have to work thought and press home on the learners. Rather, we should try to do our best in achieving two results simultaneously that are vital in view of the ever-changing ‘face’ of English. To enchase our students’ linguistic competence, and to pave ways towards (inter) cultural competence, i.e., prepare them for the extra-linguistic demands that handling language aptly ‘via soft skills will undoubtedly put on them in their careers.
Phono-Stylistics Study on Golding’s “Lord Of The Flies”

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Introduction

Modern Stylistics is regarded as linguistic stylistics when it is based on notions of linguistic foundations of systematic and descriptiveness and is limited to the study of literary texts. But linguistic stylistics is the study of style on linguistic principles. “The element of style exists on the levels of all meaningful linguistic units from word to text and in all kinds of writings either literary or non-literary (Suresh Kumar, 1988:7). As a branch of applied linguistics, linguistic stylistics studies styles of a language. The analysis of linguistics stylistics restricts its investigation within the context of applied linguistics to the study of style in language. And this further, is guided by two inter-related factors known as, linguistic levels and language functions. In linguistic levels, the study of style is done on different categories of linguistic features. Golding’s novel Lord of the Flies has a number of linguistic features that are worth to analyze under stylistics. This paper brings out the salient stylistic features found in the novel at the level of phonology.

Phonostylistics

It studies the features of style at phonological level, which is considered to be the basic level of linguistic analysis. Phonological processes are here considered as style features. They are used to emphasis the point of the author to stress a particular word or sound to reveal its importance in the discourse. They are used to bring out the mood and the intensity of emotion of the characters. Phonological features are used to describe the sociological background too. The analysis of the text of Golding’s Lord of the Flies brings into light certain phonological features such as phonological reduction and modified physical appearance of words etc. These phonological elements are elaborately dealt with examples from the novel.
Phonological Reduction

Golding uses a number of phonological reductions in the discussions of the novel. Specifically, phonologically reduced utterances are made through the character 'Piggy'. In general, the utterances of all the characters have the linguistic feature of phonological reduction.

“They’d tell him at the airport”. (p.14)  
“They’re all dead” said Piggy "this is an island". (p.15)  
“Got’ em just now”. (p.22)  
“You’re chief. You tell’em off”. (p.55)  
“I’ll bring’em back”. (p.79)  
“Well, We shan’t find what we’re looking for at this rate". (p.127)  
“We shan’t hear it". (p.66)  
“I’m goin’ to say”, (p.189)  
“Is it safe? Ain’t there a cliff?”. (p.193)

There are number of unusual phonological reductions found while analyzing the text of Lord of the Flies. Very often they are in line with the use of English in modern technological devices. They also indicate a kind of English use among the peer groups. In this novel such usages are used by the prominent characters. For example:

“What’s yer name?” (p.19)  
“They’re twins, Sam ‘n Eric”. (p.22)  
"Jus ‘ blurs, that's all. Hardly see my hand ________”. (p.45)  
“_____ then you come up here an’ pinch my specs____”. (p.51)  
“D’ you see?”. (p.55)  
"Cos things wouldn't make sense; Houses an' streets,an' Tv - (p.101)  
“What 'ud happen to me?”. (p.102)  
“They ain’t afraid of the dark. They’d meet and have tea and discuss; Then things  
"ud be alright______”. (p.103)  
“What's grown-ups goin’ to think?” (p.189)

In certain cases, the phonological reduction brings into new coinage of words. Golding has created a dictionary of words which come out from the children's mouth. Those coinages are specifically used in
"There isn't more than a ha'porth of meet in a crab". (p.80)
"But s'pose they don't make sense?" (p.101)
"What 'ud happen to me?" (p.102)
"He hates me. I dunno why."
"'P'raps we ought to go too" (p.163, 173)
"You lemme go______". (p.201)

The above cited sentences have certain parts of the words trimmed, adjoined or newly coined. This is one of the specialties that Golding renders to the language. Though they are differently used, yet they serve their purpose well. That is, everyone is communicated the message correctly. And also they seem to suggest that language can be simplified in every work of art.

**Phonological Stress and Intonation**

The role of stress and intonation plays a vital role in determining the meaning either etically or emically. J.R. Firth (1969:193) has reported of evidence of some correlation of sounds with shapes. He states that "the general feature of voice quality is part of the phonetic mode of meaning of an English boy, a Frenchman, or a lady from New York. Stress is given to certain words or phrases by writers in order to give a special emphasis to that word or phrase in a particular context.

The selection of linguistic units with a certain phonological pattern has a special significance always. "Features of stress and intonation are stylized to reinforce the expressiveness of the message of the text in phon medium in different kinds of situations, such as recitation of poems, delivery of sermons, lawyer's speech in the courtroom, an advertisement on radio or television, etc" (Suresh Kumar,1988:35). As a novelist, Golding has utilized this phenomenon in *Lord of the Flies*. He has used this phonological pattern to give certain emphasis and importance to the word or sound in that particular context. For example:

"______ moo-ed like a cow", he (Piggy) said. (p.17)
"Sche-aa-ow!" (p.12)
"Whee-aa-oo!" (p.30)
"Yes-Yes-oh-!" (p.212)
"I'm frightened. Of us. I want to go home". (p.173)
"'Boy-you-are-driving-me-slowly-insane!'" (p.106)
"'I wish my father. O, what's the use?" (p.102)
... I know about me. And him. (p.102);

Modified Physical Appearances

The physical appearance of a word or a phrase has a significant role in phonostylistic analysis. To differentiate the sound variation or to give a special emphasis to the utterance, or to give a significant meaning according to the context, the words or phrases are physically modified. In Lord of the Flies Golding has used such phonolinguistic features to connotate the difference in contextual meaning and emphasis. The analysis of such phonolinguistic features is classified under three categories such as; Capitalization, Italicization and Inverted Codes. They are being analyzed with relevant examples from Lord of the Flies.

Capitalization

Normally, in English language every sentence begins with a Capital letter. In certain writings, one may find number of capitalization within the sentences. That too, becomes normal when used with names of persons, places and great events. But, Golding uses capital letters within the sentences and even within words to give the phonological stress to the particular word or unit. The usage of such capitals in Lord of the Flies is enumerated below.

"......He's a commander in the Navy." (p.14)
"......I can sing C sharp". (p. 23)
"The chief has Spoken". (p.155)
"Huh, Remember old Waxy at school?" (p.106)
"You are. Over us". (p.172)

Golding begins all the chapters in Lord of the Flies with a word or phrase or a sentence in total capitals. The analysis of such capitalization does not find any significance in the novel. Hence, it
can be viewed as Golding's style of beginning a new chapter in the novel.

- THE BOY with fair hair lowered himself down…... (p.7)
- BY THE TIME Ralph finished blowing the conch……...(p.35)
- JACK WAS BENT double. (p.52)
- THE FIRST RHYTHM that……(p.63)
- THE TIDE was coming in and……...(p.83)
- THERE WAS NO light left save that of the stars. (p.104)
- THE PIG-RUN kept close to the jungle of rocks…..(p.120)
- PIGGY LOOKED UP miserably…….(p.137)
- OVER THE ISLAND……..(p.160)
- PIGGY EYED the advancing figure carefully.(p.171)
- IN THE SHORT chill of dawn…….(p.187)
- RALPH LAY in a covert, wondering about his words. (p.202)

**Italicization**

This is another linguistic feature which is closely associated with phonostylistics. Italicization of certain words, phrases or sentences set apart them from the rest. Thus, they have certain significances at that particular context. *Lord of the Flies* has certain sentences in italics repeatedly occurring in the novel.

"No, I'm not. I just think you'll get back all right". (p.122)
"Kill the pig! Cut his throat! Kill the Pig! Bash him in!" (p.126)
What's more, I don't sometimes. Supposing I got like the others not caring.-
What 'ud become of us?"

Here, the 'I' does not refer to individual personality of Ralph but, his responsibility as the elected chief of the boys.

"Kill the beast! Cut his throat! Spill his Blood!" (p.167, 168)
"Kill the beast! Cut his throat! Spill his blood! Do him in!" (p.168)

"Well- what is the good?" - Here the 'is' is a significant unit. The
boys are tired of keeping the fire and they find it no good yet there is a compulsion for them to keep the fire going. The goodness in keeping the fire at this level of being in a tropical island is indeed the only way of the boys' rescue. Hence, 'is' has the significant meaning of 'only' and 'the best'.

**Inverted Codes**

Golding has used certain words and phrases within inverted codes to signify their phonological implications in that context. They are being dealt with examples below.

- But not "Come on" to the top
- We'll have to have "Hands up" like at school. (p.36)
- Piggy discounted all this learnedly as a "mirage". (p.63)

The smaller boys are known now by the generic title of "littluns". (p.64)

The analysis of the phonological features of style in *Lord of the Flies* shows a variety of phonolinguistic units being used by Golding. Apart from this, he uses a narrative technique to express the mood and intensity of the characters in the novel. For example:

- Jack turned and looked back at Ralph. For a moment he paused and then *cried out, high-pitched*, enraged. "___ No!" (p.141)

- "Someone was moaning outside and a babble of voices rose. A fierce argument was going on and the wounded savage kept groaning. Then when there was silence, a single voice spoke and Ralph decided that it was not Jack's". (p.214) such narrations help one to exclude the phonological elements to greater extend.

**Conclusion**

The analysis of the novel at phonological level brings out the intricate and explicit stylistic features deployed by Golding in the novel. Certain Linguistics features such as phonological reductions are used by Golding to differentiate the standard of the language use by the characters especially, the character Piggy is used to utter such words and sentences. It is also an indication of the kind of English used among the school children and peer groups. Phonostylistics features
are also used to reinforce the expressiveness of the message of the text in different kinds of situations.

Physically modified words are used to differentiate the sound variation or to give a special emphasis to the utterance. It is also deployed to give a significant meaning according to the context. Golding has manipulated the Capitalization and Italicization of letters within the sentences and even within words to give the phonological stress to the particular word or unit. The study has brought into light the different Phonostylistics features deployed by Golding to suit his purpose in the novel.

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An Ethno Linguistic Study of Cultural Terms
(With special reference to Po:Du Soliga and Kurumba South Dravidian Tribal Dialects)

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CAS in Linguistics, Annamalai University

Introduction

Nilgiris in Tamilnadu can be rightly taken as a replica of India. Nilgiris is a small hilly district where one can meet very many distinct languages though they all belong to one and the same family of languages, namely Dravidian. The present work cover only two tribes, i.e., Kurumbas (Kannada speaker only) and Po:Du Soliga (Kannada speaker). These two tribes have retained their culture in the language context of home and outside situation.

Kinship

Kinship means that the personal relationship by blood and sometimes by marriage. The system of social relationships connecting peoples in culture, who are or are hold to be related and defining and regulating their reciprocal obligations (Ref: Webster's third new international dictionary).

Linguistics and Anthropology deal with language and culture in their own fields. Here, the researcher takes two languages, Soligas and Kurumbas (Kannada speakers only i.e. je: nu kurumbar and A: lu kurumbar) for the ethno linguistic study. Totally these tribal people dialects of Kannada with Tamil (linguistics) and cultural influences. So there speech contains a number of lexical differences. These lexical differences are depending upon there age, sex, clans, linguistic enculturation of the child or acculturation of others. (i.e. education, economic upliftment, status of jobs). Ethno linguistic study is based on the observation of living languages and their local variations. These variations suggest that a language does not ordinarily divide clearly at the given moment of time, but gradually develops differences among its region as the result of innovations that appear in wave like fashion to the neighboring ones, attaining
sometimes wider and sometimes narrower extensions.

This paper deals with Kinship terms of soliga and kurumba tribal people. The kinship terms always been understood to form an important semantic structure. There are certain bound forms of certain kinship terms. Prof. M. B. Emeneau has discussed these terms in language 29, p. 339 "Dravidian kinship term 1". Here I have adopted the lexico-graphical model suggestion by Dr. A. R. Kelkar in this treatment of Marathi kinship term 2, and the principles suggested in Kroeber's classificatory system of Relationship 3. This presentation takes place on a discussion of a non-literate generally they belong to traditional aboriginal society.

There have been good deals of controversy regarding the labels 'descriptive' and 'classificatory'. In this presentation 'classificatory' does not have a recursive definition implying indefinite extension and its use to designate definite groups of relatives, Greenberg's logical distinction between the above two domains of the term 'classificatory' may be referred to in this connection. Most of the relations expressed by the following kin terms are asymmetrical, only a few as symmetrical.

1. Prof. M. B. Emeneau, Dravidian kinship terms, languages 29 p-399.

Although principles suggested by Kroebar, such as 1) generation, 2) blood or marriage, 3) lineal or collateral, 4) sex of relative, 5) sex of speaker, 6) sex of connecting relative and 7) condition of connecting relative has been exploited by the tribe, they have not been maximally utilized. In fact no speech community is known to have maximally exploited all the principles utilized and therefore the asymmetry in the system is not surprising.

According to Iravathi karvey, when a kinship term is not reflect the correct kinship usage, than the very disharmony between the
word and the usage becomes significant social fact useful for the
construction of the cultural history of a people. Mazumdar accounts
for the polyandry system, of various tribes in his books i.e., 1)
polyandry system is one in which a single female marries more than
one male at a time or in due course of time all of them living. According
to Emeneau (1953) the fused construction involving in the kinship
term is a proto-Dravidian feature.

In the following section are divided into three parts. They are 1)
list of abbreviations, 2) corpus of soliga and kurumba terms and 3)
comments and suggestions on the presentation of data.

1. List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Fa</th>
<th>Elder Brother</th>
<th>eBr</th>
<th>A: lu Kurumba</th>
<th>AK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>Younger Brother</td>
<td>yBr</td>
<td>Je: nu Kurumba</td>
<td>JK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Son</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Elder sister</td>
<td>eSr</td>
<td>Offspring of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daughter</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>Younger sister</td>
<td>ySr</td>
<td>Son in law</td>
<td>Sl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>Br</td>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Daughter in law</td>
<td>Dl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Sr</td>
<td>Sibling</td>
<td>So</td>
<td>Grand son</td>
<td>Gs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>Sp</td>
<td>Grand daughter</td>
<td>GD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Kinsmen</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>Standard Kannada</td>
<td>SK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Soliga</td>
<td></td>
<td>Soliga</td>
<td>So</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The logical analysis of kinship, Joseph H. Greenberg, Philosophy
2. Karvey Iravathi, 1940, kinship terminology and kinship usages
   of the Maratha country; Bulletin of the Deccan collage, Vol.1,
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3. Mazumdar D.N. 1944, The fortunes of primitive tribes, Lucknow

2. Corpus of Soliga and Kurumba Kinship Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th>Soliga</th>
<th>Kurumba</th>
<th>SK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fa</td>
<td>appa</td>
<td>appa</td>
<td>tande</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>avve</td>
<td>avve</td>
<td>amma, ta:yi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Also ego’s spouse’s father. The word treated with respect of often considered as somewhat greedy and unwise in the ways of the contemporary world. A man with a marriageable daughter may be addressed as ‘ba: va’ by the intending suitor, thereby implicitly expressing his desire (sometimes even explicitly stated) to marry the girl.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>magan</th>
<th>magan</th>
<th>maga</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>maga</td>
<td>maga</td>
<td>magalu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eBr</td>
<td>anna</td>
<td>anna</td>
<td>anna</td>
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<tr>
<td>yBr</td>
<td>tamma</td>
<td>tamma</td>
<td>Tamma</td>
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<td>esr</td>
<td>akka</td>
<td>akka</td>
<td>akka, attige</td>
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<td>ysr</td>
<td>tange</td>
<td>tange</td>
<td>tangi</td>
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<tr>
<td>female ego’s H</td>
<td>gandu</td>
<td>gandu</td>
<td>ganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male ego’s w</td>
<td>eteti</td>
<td>eteti</td>
<td>hendati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p’sF</td>
<td>ba:va</td>
<td>ba:va</td>
<td>ba:va, ma:va</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F’sFa</td>
<td>*ta:ta</td>
<td>ta:ta</td>
<td>ajja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F’sMo</td>
<td>*amma</td>
<td>amma,ajji</td>
<td>ajji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F’seBr</td>
<td>doddappa</td>
<td>doddappa</td>
<td>doddatande</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F’syBr</td>
<td>cikkappa</td>
<td>cikkappa</td>
<td>Cikkatande</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mo’sBr</th>
<th>ba: va</th>
<th>ba:va</th>
<th>1.ma:va</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ego’s sr’s s/or female</td>
<td>ba: maydon</td>
<td>ba: maydon</td>
<td>1.ma:va</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ego’s it’s sr’s S</td>
<td>ba: mayda</td>
<td>ba: mayda</td>
<td>2.bha:va atte</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fa’s Sr’s S</th>
<th>1.anna</th>
<th>anna</th>
<th>1.anna</th>
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<tr>
<td>2.tamma</td>
<td>tamma</td>
<td>2.tamma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fa’s Sr’s S</td>
<td>1.anna</td>
<td>anna</td>
<td>1.anna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.tamma</td>
<td>tamma</td>
<td>2.tamma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fa’s Sr’s D</td>
<td>1.anna</td>
<td>anna</td>
<td>1.anna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.tamma</td>
<td>tamma</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fa’s eBr’s W</th>
<th>doddavve</th>
<th>doddavve</th>
<th>1.doddata:yi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.doddamma</td>
<td>2.doddamma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Recent Advances in Linguistics


Other than the Kinship Terms

1. Woman  engu su  engu su  hengasu  engu su  hengasu  Kuma:ri, yavgirl, yavake
2. Unmarried girl - - - - Kumari, yavgirl, yavake

3. Boy  Uduga  Uduga  Uduga  Uduga  Uduga  Uduga
4. Girl 1. udugi 1. udugi 2. ennu 2. ennu 2. ennu 2. ennu
5. Family  Katumba  Katumba  Katumba  Katumba  Katumba  Katumba
6. Orphan  ana:dri  ana:dri  tabbali  ana:dri  tabbali  ana:dri  tabbali
7. Step father sa:kappa  sa:kappa  Malatande  sa:kappa  Malatande  sa:kappa  Malatande
9. Master  ejaman  ejaman  Odeya  ejaman  Odeya  ejaman  Odeya
12. Leader (male) talaivaru  talaivaru  ejama:n  talaivaru  ejama:n  talaivaru  ejama:n
13. Leader (female) ejamavagatti  ejamavagatti  ejama:ni  ejamavagatti  ejama:ni  ejamavagatti  ejama:ni
Kroeber has listed eight kinds of differences between kinsmen which a kinship term may or may not recognize. One may summarize what we have studied under those eight kinds. First of all there are differences of generation and in our system, the grand father, father, son and the grandson are clearly distinguished though a few more generations of ancestors are attempted to be distinguished. The kinship system presented here shows the tendency to acquire new labels under bilingual situations. Some of them are adopted and assimilated and the rest stick out and point towards borrowing. These are not any separate words like "parent", "off spring" and "spouse" in soliga and kurumba dialect speech. It is no wonder that there are no general terms for the ascending generation for such terms as "off spring" and "spouse" in his culture.

A few of alternate Tamil forms available competing with the existing soliga and kurumba terms. The enlargement or modification of the system through borrowing with further contact of the tribe with the neighboring Tamil speaking population will certainly prove to be an interesting study if pursued. Besides the above, terms such as 'ta:ta', 'amma', 'talaivaru' and 'sine:gatan' which are borrowed items from the neighboring Tamil sources can be studied from the different dimension.

Some of the standard Kannada alternatives to the existing soliga and kurumba terms. The ascending gradient of impact of this process of linguistic borrowing may be viewed as co-existence-replacement-modification of the system. Apart from the linguistic problems created by this borrowing, they can be viewed as a process of progressive
Hindustan of the community with their increasing contact with the neighbouring caste Hindu society. One of the assumptions underlying the motivation of linguistic borrowing is the imitation of the high status model. The ration of replacement of the soliga and kurumba terms by the corresponding competing standard Kannada terms, when studied may give a clue to the nature of bilingual contact and the relative speed of the impact of one culture on another.

Under the circumstance of constant usage, familiarity and status acquisition, the hypothesis, "borrowed terms drive away native terms from usage" may be put forward and tested in the context of this study of the ratio of replacement. It is interesting to note a parallel situation in standard Kannada. Those who consider the use English words as a mark of education, refinement or elegance, use the English word "wife" instead of soliga and kurumba term "etati". The term may be viewed in the progressive scale of native element reflecting a change in attitudes and the outlook of the educated community.

The Soliga and kurumba kinship terms, as presented here, illustrate some interesting points in the system. The terms of address as distinct form the terms of appellation of mention, are available for only few items. These few exclusively address forms are used for either youngsters or for elders having extremely close relationship. In any case this shows that in this culture address forms indicate relations having close familiarity and affection.

The word "ba: va" complex and the system of cross cousin marriage is also of some interest. It is pointed out in the lexicon "ba: va" is the ego's mother's brother. Due to the prevalent custom of the cross cousin marriage is preferential and not obligatory. At the present it is voluntary, though a recognized pattern of relationship. 'ba: va' is a respected person, but is considered somewhat greedy and unwise in the ways of the contemporary world.

In a society where every girl earns a price for the parents, the consideration of "ma: va" as somewhat greedy is understandable. When a person with a marriageable daughter is addressed as "ma: va" by an unrelated young man, it only expresses his intention to offer himself as well as appellative for mention. This term is often
used as a substitute for 'ma: va' by a perfect bilingual. Sometimes
the use of this term reflects the mood and the temper the man using
it.

First of all the motivation behind the general acquisition of words
must be viewed as distinct from the usage as the particular term. Sec-
ondly, even in the use of a foreign term for purpose of expressing
exasperation, annoyance or abuse, the underlying mental attitude is
one of superiority. The strange of foreign word has edges and gives
a kind if superior confidence, which is not obtained from the much
used indigenous term. Two sets of terms are available I this culture
foe 'brother' and 'sister' depending on the sex of the speaker. The
rational for such relationship among brothers may be sought in the
cross cousin marriage.

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Parameters Behind the Classification of Technical Terms in VIII Standard Tamil Science Text Book

N. Gopalakrishnan
Language Division, Kolkata

Introduction

Technical terms differ from Ordinary words. Ordinary words have a form, meaning and function. But they do not have a technical function of usage. Ordinary words are used by all the language users in day to-day activities. But technical terms used only in technical contexts such as science, medicine, commerce etc.

Scope

In the present study an attempt is made to identify a structural organization of the scientific technical terms found in the 8th Standard Science Text Books. Structural linguistics methodology is employed while analyzing and classifying the structure of various technical terms. So this study is taxonomic in its procedure. Further research may be directed by administering tests with a view to identify the difficulties of learning the technical terms and to detect the frequency of the technical terms used in the Science Text Books. Once the difficulties and the casual factors are identified measures of simplification, Standardizations and modernization of technical terms can be taken methodology:

In this study the technical terms found in the 8th Standard Science Text Books were collected by means of a complete reading of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Text Books roughly about thousand words which were felt to be technical were collected. Then having omitted those terms which are popular and general, 600 terms were selected for analysis. These chosen words are classified on the basis of linguistic and non-linguistic factors and also on the basis of form and meaning. Borrowed words, native words, simple words, compound words, complex words are some of the general words identified in the technical terms.
Parameters behind the classification of technical terms:

Technical terms are considered as special words with a delimited specialized meaning and a characteristic domain based usage. Technical terms are create or coined by adopting normal language forms without any or with some modification of their form and meaning, or employing structural or grammatical process ever existing items or by borrowing items from other languages. The historical processes or mechanism of language change are employed in the formation of technical terms. Once a term is adopted or created, its establishment as technical terms will be governed by various factors, one of which is its popularization in the specific scientific domain. A term is made popular if all scientist accept it is adapt term. If it is not accepted as an apt term then the term will be revised or discarded.

Various parameters can be identified for the classification technical terms. Since technical terms are in plenty in any domain, some kind of information has to be provided to generalize the different structural make up of technical terms. Generalization about the structure of technical terms will not only reveal the productive word forming devices in specific languages through which technical terms were created but also will save a way for the creation of new technical terms as wan when the need arises.

The following are the parameters which are assumed while attempting the classification of technical terms in science in Tamil.

1. Technical terms found in General science domain

- mintaDai ‘Resistance’
- va: T ‘Watt’ (physics)
- soDiyam ‘Sodium’
- uppu ‘Salt’ (Chemistry)
- ami: ba ‘Amoeba’
- aTTaikal ‘leachier’ (Zoology)

2. Technical terms found in specific scientific domains

- nembuko:l ‘lifting rod’
- aLuttamani ‘Manometer’
- ni:lam ‘length’ (mechanics, Physics)
- minvil ‘Electric are’
- Minkalam ‘Photo electric cell’ (Electricity, Physics)
3. Technical terms which are single words
   i) Native words
      *akaTu* ‘Trough’
      *MakaTu* ‘Crest’
      *Uppu* ‘Salt’
   ii) Borrowed words:
      *ki:yar* ‘Gear’
      *sivitch* ‘Switch’
      *vairus* ‘Virus’

4. Compound technical terms
   i) Native:
      *minnal kaTatti* ‘Lightning Arrestor’
      *kuRimuL’* ‘Pointer’
   ii) Borrowed:
      *milli miTTar* ‘Milli Meter’
      *haydire ponkaL* ‘Hydro phones’
   iii) Borrowed + Native:
      *spirit viLakku* ‘Spirit Lamp’
      *elecktra: n Ce: rppu* ‘Addition of electron’

5. Derived technical terms
   i) Native:
      *paccai-yam* ‘Chlorophyll’
      *muTukk-am* ‘Acceleration’
      *nIr-mam* ‘Liquid’
   ii) Borrowed:
      *perisko: ppu* ‘Periscope’
      *ammi: TTar* ‘Ammeter’
   ii) Borrowed + Native:
      *kiyar-kaL* ‘Gears’
      *suvitou-kaL* ‘Switches’

6. Lengthened
   Shortened technical terms
   i) Native:
      *Ce: mi / cenTi miTTar* ‘Centimeter’
ii) Borrowed:

Di.en.e: ‘deoxi ribo nuclic acid’

7. Normal

Symbols/ formulas Technical terms:

i) Borrowed:

Mg/ ‘Magnesium’

HCL ‘Hydro choleric amilem’

8. Normal: figure

i) Borrowed:

\[ \Delta / \] heat,

-\[ \rightarrow \] ‘switch’

-I I-l ‘Botany’

9. Borrowed : Native

i) Borrowed:

vairus ‘virus’, amiba ‘ameba’

ii) Native:

pu: njai ‘funguses’

kanukka: likaL ‘Orthopodes’

10. Borrowed with sound modification

Va:lv - val: va ‘valve’

Vitamin - vaiTTa ‘vitamin’

11. Borrowed Transliterated; Translated.

i) Transliteration:

Puro: TTa so: va ‘protozoan’

maikran ‘micron’

cellulo:s ‘cellulose’

ii) Translated:

aLuttam ‘pressure’

vinatu: kki ‘catalyst’

uyir vali/a:ksijan ‘oxygen’

caviTu paravaL ‘Osmosis’

iii) Partially translated

Haydro cloorik amilam ‘Hydro choleric acid’

Amila aaksaiddu ‘acidic oxide’

aapiLtan ATukku ‘principle’
12. Native items

i) Found already:  
- Niilam  
  “length”  
- Atirvu  
  “Vibration”  
- Parappu  
  “area”  

ii) Created:  
- tinNnam  
  “solid”  
- maTukkam  
  “acceleration”  
- akaccivappu katir  
  “infra red rays”  

13. Specialized : met aphorized

metanymsi  “technical term”

i) Specialized  
- Uppu  
  “salt”  
- aTTai  
  “leeches”  
- purccaTTam  
  “exoskeleton”  

ii) Metaphor  
- taNDu  
  “stem”  
- vil  
  “are’”  
- muL  
  “point”  

iii) metonym:  
- juul  
  “jool”  
- erk  
  “unit”  


i) Antonymous:  
- Amilam X kaaram  

ii) Polysemous  
- Naarkal  “fibres”  

iii) Hyponymous  
- aaTi – kooLaka aaTi  
  kuvi aaTi  “convex”  
  kuLi aaTi  “concave”  

Conclusion

Some of these classification parameters are utilized for the classification of the technical terms found in 8th standard science text books. It may very much useful to the school children to detect the difficulties in learning the technical terms.
References

1. Thirumalai M.S., 1979, *Language in science*
English Language Teaching (ELT) through Language Teaching Softwares (LTS)

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Benefits of English Learning Software

There are several means of teaching English language. But there are very few to say as advanced in teaching English language. Among the very few the English language teaching software are the most modern and innovative by providing a lot of benefits for the English language teachers. These software make benefit by providing all information in one source called Electronic Media. One benefit of using software over more traditional methods is the reduced costs involved. There are no tuition fees, transportation costs, or inflated costs for textbooks. Additionally, you can learn at your own pace, with no class deadlines. It is a flexible alternative if working and don't have the time to go to classes or tuition. No exams, assignments, or stressful presentations...just the joy of learning a new language through creatively put together lessons, include audio, visual, text. You can learn from the comfort of your own home, and even study with a friend or a partner. Lastly, using software is an incredibly effective tool for language learning because of the range of media involved, as well as the opportunity for practicing over and over until it is perfect. Use language learning software for an entertaining way of learning.

Role of IT Education Companies in English Language Teaching

The IT education companies play a vital role by providing the English language teaching through the electronic media. They can refer I.T. Education Company New Zealand Ltd (ITECNZ) who are the specialists in software to develop the reading abilities and thinking skills of people from 4 to 99 years old. Effective Software Programs for Learning at School, in the home or at work. Students on the dyslexic spectrum often face extra challenges when reading. We supply programs such as Phenomena, Cross-Trainer and Lexica.
Reading software specifically designed to make a significant impact by addressing the crucial areas of short term working memory, auditory discrimination, visual spatial memory and phonological awareness. Visual and auditory memory has a major impact when learning to read. Lexica Learning Systems provides research based literacy and cognitive development software. The literacy programs consist of reading development programs as well as comprehensive and quick reading tests. These tests identify literacy needs and place students on appropriate tasks in age appropriate reading programs.

**Online Teaching for Children**

The best English language Teaching made at the childhood results good in future to acquire advanced level language skills. Brightmind.com is an award-winning home shopping company established in 2000 and committed to the importance of fun learning at home. With no less than 4 National Mail Order Awards (including the ECMOD 2005 Award for best mail order business in our category). They try to serve their level best and if they get it wrong sort it out. They aim to help you with your child’s learning and development by bringing the latest educational products which support the UK Curriculum and pointing you in the direction of other sources of information.

**Online English Learning Provider**

Online English learning provider offers innovative solutions for your English learning needs. Aside from offering dynamic translation tools, which allows instant translations from English to German, English to Chinese, and English to Vietnamese, it also uses the latest technology to promote continuous learning by integrating all its English learning tools such as the Clicktionary, the Clever Trainer, the Clever Handy, the Clever Course, and the Word Reminder. Clever learn combines English expertise with the latest technology to bring about innovative web-based learning. It also makes use of the SMS technology, Palm Handhelds, Pocket PC, and the PDA device to enhance English skills. Academic software: (core-learning.com) Core Learning offers educational software, academic software and other educational resources for teachers or home school educators. Visit
Core-Learning.com for more information and free demos. They are a private company founded by a group of professional educators and parents who share not only concerns but also insights into education and the role of technology in education. Core Learning is incorporated in the U.S.A. and Canada. They maintain warehouse facilities in Dallas, Texas and Toronto. Their Core Learning’s mission is to bring quality educational resources to school and learning environments where fundamental skill development is valued as a basis for higher learning and life skills.

The following are some selective online providers for better English language teaching:

1) Beggeetta English Teacher Software. (Http://www.baggetta.com)
   For English teachers, students more productive with interactive literary software featuring short story, poetry, shakespeare, lesson plan, curriculum mapping.

2) Language learning products at Logoi.com: Logoi.com is a site dedicated to teaching and learning foreign languages, as well as exploring ways in which technology can be utilized in this quest. They host articles and essays related to languages, these resources are free to the public. Moreover, their content is not only free to browse; it is also free in the other direction: if you have a paper relevant to our field, send it us and we will review it or, if our editors recommend it, even publish it on our site. Although their focus is on education, Logoi.com is a commercial site: they sell foreign language learning software developed with our partners.

3) English Learning.com: Their products are helping millions improve their English pronunciation! Do you understand people when they are speaking English to you? Do people understand you when you are speaking English to them? If you said “No” to either of these questions, we have an easy, affordable solution to your problem.

4) Pronunciation pattern.com: American English pronunciation software based on phonics helps you learn, correct & improve, and perfect English pronunciation & listening through phonics rules and phonetic patterns. Pronunciation Patterns is an American
English pronunciation software which groups 4,000 commonly used English words by patterns and has hundreds of phonics rules to help you learn, correct, improve, and perfect your English pronunciation within one year.

5) English products.com: Currently, they have 1070 languages listed. They have products available for 800 languages. Thousands of English language related products ad information including Movies, Travel, Spell Checkers, ESL-English as Second Language, Tutorials, and much more at WorldLanguage.com

6) English.edulang.com: Edulang develops, publishes and markets training software for the schools, universities and companies.

**Different Software available for Teaching English Language**

1. **Bit Day Studio** (Bitday.com / bitday studio) Provide English learning software - VOA Special English Assistant. One-click download VOA Special English programs, both transcripts and MP3 audios. Auto replay each sentences with built-in player. Make comments on the editable transcripts. Transfer MP3 audios to your MP3 player. Provide English learning software - VOA Special English Assistant. One-click download VOA Special English programs, both transcripts and MP3 audios. Auto replay each sentences with built-in player. Make comments on the editable transcripts. Transfer MP3 audios to your MP3 player. Bit Day Studio. Provide English learning software - VOA Special English Assistant. One-click download VOA Special English programs, both transcripts and MP3 audios. Auto replay each sentences with built-in player. Make comments on the editable transcripts. Transfer MP3 audios to your MP3 player. It has a limited vocabulary of 1500 words. Most are simple words that describe objects, actions or emotions. Some are more difficult. They are used for reporting world events and describing discoveries in medicine and science. It is written in short, simple sentences that contain only one idea. No idioms are used. It is spoken at a slower pace, about two-thirds the speed of standard English. This helps people learning English hear each word clearly. It also helps people who are English speakers understand complex subjects. Speed Reading, Reading Improvement and Assessment by stepware.com StepWare,
Inc. - Creator of AceReader Speed Reading Software. AceReader is a Self Improvement, Educational, and Productivity tool. Assess and Improve your reading skills. AceReader is referred to as: Reading Improvement Software; Reading Assessment Software; Productivity Reading Tool; Self-Improvement Educational Reading Tool; Reading Fluency Software; vision training software.

2. Lexia Reading Software (www.appcomp.co.nz) Lexia Learning Systems, Inc. is made up of professionals in education, reading research, software programming, graphics design, speech, and business, who are dedicated to the creation of unique software which facilitates the learning process for those in need. Lexia's interactive reading software helps students of all ages strengthen skills through engaging exercises. Determine students' reading strengths and weaknesses with Lexia's reading assessment software. To ensure that Lexia's software is used in an optimal manner we provide professional development training programs for schools and institutions. Please contact us for more details.

3. English Learning Tools and Translation Software (cleverlearn.com) educational game software, English (ESL) learn software, math learning software, spelling practice software, unique features, and more! For more than 10 years, we have been providing thousands of satisfied users with easy-to-use and cost-effective software that run on their existing Windows personal computers. Our main products are English Practice, Spelling Practice, English Teaching Tool, MemorizeIt, Speed Reading Trainer, WordSearch, Math Practice, Math Brick (Game), Math Time Table (Game), Typing Practice, and Alphabetic Puzzle. We also have about 200 other educational programs which include games, puzzles, and tests. For more than 10 years, we have been providing thousands of satisfied users with easy-to-use and cost-effective software that run on their existing Windows personal computers. Our main products are English Practice, Spelling Practice, English Teaching Tool, MemorizeIt, Speed Reading Trainer, WordSearch, Math Practice, Math Brick (Game), Math Time Table (Game), Typing Practice, and Alphabetic Puzzle. We also have about 200 other educational programs which include games, puzzles, and tests.
4. Study Material providing software (Englishcaster.com)  
Welcome to the Englishcaster, the best place to find English lesson podcasts and other study materials. Englishcaster is for both students and educators: EFL, ESL, TESOL, TEFL. You can listen to, rate, review and submit podcasts, as well as other English study resources. Best of luck with your studies, and be sure to cast your vote at Englishcaster.

5. Pronunciation practice software (eslsoftware.com)  
ESLSoftware.com is the World’s most popular English learning software. Their variety of ESL packages focus on all learning levels and skill areas (comprehensive (all skills), writing, speaking/pronunciation, listening, grammar, vocabulary and TOEFL/TOEIC Preparation).

On Line Reading and Literacy Program  
(advanceyoureducation.com.au)

M/s. Mathemagic Computer Tutor and Phonica are the advanced Education Resources provides specialized education resources that give Australians the best opportunities to excel at school and beyond. Phonic is a reading and literacy program that helps children read fluently and accurately, understand what they read, and write accurately with correct spelling. Phonic is based on extensive research into literacy development and is suitable for children who are just beginning to read, or those who are struggling. It’s also great for people learning English as a second language. Following are some selective online literacy providers for English language teaching:

1. auralog.com: Online foreign language courses and CD-ROM software for learning a second language. English learning software, Spanish learning software, French learning software, Italian learning software, Chinese learning software, Japanese learning software, German learning software, Arabic learning software

2. vnisoft.com : English literacy, ESL, ESOL reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation software program for adult learners. Interactive Windows CDROM with multimedia audio, video, feedback, recording, tracking, learning and
testing and tutorials. The CD-ROM VNI Learn English by Phonics teaches you how to pronounce English precisely by the American phonetic method. This method was approved and used by most School Districts in The United States of America. It is an easy way to practice English in a most efficient way. This method also helps learners to increase their ability in reading and spelling. This software also includes other sections for you to improve your English such as: spelling, reading, testing, and an easy-to-learn Talking Pictures Dictionary. The new CD-ROM Learn English by Pictures helps you to learn English with pronunciation, picture, and definition for each English word in this program. This software package also includes a Talking Pictures Dictionary with auto learn feature, which helps you to learn English words faster and more effectively. There are also tests in order to verify your learning skill as well as answers to improve your English knowledge.

3. whitesmoke.com: WhiteSmoke 2009 is an advanced English writing software solution. Features include: grammar checker, style checker, spell checker, punctuation checker, and an English dictionary-thesaurus. WhiteSmoke 2009 is an innovative proofreading and editing tool with a single aim - to help you write better. Whether you simply want to compose well-written emails to family and friends, or you need professional results for business and corporate settings, WhiteSmoke consistently delivers. Use WhiteSmoke with MS Word, Outlook, and all other text-based programs.

4. berlinwall.co.au: EyeSpeak English is the ultimate in English language learning software, ideal for the beginner to advanced learner of English (for ages 7 - adult). Improve your English pronunciation, listening comprehension and vocabulary skills for business, travel, education and social events easily and naturally through EyeSpeak's use of native speakers of English and everyday language. With EyeSpeak improve your spoken English by using EyeSpeak's clear speech recognition to compare your speech with a native speaker helping you to learn English by letting you see what you have said!
Conclusion

While there are many means to teach English language, English language teaching software encompasses many benefits. While some use textbooks or audio CDs, others attend colleges or university, and still others acquire private tutoring, English language teaching software is a creditable alternative. One benefit of using software over more traditional methods is the reduced costs involved. There are no tuition fees, transportation costs, or inflated costs for textbooks. Additionally, we can learn at our own pace, with no class deadlines.

References

students and teachers. [Conference paper]


Introduction

English Language Teaching in today’s competitive world is a skill that expects the language teacher to be invariably one step ahead of the learner. The process of assimilating new ideas into an existing cognitive structure is never easy for the teachers as well as the learners”. In lieu of this it requires a broad-minded attitude and positive approach to incorporate innovative methodologies in pedagogy to equip the teacher efficiently to train the learner. It is an inevitable fact that when practiced with technology, language learning becomes a very effective way to enhance the basic communication proficiency of a learner. So the need of the hour is now integrating pedagogy and technology in teaching of English.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is the earliest technique of computer-based learning of any foreign language whose origins can be traced back to the 1960s. The philosophy of CALL puts a strong emphasis on learner-centered lessons that allow the learners to learn mostly on their own, using interactive lessons and tasks. In computer-based and multimedia enabled learning programs, listening is combined with seeing. The learners also control the pace and the path of the interaction with reference to the level of learning they are in. Also the use of a computer does not constitute a teaching method, but rather the computer forces pedagogy to develop and experiment innovative teaching methods that exploit the benefits of working with a computer.

The origin of English Language Teaching in India is elaborately discussed by Dr. Deepti Gupta, of Punjab University in her article entitled ‘ELT in India: A Brief Historical and Current Overview’ published in the Asian ELF Journal in 2005. She expounds that “ELT in India has come a long way from the year 1880, when 60% primary
schools used English as the medium for instruction following Macaulay’s ‘Minutes’. As compared to its establishment as an autonomous subject in the English-as-first-language countries around 1940, ELT emerged as an autonomous subject in India only as late as 1980. Similarly, the English Language Laboratory also became a part of the ELT paradigm around 1985 in India, as compared to the 1950 of other countries. CALI or Computer Assisted Language Instruction reached most classrooms in 1960 around the world but it came to the Indian classrooms only after 1986 and at present, in some places it has evolved into CALL or Computer Assisted Language Learning. Many Linguists claim that CALL has radically changed the role of the language teacher but it did not eliminate the need for a teacher altogether in a classroom.

The Internet And Its Implications In Language Teaching

The Internet is quickly becoming the premier resource tool for teachers and learners to practice and enhance their communication skills in English as the next step in the evolution of CALL. On the ‘World Wide Web’ learners can find numerous high quality websites that include online dictionaries, electronic-journals, Encyclopedias, libraries, lessons and video lectures as well as worksheets and exercises on grammar, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, listening skills, reading comprehension and essay writing. The growth of the Internet has facilitated the growth of the English language and that this has occurred at a time when computers are no longer the exclusive domain of the trained few, but rather widely available to many of the unskilled lot. Technological innovations have gone hand-in-hand with the growth of English and are changing the way in which we communicate, work, trade, entertain and learn.

The Internet is an engrossing, exciting, and extremely powerful learning tool for not only the learners but also the teachers. It is an undeniable fact that there are many instances where desired results were produced teachers in India who used the Grammar-translation method, audio-lingual approaches or lexical approaches in their classroom pedagogy. The Learners’ needs and proficiency, the teacher’s competency and confidence, along with a host of other
factors determine the validity of how instructors best deal with this kind of technology assisted learning.

It is a pragmatic fact that the Internet has forever changed the way we live. Its importance will continue to grow in the coming years. Many sociologists firmly believe that by the year 2025 most of the world will be conducting its business, receiving its media (TV, films, music), and staying in touch with friends, relatives and even family solely via the Internet. Computers have become so widespread in many educational institutions and homes and their uses have expanded so dramatically that the majority of language teachers are now thinking about the tremendous implications of employing technology in teaching English.

Technology can bring about changes in the teaching methodologies of any foreign language beyond the simple automating fill-in-the-blank exercises. The Internet is an exhaustive resource base that would share without any reservation whatever the teachers ask for and the learners seek for, in their quest for effective learning methods not just for English language but for all other faculty like the Open Course Ware available in Massachusetts Institute of Technology’s web portal http://www.ocw.mit.edu. It is also an interesting observation by this author that most English teachers have realized and accepted the value of technology for speeding up language learning while some teachers are still wary of using technology to upgrade their methodology because they are not sure whether there is any true and effective pedagogical benefit in it.

The Relevance Of An English Language Lab - Digital Classroom For Learners

The need for a state of the art Language Laboratory for the learners to improve their basic communication proficiency would be addressed chiefly with the installation of a computerized English Language Laboratory - Digital Classroom in Educational Institutions. The Language Lab facility and other related resources could be utilized with the primary purpose of helping the learners to improve their basic communication skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. The Language Lab should not a conventional Lab with a
Glottophone and Cassette Recorders. It should be designed and installed as a Computerized Language Lab or Digital Classroom with a Server and required number of client systems (with the right configuration) to teach the learners various interactive and learning techniques using multi-media enabled software or giving structured access to the Internet for enhancing their basic language skills.

A Language Lab would increase instructional time and optimize the learner’s time invested in learning a language. The Lab facility would help teachers make efficient use of the time they devote to their learners. This innovative concept also involves the use of electronic gadgets and computers in teaching the learners the basics of language with focus on the improvement of their communication skills. In a Computerized Language Lab set up, computer-assisted learning is no longer limited to the listen-and-repeat exercises of the conventional audio lab; it can draw on multimedia files in CD-ROMs and the wealth of online reference sources available on the Web in eliciting oral and written reactions from the learner to the specified tasks. The variety of exercises and activities holds the learners’ attention, while the frequency of response draws the learners in and makes language-learning a lot more compelling.

In the Computerized Language Lab the learners are exposed to many speakers of the language in a structured way, preparing them for the variety of voices, intonation and accents that they will encounter when meeting native speakers while traveling or living in a foreign country. They can work up to the level of proficiency that will let them understand films, plays, televised debates, and other contexts with multiple speakers. In the classroom, the usual sort of teacher-learner interaction results only in learners in the beginners level spending most of their time listening to other learners who are in the advanced level but only with rudimentary language skills. But in the Language Lab learners spend their time absorbing authentic language usage by native speakers and responding to it by speaking or writing. The Language Lab is a technology based setup where learners can study whatever they want, whenever they prefer and enhance their English skills for academics, business or for their professional career. So the setting up of a computerized Language
Lab is enumerated and emphasized because it is the logical choice and the right path to produce more learners from educational institutions with the desired employability skills that the Industry expects from them.

**Some Standard Online Language Reference Resources Used In C.I.T’s Digital Classroom**

The List here starts with the some of the best Websites/online resource links that offer exhaustive options and innovative learning methods to improve a learner’s English communication skills.

These resources are currently used in Coimbatore Institute's Technology’s Digital Classroom by the author.

A List Of Multi-Lingual Dictionaries And Translators Available Online

<http://www.word2word.com/dictionary.html>

This is an amazing online resource tool which has links to many multi-lingual dictionaries and translators. The list of dictionaries starts from Albanian and ends with Zulu. The translation options start from Abadani (Iranian) and go on till Zulu (South-east African).

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/home.htm>

If a learner or a teacher wants to know the meaning of a certain word, help is readily available in Merriam-Webster online dictionary. This is a fast and extensive online resource that is based on Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. If the learner enters a word or phrase in the search box and the site will offer its pronunciation, part of speech, etymology, derivatives and definitions. The users can also locate a word’s synonyms by clicking on the thesaurus button. This is an extremely potent reference source.

<http://www.onelook.com>

If there is a word, idiom, or slang that needs a definition or translation, this resource will quickly search more than 5 million words in more than 900 online dictionaries.
<http://dictionary.cambridge.org>

This is an extension of Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary with resources that include worksheets and lesson plans for every grammar concept, online audio clips and interactive placement tests. The available resources on Reading and Writing, Speaking and Listening, Vocabulary, Grammar and English for Specific Purposes are classified in the teacher's zone as well as in the learner's zone. The unique thing about this site is that it offers applications which can be downloaded and installed in your mobile phones so as to access their online dictionary at anytime from anywhere.

<www.thefreedictionary.com>

As the website claims it can be referred to as the world's most comprehensive dictionary with links to English, Spanish, German, French, Italian, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, Norwegian, Greek, Arabic, Polish, Turkish, Russian, Medical, Legal, and Financial Dictionaries along with Thesaurus, Acronyms and Abbreviations, Idioms, Encyclopedia, a Literature Reference Library, and an efficient Search Engine.

<http://www.etymonline.com/>


List Of Websites On Speaking Skills

<www.fonetiks.org>

An elucidating link that offers online pronunciation guides to 9 varieties of the English language and 9 other languages that include British, American, Irish, Scottish, Welsh, Australian, Indian and South African varieties of English with instant sound identification facility. Pronunciation samples by over 40 native speakers and more than 1000 pages of lessons in English Phonetics and Grammar are offered free.
<http://splendid-speaking.com>

<http://englishconversations.org>
This is a very exhaustive resource that offers a very interesting option which is English Conversation Partner Linkup Service - ECPL for language learners who are categorized as Beginners, Pre-Intermediates, Intermediates, Upper Intermediates and advanced learners. ECPL is a chat room which is linked to social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter, Orkut and Yahoo!Buzz and LinkedIn etc. So learners can interact with native speakers and teachers of English across the globe using this option. This site also offers interactive stories, listening lessons and online conversations for the learners.

<http://www.eslgold.com/speaking/phrases.html>
A user-friendly resource tool that offers learners from all levels sample conversations on Speaking, Reading, Writing, Grammar, Vocabulary and Idioms.

<www.speak-english-today.com>
This site offers the learners a conversation partner preferably a trained native English speaker, as personal tutor and a language exchange buddy to ameliorate the learner’s speaking skills.

List of Websites that offer intensive instruction in English Grammar
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/>
This link offers you notes and other resource material for learning English Grammar in the form of MSWord documents, pdf transcripts, mp3 audio files, mp4 video files from BBC’s vast and excellent archives.
The Internet Grammar of English is an online course in English grammar designed primarily for university undergraduates. It is also quite useful to anyone who is interested in the language. There are some courses available in the site for a moderate fee and some are offered free of cost.

This link offers online language lessons in English and Spanish. The lessons include phrasal verbs, slang terms, idioms and preparatory tests for English for Specific Purposes.

Daily Grammar.com offers grammar lessons in a fun-filled, convenient way by simplifying complex grammar concepts. This site is a great instructional tool for learners of all ages and skill levels. The Daily Grammar lessons consist of 440 lessons and 88 quizzes. Lessons 1-90 cover the eight parts of speech and the other lessons cover the mechanics of grammar using a simple and clear approach.

Localizing Internet Resources And Technology In Language Teaching

Some of these listed websites should be included in the Language Lab Administrator’s Internet Access settings and access to other websites for the users/learners should be restricted. This can be made possible by creating a Web Repository in the Server with adding only the links that the teacher wants the learners to browse for their learning tasks and reference. A Web Repository gives access to the source site on any subject listed; it serves like an Index for the learners sorting and cataloguing the online resources that they need from the Internet.

It is high time that English teachers start to admit that learners would take language-learning seriously only when the materials presented to them are authentic cultural artifacts from the native speaker's life. This is possible only by localizing the Internet resources and incorporating new technology in their teaching methodology. The advent of technology in educational instruction has added a new
dimension to learning and teaching. The effectiveness of such an approach would definitely make teachers as efficient guides to instruct their learners on using modern gadgets to improve their skills in today’s rapidly shifting and highly competitive world.

Curriculum Development/Revision At Schools And Colleges

Curriculum development/revision is a highly organized and systematic process that involves many innovative procedures to upgrade the established instructional programme and enhance classroom instruction techniques. Teachers of English should provide ample opportunities to their wards to creatively express themselves. This would be possible only if the existing curriculum is revised to include more practical sessions in language learning than giving impetus only to the theoretical aspects of the language. The revised language syllabus should aim at providing substantial proficiency in oral and written English for the learners from their school. The curriculum should be designed so as to improve the employability skills of the learners from all backgrounds in various fields at the college level.

Marc Prensky sums up the skills of the Digital age learners in his path-breaking article ‘Digital Natives and Digital Immigrants’ thus: “It is now clear that as a result of this ubiquitous environment and the sheer volume of their interaction with it, today’s students think and process information fundamentally differently from their predecessors. These differences go far further and deeper than most educators suspect or realize”. He also goes on to stress that today’s teachers “need to invent Digital Native methodologies for all subjects, at all levels”, using the learners to guide them. So with this frame of mind the English curriculum for the first year B.E./B.Tech., B.Sc. Computer Technology and M.Sc. Software Engineering students in Coimbatore Institute of Technology has been revised and modified with the approval of the Board of Studies as ‘three hours for Theory classes and three hours for Practical-Lab sessions’. This is the first step towards giving more emphasis on adopting new pedagogy for the students of this digital age to learn functional English in a Technical Institution.
Conclusion

In conclusion I would like to mention Dr. Deepti Gupta’s observations in her article ‘ELT in India: A Brief Historical and Current Overview’ that India with its huge population and apparent new boom for English learning is a large beacon of this enterprise closely along the heels of China. Just the enormous scope for English education in India should give language teachers a new sense of the increased diversity in language teaching methodologies. And within the field of education, the Language Laboratory stands as a remarkable teaching phenomenon by virtue of its unique equipment and its specific pedagogy.

Works Cited

Principles and Methodologies of teaching English as a Global Language
A Proposal

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Trichy

Introduction

Language teaching came into its own as a profession in the last century. Central to this phenomenon was the emergence of the concept of “methods” of language teaching. The method concept in language teaching—the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning—is a powerful one, and the quest for better methods was a preoccupation of teachers and applied linguists throughout the 20th century. Howatt’s (1984) overview documents the history of changes of practice in language teaching throughout history, bringing the chronology up through the Direct Method in the 20th century. One of the most lasting legacies of the Direct Method has been the notion of “method” itself.

Language Teaching Methodology Defined

Methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways. A more or less classical formulation suggests that methodology is that which links theory and practice. Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how language is learned or, more specifically, theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Such theories are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives, syllabus specifications, and types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials, and so forth. Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in the environments where language teaching and learning take place. This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology.
School Of Language Teaching Methodology

Within methodology a distinction is often made between methods and approaches, in which methods are held to be fixed teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices, whereas approaches represent language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. This distinction is probably most usefully seen as defining a continuum entities ranging from highly prescribed methods to loosely described approaches.

The period from the 1950s to the 1980s has often been referred to as "The Age of Methods," during which a number of quite detailed prescriptions for language teaching were proposed. Situational Language Teaching evolved in the United Kingdom while a parallel method, Audio-Lingualism, emerged in the United States. In the middle-methods period, a variety of methods were proclaimed as successors to the then prevailing Situational Language Teaching and audio-Lingual methods. These alternatives were promoted under such titles as Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response. In the 1980s, these methods in turn came to be overshadowed by more interactive views of language teaching, which collectively came to be known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Communicative Language Teaching advocates subscribed to a broad set of principles such as these.

1. Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
2. Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
3. Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
4. Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
5. Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.
However, CLT advocates avoided prescribing the set of practices through which these principles could best be realized, thus putting CLT clearly on the approach rather than the method end of the spectrum.

Communicative Language Teaching has spawned a number of off-shoots that share the same basic set of principles, but which spell out philosophical details or envision instructional practices in somewhat diverse ways. These CLT spin-off approaches include The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching.

It is difficult to describe these various methods briefly and yet fairly, and such a task is well beyond the scope of this paper. However, several up-to-date texts are available that do detail differences and similarities among the many different approaches and methods that have been proposed. (See, e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2000, and Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Perhaps it is possible to get sense of the range of method proposals by looking at synoptic view of the roles defined for teachers and learners within various methods. Such a synoptic (perhaps scanty) view can be seen in the following chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Methods and Teacher &amp; Learning Roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio-lingualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Physical Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context Setter Error Corrector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Modeler Drill Leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs Analyst Task Designer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commander Action Monitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Counselor Paraphraser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imitator Memorizer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern Practicer Accuracy Enthusiast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvisor Negotiator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order Taker performer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole Person</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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As suggested in the chart, some schools of methodology see the teacher as ideal language model and commander of classroom activity (e.g., Audio-Lingual Method, Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response) whereas others see the teacher as background facilitator and classroom colleague to the learners (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning).

There are other global issues to which spokespersons for the various methods and approaches respond in alternative ways. For example, should second language learning by adults be modeled on first language learning by children? One set of schools (e.g., Total Physical Response, Natural Approach) notes that first language acquisition is the only universally successful model of language learning we have, and thus that second language pedagogy must necessarily model itself on first language acquisition. An opposed view (e.g., Silent Way, Suggestopedia) observes that adults have different brains, interest, timing constraints, and learning environments than do children, and that adult classroom learning therefore has to be fashioned in a way quite dissimilar to the way in which nature fashions how first languages are learned by children.

Another key distinction turns on the role of perception versus production in early states of language learning. One school of thought proposes that learners should begin to communicate, to use a new language actively, on first contact (e.g., Audi-Lingual Method, Silent Way, Community Language Learning), while the other school of thought states that an initial and prolonged period of reception (listening, reading) should precede any attempts at production (e.g., Natural Approach).

**What’s Now, What’s Next?**

The future is always uncertain, and this is no less true in anticipating
methodological directions in second language teaching than in any other field. Some current predictions assume the carrying on and refinement of current trends; others appear a bit more science-fiction-like in their vision. Outlined below are 10 scenarios that are likely to shape the teaching of second languages in the next decades of the new millennium. These methodological candidates are given identifying labels in a somewhat tongue-in-cheek style, perhaps a bit reminiscent of yesteryear’s method labels.

**Teacher/Learner Collaborates**

Matchmaking techniques will be developed which will link learners and teachers with similar styles and approaches to language learning. Looking at the Teacher and Learner roles sketched in Figure 2, one can anticipate development of a system in which the preferential ways in which teachers teach and learners learn can be matched in instructional settings, perhaps via on-line computer networks or other technological resources.

**Method Synergistic**

Crossbreeding elements from various methods into a common program of instruction seems an appropriate way to find those practices which best support effective learning. Methods and approaches have usually been proposed as idiosyncratic and unique. Yet it appears reasonable to combine practices from different approaches where the philosophical foundations are similar. One might call such an approach “Disciplined Eclecticism.”

**Curriculum Developmentalism**

Language teaching has not profited much from more general views of educational design. The curriculum perspective comes from general education and views successful instruction as an interweaving of Knowledge, Instructional, Learner, and Administrative considerations. From this perspective, methodology is viewed as only one of several instructional considerations that are necessarily thought out and realized in conjunction with all other curricular considerations.
Content-Basics

Content-based instruction assumes that language learning is a by-product of focus on meaning-on acquiring some specific topical content-and that content topics to support language learning should be chosen to best match learner needs and interests and to promote optimal development of second language competence. A critical question for language educators is "what content" and "how much content" best supports language learning. The natural content for language educators is literature and language itself, and we are beginning to see a resurgence of interest in literature and in the topic of "language: the basic human technology" as sources of content in language teaching.

Multintelligencia

The notion here is adapted from the Multiple Intelligences view of human talents proposed by Howard Gardner (1983). This model is one of a variety of learning style models that have been proposed in general education with follow-up inquiry by language educators. The chart below shows Gardner's proposed eight native intelligences and indicate classroom language-rich task types that play to each of these particular intelligences. The challenge here is to identify these intelligences in individual learners and then to determine appropriate and realistic instructional tasks in response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligence Type</th>
<th>Educational Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Lectures, worksheets, words games, journals, debates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Puzzles, estimations, problem solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Charts, diagrams, graphic organizers, drawing, films</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodily</td>
<td>Hand-on, mime, craft, demonstrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical</td>
<td>Singing, poetry, jazz chants, mood music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Group work, peer tutoring, class projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Reflection, interest centers, personal values tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalist</td>
<td>Field trips, show and tell, plant and animal projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Total Functional Response

Communicative Language Teaching was founded (and floundered) on earlier notional/functional proposals for the description of languages. Now new leads in discourse and genre analysis, schema theory, pragmatics, and systemic/functional grammar are rekindling an interest in functionally based approaches to language teaching. One pedagogical proposal has led to a widespread reconsideration of the first and second language program in Australian schools where instruction turns on five basic text genres identified as Report, Procedure, Explanation, Exposition, and Recount. Refinement of functional models will lead to increased attention to genre and text types in both first and second language instruction.

Strategopedia

“Learning to learn” is the key theme in an instructional focus on language learning strategies. Such strategies include, at the most basic level, memory tricks, and at higher levels, cognitive and metacongnitive strategies for learning, thinking, planning, and self-monitoring. Research findings suggest that strategies can indeed be taught to language learners, that learners will apply these strategies in language learning tasks, and that such application does produce significant gains in language learning. Simple and yet highly effective strategies, such as those that help learners remember and access new second language vocabulary items, will attract considerable instructional interest in Strategopedia.

Lexical Phraseology

The lexical phraseology view holds that only "a minority of spoken classes is entirely novel creations" and that "memorized clauses and clause-sequences form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in every day conversation. "One estimate is that "the number of memorized complete clauses and sentences known to the mature English speaker probably amounts, at least, to several hundreds of thousands" (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Understanding of the use of lexical phrases has been immensely aided by large-scale computer studies of languages corpora, which have provided hard data to
support the speculative inquiries into lexical phraseology of second language acquisition researchers. For language teachers, the results of such inquiries have led to conclusions that language teaching should center on these memorized lexical patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.

**O-Zone Whole Language**

Renewed interest in some type of "Focus on Form" has provided a major impetus for recent second language acquisition (SLA) research. "Focus on Form" proposals, variously labeled as consciousness-raising, noticing, attending, and enhancing input, are founded on the assumption that students will learn only what they are aware of. Whole Language proponents have claimed that one way to increase learner awareness of how language works is through a course of study that incorporates broader engagement with language, including literary study, process writing, authentic content, and learner collaboration.

**Full-Frontal Communicability**

We know that the linguistic part of human communication represents only a small fraction of total meaning. At least one applied linguist has gone so far as to claim that, "We communicate so much information non-verbally in conversations that often the verbal aspect of the conversation is negligible." Despite these cautions, language teaching has chosen to restrict its attention to the linguistic component of human communication, even when the approach is labeled communicative. The methodological proposal is to provide instructional focus on the non-linguistic aspects of communication, including rhythm, speed, pitch, intonation, tone, and hesitation phenomena in speech and gesture, facial expression, posture, and distance in non-verbal messaging.
Honing Speaking Skill: Effective Methods at Tertiary Level

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With increasing globalization in almost every field of activity, proficiency in speaking in English, the world language, has become very important. Information and Communication Technology has made English the language of communication. The aim of most learners is to speak English fluently. Many linguists and teachers agree that students learn to speak in the second language by interacting. For this, communicative language teaching and collaborative learning are conducive. ESL teachers should create situations for real life communication, authentic activities and meaningful tasks which enhance spoken language. Teachers should encourage students to communicate with the English they know, whether correct or not. Allow the learners to make mistakes without embarrassment; this will motivate them to learn speaking and boost their self-confidence.

The goal of teaching speaking skill is communicative efficiency. In order to help learners develop fluency in speaking, a number of activities are given below together with suggestions for teachers of spoken language.

Activities to Promote Speaking Discussions

A discussion can be held after a regular lesson. In their groups, each of 4 or 5 students, may arrive at a conclusion, share ideas about an event or find solutions. Right at the beginning the teacher should set out the purpose of the discussion, to avoid students spending time on irrelevant things. The teacher can also provide controversial sentences for discussion and see that all the student speak. Students should be encouraged to ask questions, clarify ideas, express support, etc. This will foster critical thinking, decision-making, how to express and justify themselves politely while disagreeing with another.
For fruitful discussions

- Prepare the students by giving them both topical information and language forms.
- Let students choose a topic from a number of choices given. Topics like fashion trends, holiday plans, etc. will enhance student participation.
- Set an outcome and specify a short period of time say 10 minutes.
- Students should report the results of their discussion to the whole class.

Role play

Students being assigned roles and put into situations which imitate life, considerably expands the language used and also develops their sociolinguistic competence.

For successful role play

- Introduce the activity, giving a vivid description of the situation, so that all the students understand it.
- Explain the end product - whether a schedule, plan or opinion.
- Use role cards.
- Brainstorm before starting the role play.
- Give students sufficient time to prepare.
- Be a facilitator. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar.
- Ask students to report to the class about their role play.
- Later, give feedback on pronunciation and grammar mistakes.

Simulations

These are similar to role plays, but are more elaborate, when students can bring small items to the class to create a realistic scene. Students enjoy role playing and simulations.

Information Gap Activities

Students work in pairs, with one student having the information which the partner does not have. So they have to share the information.

A railway timetable with a few arrival & departure times blank
may be used. Also the two partners can have the same picture, each with different items missing.

This activity is effective because every student has to talk extensively.

**Jigsaw**

Jigsaw activities can be done with a large group, where each partner has a couple of pieces of the puzzle and the group members must co-operate to fit in all the pieces to complete the whole picture.

**Story Narration**

Students can narrate a story they have read. This helps creative thinking and also helps them to express ideas. They can also tell riddles or jokes.

**Story completion**

The teacher starts to tell a story and leaves each student to narrate a couple of sentences from the point where the previous one stopped. They can introduce new characters, events, etc. Students thoroughly enjoy this activity.

**Brainstorming**

On a given topic, students come out with various ideas in a short time.

**News Reporting**

Students read the newspaper before the class and tell the main news and interesting local news to the class.

**Picture Describing**

One picture is given to each group. After discussing in the group, one person describes the picture.

**Strategies for Teaching Speaking Effectively**

- Provide a conducive atmosphere for students to speak with the language they have.
- Provide interesting authentic materials.
Do not interrupt the flow of communication to correct pronunciation or other mistakes.

Involve every student in the speaking activity.

Use encouraging strategies such as asking for clarification, gestures and initiating in order to motivate students to speak more.

Be a facilitator, walking around the classroom to help if needed while students work in pairs or groups.

Provide feedback and correction.

Conclusion

Teaching speaking is an important component of second language learning. The ability to communicate clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner not only in school and university but also later at every stage of life. Hence it is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. With the aim of enhancing meaningful communication, the various speaking activities listed above contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills, necessary for success in life.

References

Communication

The word 'communication' comes from the Latin verb "communicare", which means 'to make common', 'to share', 'to impart' and 'to transmit. Through communication people are stated to control one another's behaviour and unite themselves into groups. Addressing is one of the modes of communication. Addressing is a culture-bound activity followed by people as prescribed by the respective society. Just as there is growth and development in the sphere of science and technology, similarly in the field of language there is vast growth with regard to its use and approach in terms of vocabulary, meaning assignment and symbolic representation. With these observations, the chapter proceeds to analyze the communicative behavior of the college students, recorded under naturalistic observation method and present them with due classifications and explanations by applying the humanistic approach.

Humanistic psychological approach focuses on how a human being becomes aware of and communicates his/her emotions. It also focuses on the manners in which individuals evolve healthy personalities and the means they employ to achieve this goal. In short, humanistic psychology emphasizes the striving for the highest potential for each individual.

The aim is to identify in what manner the students conform to the social practice of the addressing pattern. The general practice of addressing is either to mention the name of the individual or address him/her as "friend" as a single entity or in accompaniment to the degree of friendship as "my dear/dearest/dearmost/close/closest friend". The aim is also to identify the social role and the cultural value of the speech act of addressing.
Speech act is a specific act pertaining to a speech context with a central topic around which the other acts revolve. This status of specificity to a particular act is assigned by viewing the speech event in its entirety and by identifying the conditions for the performance of that act and the attributes attached for its performance. Further the identification is done with the assistance of the neighbouring acts occurring in that speech event on the basis of the functional value it holds in that speech context. For analytical purpose the study concentrates on the linguistic manifestations of the students performance of their speech act of addressing their friends during various communicative contexts.

**Communicative Context - I**

Students (S) performance of the speech act of addressing during the communicative context of greeting their friends (F) in the college.

**S1**-> **F1:** hai macci--------( hi macci )
**S2**-> **F2:** hello macci----vanakkonda: ( hello macci greetings to you )
**S3**-> **F3:** ma:pple nalla: yirukkiya: eppota: vanta-. ( ma:pple how are you when did you come )
**S4**-> **F4:** de:i macca:n haida: ( dei maccan greetings to youda )
**S5**-> **F5:** vanakkama:ma:pple enkata a:laye:pa:kkaratille ( greetingsda ma:pple where were you I hadn't seen you for long )

In all the above contexts it is evinced that there is total abstinence from the use of the term "friend." Terms such as "macci", "ma: ma;" "ma: ppple", "macca:n", are substituted in its stead. In order to have a better understanding of the significance of these speech acts, it is essential to primarily discuss the denotative sense of these manifested forms.

**Linguistic Forms And Their Denotative Sense**

i. "ma:pple" denotes a status assigned to a male member when he is accepted as a prospective bridegroom after fulfilling all the social obligation of the bridal qualifications - speaker 1 (s) -> speaker 2
- *ma:pple* niccaayama:yiruccu (have finalized the bridegroom).


iii. "*ma:pple*" includes reference to the individual - a child who is proposed in advance to be the future son-in-law - ivarta:n namma ve:ttu ma:pple (said by the uncle indicating the nephew to their family friends - he is the bridegroom of our household).

iv. "*ma:ma:*" has specific reference to maternal uncle and maternal aunt's husband. In Tamil society the general address as "*ma:ma:*" is also used by the mothers when they introduce unrelated persons to their children.

v. "*macca:n*" is a term used by the lady to address her life partner. It is also used by the male member to address his sister's husband.

These references as *ma:ma:*, *ma:pple:*, *macca:n:*, are terms which in actuality emphasize family roles. In family relationship normally there is friction among the brother-in-law, uncles and nephews. Hence these kinds of relationship assume conflicting roles. As an outcome the proximities are wide. In this context the students addressing behaviour of referring their friends with such terms exhibits the affinity among the friends circle where the proximity is reduced by the informality of the address.

**Communicative Context - II**

Drawing the attention of the peers individually and inviting them to participate in the ongoing conversation.

S6 -> F6: ni:nka collunka boss (you express your opinion boss)

S7 -> F7: iruta: bosso:ta aitiya: ke:ppo:n (waitda we will get the suggestion of boss)

S8 -> F8: boss conna:: cariya:ta:n irukkum (addressing F6) carita:na boss (if boss says certainly it will be right isn’t it boss)
The system of occupational hierarchy is involved in this addressing mode of the students. The term "boss" occurs in the official domain which signifies a superior rank. Yet the friends’ addressing mode does not indicate a sense of subordinary or alienation or power dominance. It suggests a tone of amicability that prevails among them.

**Communicative Context - III**

Humiliating friends when they hold very high opinion of themselves but tend to differ in their outward behaviour.

S9 -> F11, F12, F13 : ivaru (indicating F10) periya pista:nu nenappu. (he thinks he is a big pista)

S10 -> F14 : un nenappula nienna periya pista:nyabakama: (what do you think of yourself you think you are a great person)

S11 -> F15 : periya nenapputa:n ta:ta:nu --- e:nta: (he thinks he is a dada….isn't it)

S12 -> F16: periya paruppu ivaru. (too much of himself)

The humiliation of the friends takes place by the system of equating the human being to inhuman factor as evinced in the speaker’s tones of criticism. "Pista" and "paruppu" appear under the food system where "pista" belongs to the nut family and "paruppu" to the pulses. Both are highly nutritious products which contribute to the well-being and health of man. Incidentally there is nothing in the form of nourishing or health development contributions from their friends. The ironical statements of the friends are meant as humourous forms of expression.

"ta ta:" fetches us to a totally new plane of thought to the system of an organization, where the reference is to a person of a territory who assumes power on his own and takes up the domimative role of dictatorship. Unlike this person, the student-peers of reference possess mild and docile nature, but put on airs of pretensions. We can account such addressing behavior with the following explanation. Friends do not want to easily let down their companions. Hence the intention is to minimize causing offense to the hearers. We can further claim this behavior as a situational management strategy of the students to retain cordiality and friendliness among themselves.
Communicative Context - IV

When one of the long-awaited friend F21 (waiting from morning 8:30 am to 11:30) appears the group's ( F17, F18, F19, F20 ) responsive behaviour.

F17 announcing -> F18, F19, F20: namma talaivar vanthitta:ru ( our leader has come)-turning to F21 - c:nta: le:tu (why are you late)

F18 addressing the group: sa:ru e:lu mannikkuta:n entiruciruppa:ru ( sir would have woke up at seven o clock only )

F19 addressing the group and patting F2: aiya:ya:rununanacca rajini:ta paramaracikana:cce ( who do you think aiyya is he is an ardent fan of actor Rajini )

F21 responding to the group: ma:mscu ne:ttu mu:numani entiran p:ttittu tu:nkumpo:tu (ma:mscu it was three o clock when I went to bed after seeing Enthiran )

The students' communicative behaviour indicates that there are four different domains of associations raised within this interactive context with the reference terms talaivar, sa:r, aiya: and ma:ms.

"talaivar" relates to the system of ruling where the social status of the term "talaivar" is specified as a headman / a leader/ a chieftain of a group or a community. F21 is neither a leader nor a headman of any community. His position in the group is he is one of the peers.

"sa:r" and "aiya:" are terms contained in the honorific system. "sa:" is used in the official domain particularly to address male members. In addition the term also bears reference to the title “Sir” conferred on an individual for his/her social and academic excellence and contribution for the development of mankind. Ironically in this situation there is nothing grand or remarkable in F21's achievements except for the fact that he is an ardent admirer of the actor Rajini. With reference to the usage "aiya" the term applies to both familiar and unfamiliar elderly persons as a mark of respect and regard for them. The student of reference F21 in this context is a youth and therefore the address as "aiya" implies friendliness.
Communicative Context - V

Enquiring the friends the reasons for their absence at the college.

F22 -> F23: ma:msu e:nta: ippati li:vu etukkara ennata:a:ccu (ma:msu why are you absent so often what is wrong with you)

F22 -> F23: macci miss panni:tata e:nta :varla ne:ttu co:mpatisan mutincirccuta (macci you have missed the opportunity why didn't you come yesterday the competition got over)


F26 -> F27: enna tala pakkrate:illa (what head don't see you at all)
F27 -> F26: fi:verta: ma:mu (had fevefda ma:mu)

This mode of addressing as "ma:ppsu", "ma:msu", "macci", "ma::mu", "tala", signify the relationship between the system of the media and the youth. These addresses are the resultant verbal behaviour of the cultivated reality provided by the media. It is stated that media cultivates or constructs a reality of the world that although may not be possibly accurate becomes accepted simply because society as a culture is stated to believe it to be true. In movies such expressions which are actually the elliptical forms of "ma:ppla" and "ma:ma:" are currently used by the central characters and these usages are gaining popularity in the students' circle. The adoption, acceptance and usage of these terms to address their friends confirm the influence of the media's verbal culture on the youth.

Findings and Suggestions

The analysis proves that the addressing mode of the students though directed to their friends indicate very less relation to comradeship in their verbal behaviour. Associations on totally different planes of thoughts are evoked in their various expressions. The associated planes of thought along with their system of relationship are represented in the form of tabulation as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speech act of addressing</th>
<th>System of relationship</th>
<th>Denotative sense</th>
<th>Role-relationship</th>
<th>Contextual reference</th>
<th>Psychological aspect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>maca:</td>
<td>Kinship</td>
<td>Mother's brother, Father's sister's husband</td>
<td>Conflicting roles in the family system</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Affinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mappilai</td>
<td>Kinship</td>
<td>Prospective bridegroom, son-in-law, Sister's husband</td>
<td>Filial roles</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Affinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maccan</td>
<td>Kinship</td>
<td>Sister's husband, Lady's life partner</td>
<td>Filial roles</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Affinity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boss</td>
<td>Occupational hierarchy</td>
<td>Superior</td>
<td>Sub-ordinary in administrative system</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Amicability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sir</td>
<td>Official domain/ public address/ social address</td>
<td>Formal reference to male members</td>
<td>Honorific system</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Cordiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ai ya</td>
<td>general address educational address pattern</td>
<td>Old, elderly persons, respect regard, male teachers</td>
<td>Honorific system</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Cordiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pista</td>
<td>Food system</td>
<td>Nut product</td>
<td>Highly nutritious</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Superficial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parruppu</td>
<td>Food system</td>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>Highly nutritious</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Superficial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The significance of the speech act study can be realized with the consideration of the following viewpoints raised from diverse angles in the form of queries

1. No doubt the students’ expressions contribute to the world of diction, but how far do they serve to maintain the sanctity of language in terms of maintaining the standardization of the language?

2. The speech behaviour of the students notify that not only the traditional pattern of the addressing system is overlooked but the niceties accompanying the address patterns are also vanishing. Do these alterations denote the violation of the verbal ethics?

3. Do these address patterns strike a tone of deviation from the traditional pattern, to signal the onset of a new trend of address pattern among the youth of today and the emergence of a new linguistic culture in the society?
4. Do the media language serve only as an entertainment form or are they the influencing factors for the change in the social attitude, social outlook and the taste of the student community in terms of their linguistic choice?

Whatever may be the prevailing causes and conditions, we cannot bear a negligent attitude towards these expressive forms of the students. At this juncture it is indispensable to refer to Gerbner at al’s "ice-age analogy" where they caution that just as an average temperature shift of a few degrees can lead to an ice-age, so too can a relatively small but pervasive influence make a commercial difference. They contend that the "size" of an affect is far less critical than the direction of its steady contribution. The same contention can be extended to this context of the communicative behaviour of the students. The size of the student community who display such linguistic behaviour may appear to be minimum and may outwardly seem negligible but they may go a long way in shaping a society with a new linguistic culture and a new identity.

References
Discourse Analysis of Language use in Advertisements

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Discourse is the use of language above and beyond the sentence: how people use language in texts and contents. Discourse analysis focuses on people’s actual utterances and tries to figure out what processes make those utterances appear the way they do. Through discourse, people represent the world, convey communicative intentions, organize thoughts into communicative actions, arrange information so it is accessible to others, engage in actions and interactions with one another, and convey their identities and relationships.

It is by examining aspects of the world in which language is used that discourse analysts go “beyond” the sentence. It is important to remember that real people, using language in the real world are analyzing discourse as well—drawing inferences about meaning from features of the discourse.

Advertisement helps in selling. It helps in selling through the art and business of persuasive communication. With emphatic use of language, the writer draws catchy and memorable lines and makes his selling ideas clear before the buyers. Advertising makes a psychological impact on the consumers and so invites them to buy a product. Being loaded with psychological overtone, the language of advertising messages is subtle and mesmerizing. A dusky women will buy a tube of fairness cream at high price because the advertisement assures her great career and perfect marriage with instant loveliness. So, it is the psychological make up of advertisement that makes us think that when we buy Maruti, we buy prestige; when we buy Close Up we buy health and longevity. It is probably true to say that of all the ways, in which language is used, advertising is the most enchanting to influence our psyche. It is the one form of communication in which human being is keenly and increasingly
involved. In fact language is the most powerful, convenient and permanent means of communication, and therefore, it makes mass selling possible through advertisements. Advertising is an art of persuading people. The writer is a juggler. He knows which words would be most emotional and moving in a headline to attract the buyers. It is the power of language that sells the product like a hot cake and takes out money from the pockets of buyers.

The psychological variables play an important part in planning advertising strategies and consequently advertising messages to sell a product. Companies that want to understand how consumers think and make decisions about products conduct sophisticated consumer’s behaviour research, to identify their consumers, why they buy, what they buy and how they buy. This information greatly benefits the advertising agencies in selecting media as well as writing copy that would appeal to the particular segment. So advertising is a skillful art of convincing the buyers that the use of a particular cream, soap, oil and shampoo can change their way of life. With Zandu Chawanprash, an old man of 60 years can be rejuvenated as a young man bursting with energy and confidence. A dusky girl vying for air hostess job, a sensuous young model flaunting mobile phone around her neck, a handsome executive desirous of having new luxury car are all the different facets of advertising. They all want to communicate, to persuade, to influence, to lead to some action. That's why, sometimes, the message is so strong that we buy a product which is not of immediate use to us.

Language has creativity and productivity. It is this feature, which enables the advertiser to create exciting appeals in the advertisements. While designing an advertisement, he brings together art and commerce. Ad agencies are in search of gifted writers who can beguile the customers by the beauty of their language.

It is human nature to want to escape from the humdrum into fantasy land. Advertising offers people a reason to be seduced. Sell them an idea, draw them a picture, and invite them into paradise, even for a moment. They will come down to earth again when they actually use the product. Consumers subconsciously expect this to happen A vast
amount of time, money and energy go into the creative work of developing advertising appeals to influence the buying behaviour of consumers. The basic concepts in marketing tell us that it is all about satisfying consumers' wants and needs. All appeals are created for the purpose of advertising needs and wants and sharing how the advertised products can satisfy those needs and wants. A.H. Maslow got a basic human need structure explaining five levels hierarchically.

**Use of short simple sentences.**

The slogan is short and simple; it can not afford to be complicated and clumsy. Short simple sentences are easy to remember, while one main aim of an ad slogan is to be memorable and recited. So short and simple sentences serve advertising slogans right.

Samsung: Everyone is invited.
GE: We bring good things to life.

**Use of every day sentences**

Everyday sentences tend to be overly used in day life, but it can be very forceful when used in an ad slogan. These sentences travel very fast, because anyone can remember it without any effort. It can just hang upon people's lips. It is something popularized without much publicity.

Nike: Just do it.
Nestle: It's the taste.

**Use of phrases**

Slogans are a kind of special writing form. They can almost do without subjects. Phrases may be better than if not as good as sentences. All kinds of phrases can be put into use: noun phrase, verb phrase, prepositional phrase, adjective phrase, etc. They are so concise and to the point that they are beyond our power to do any addition or subtraction.

Apple Computer: Think different.
Airlines: Beyond expectation.
Maxwell house: Good to the last drop.

**Use of questions**

In ad headlines questions are often used to attract attention by
mentioning the matter that concerns the customers the most. They help to arouse the curiosity of the customers and entice them to read on to find the solution to the problem. Many slogans begin as successful headlines. So it is not surprising they the slogan can use questions too for the same purpose.

   Ford: Have you driven a ford lately?
   Volkswagen Polo: R U Polo?

**Use of imperative sentence**

In an ad the slogan is the last few words said. Although it is just a few words, they admen don’t let it go at that. They use every opportunity to exhort the potential customers to act, to buy and to consume. The slogan is their last battlefield to get people moved. It is not surprising that they would use imperative sentences to make a slogan while this kind of sentence is the most direct way to achieve the ideal effect.

   Express card: Don’t leave home without it
   Airlines: Life is a journey, travel it well.

**Use of puns**

A really good pun can work miracles. They are good but have no specific identity of their own.

   Pioneer: Everything you hear is true.
   Range rover: Its how the smooth take the rough.

In the following examples, the brand name appears, but as the solution or promise rather than part of the pun. These slogans with brand name in it can help the name be remembered while offer a two layered meaning to the slogan. The second layer of meaning can interest and impress the people with its smartness and its novelty.

   Rich coffee: Get rich quick.
   Finish Detergent: Brilliant cleaning starts with Finish.
   Here the brand goes to work, as inextricably part of the pun.
   Citibank: Because the Citi never sleeps
   Quaver Snacks: Do me a quaver.

All the above mentioned stylistic features of ad slogans are necessary to make them neat, simple, original strategic, memorable and
companionable. The slogans are also a kind of poetic language, which should pay attention to.

**Rhyme**

In English versification standard rhyme consists of the repetition, in the rhyming words. There is an echo in a rhyme and so it is a source of aesthetic satisfaction. There is pleasure in the sound itself and in the coincidence of sounds, and this pleasure is associated with the sense of music, of rhythmic and beat, the pulse sense which is common to all human beings. Rhyme is a rhythmical device for intensifying the meaning as well as for binding the slogan together. Especially phrases tied together with rhyme are effectively used in the slogans.

Examples: Sansui: "Bigger, Better, Flatter."

Park avenue: "A quest for the best"

It is a short and crisp slogan for an effective impact.

**Allusion**

Allusion is a passing reference, without explicit identification, to a literary or historical place, person, or to another literary work or passage. Most allusions serve to illustrate or expand upon or enhance a subject. It is often a kind of appeal to the reader to share some experience with the writer. An allusion may enrich the work by association and give to assure an established literary tradition, a tradition and an ability on the part of audience to 'pick up' the reference. A writer makes use of an allusion with the point of view of expressiveness with economy. The brand name itself is an allusion. These kinds of allusions are used in the language of signboards

Example: Hotel Taj

Hotel Ashoka

The name evokes all the splendor, grandeur and luxury of the royal courts

**Parallelism**

This refers to a very common device consisting of phrases or sentences of similar construction and meaning placed side by side, balancing each other. By use of parallelism, language is organized in
a regular pattern. In rhyme and alliteration, there is a phonological parallelism, where there is repetition of sound patterns. In syntactic parallelism, there is a repetition of sound structures which makes language neatly organized. Parallelism is a technique to enhance the memo ability of the speaker's message.

Parallelism may be either syntactic repetition of structure or verbal repetition. A syntactic parallelism may establish a relationship of similarity or of contrast (anti-thesis).

Examples:
1. Go green, Go Ford (Ford Ikon)
2. Always the real thing, always Coca-Cola (Coca-Cola)
3. Take a big holiday on a small budget (Air India)

Contrasting parallelism.

Advertisers in full measure are now using the preserve of imaginative literature. The great diversity of the communication potential of language is really remarkable in the language of advertising in signboards.

Neologisms

The writers of signboard share with poets the prerogative to coin new words, most of which remains nonce words, made up for a few occasions and unabsorbed by the standard language. So these neologisms widen the possibility of expression. These are formed by compounding, affixation, composition or deviation. A few examples are cited below under each category.

**Compounding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glycerin_rich Pears</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once in a life time LIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skin care Lakme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tea times Marie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liril freshness Liril</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast-working Anacin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Affixation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swedish board</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>De-laminate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-lubricated Yamaha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Stick Khaitan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Adjectival deviations
1. Munchy Biscuits
2. Lime n lemoni Limca

Anomalous lexical collocations

When a writer is in search of a striking new adjective or a noun, anomalous lexical collocation comes to his aid. This consists of an unrestricted choice of nouns where only a noun from a limited list of nouns is normally used. The deviation which occurs is in contrast to the expected occurrence.

Example: “Love appears at thirst site.
‘Thirst’ appears in the place of ‘first’

Imagery

The suggestion of vivid mental pictures or images by the skilful use of words is called ‘imagery’. Imagery often involves the creation of beautiful sight- effects and sound effects by means of words. This capacity is a gift of imagination. The usages of imagery appeal to the sensory organs of the human beings viz., sight, smell, sound, taste and touch. The usages of the sensuous images reveal the artistic skill to render the words, the pictures of images which are drawn from the real world.

i  Words appealing to the sensory organ of hearing
   Examples: Rustling hair designers, rhythms electronics.

ii  Images appealing to the sensory organ of seeing
   Examples: Shines, glittering jewels

iii. Words appealing to the sensory organ of smell
   Example: fragrant dishes

iv  Images appealing to the sensory organ of taste
   Example: Fried chicken, cool bar, hot chips

v  Images appealing to the sensory organ of touch
   Example: Soft computers, feather touch.

The above picturesque epithets, amply evidence the skills of the speakers in the apt choices of words ie adjectives, to convey the appropriate images of the real world.
**Metonomy**

Like metaphor is a figurative use of language rather than a literature. This word comes from the Greek word metonymia, derived from meta 'change' and onama 'name'. The name of a referent or the thing referred is replaced by the name of an attribute or entity related to the semantic way or by another kind of link ie the ground of the substitution is the case of association. The language use includes the adoption of this figurative language which throws light into the language style.

Examples: The city mobiles, The city cars

It denotes the mobiles used by different kinds of people and the varieties of products used by them.

**Synecdoche**

Synecdoche is another kind of figurative language, which is usually classed as a type of metonymy. In the case of synecdoche, the transference takes the form of something being carried over to stand in the place of the whole thing- to describe the actions and the traits where only a part of the body is used for describing the essential facts

Examples: Eyes dark, chest clinic, skin care, silver tongue etc.

**Conclusion**

Advertisements are the best specimen to witness the social changes and trends that affect the masses. The writer's criterion for creating an advertisement is the finest form of deep analysis and strong command over his customers and market. Language is a weapon that he triggers off on human psyche. The advertiser knows the nerves of the society and its subjects, and accordingly he plans his advertising messages and casts his spells over writing. He studies the temperament of a buyer and makes use of language with the assurance that it will evoke the desired reaction to what he wants to sell. The writers are always in search of smarter ways to grind the customers to part with his money. Discourse has become one of the key concepts in the vocabulary of humanities and social sciences.
Problems of Teaching and Learning English in India: A Study

Talluri Mathew Bhaskar
A.P.R.J College, Guntur Dist., Andhra Pradesh

English is the easiest language to speak badly, and it is the most difficult language to speak correctly.

- A.C. Baugh.

The remarkable assimilative power of the English language has made it one of the greatest assets of modern age and those nations Germany, China and Japan where study and use of this language was not encouraged until recently, are reversing their stand now and one notices an awareness in these countries that the study and use of languages like English, need not be at expense of their local and national languages. It has become "a major window on the world". Many things came to India with the English and several of the institutions and other things remain even after the English have walked out of India. English plays a very significant role in bringing the world together. We, Indians, are not native speakers of English, to us English is a second language. The native speaker of English has imbibed the language with his mother's milk and he has become familiar with the components of English in the natural process of growing up. This can not be so with us. Teaching English as a second language in India is beset with some problems. These problems make it necessary for any teacher of English to have a methodical and intensive training to qualify as a good teacher of English.

However some worthwhile teaching and learning are possible if the right relationship is established in the attitudes of the teacher, the learner, the learner’s parents, and if through this relationship the learner is properly motivated. There is a dire need to day to redefine English language education in India. It can not be taught as it had been in the past. It has occupied a predominant position in India, not only as a link language but also for establishing national resurgence and cultural unification. The incredible expansion in science an
technology and globalization has created a high demand for qualified personnel with good proficiency in English. English has come to play a very important role in India as a second language. But there are some administrative and academic problems. Administratively, the proportion of English to be taught at a college level is mostly a policy matter over which either the teachers or the learners of English have no control whatsoever. There is no coordination between the different administratively constituted academic bodies like the secondary board, the intermediate board and university board of studies concerned with designing syllabuses, prescribing textbooks and teaching materials and conducting examinations. As a result, there is a lot of duplication, vagueness in the proportion of English to be taught/learnt at different levels such as high school, intermediate and graduate levels of our education system. Many schools and colleges do not have the minimum staff and infrastructural facilities to carry out teaching/learning of English effectively. English classes are overcrowded with large numbers of students and therefore the teacher is not able to pay any individual attention to each student. Most of the teachers of English are not properly trained. In some schools a teacher who teaches subjects like science, mathematics and social studies, also teaches English.

In the teachers' training courses such as B.Ed, there is no specific training in the methods and techniques of teaching English as a second language. In colleges also, the qualification is only M.A., in English literature and language. In many universities of our country, no special paper in English language teaching is offered. Consequently, most of college and university teachers of English who have studied English mainly as literature do not have the necessary training skills to teach English as a language and as a vehicle of communication. A very significant factor in language learning is motivation. The child acquiring his mother tongue has his motivation in the recognition that he wins all around in the urge to establish identity with other children. But the second-language learner has his motivation in the need to communicate--whatever be the level of communication he wants to reach. So, emphasis should be laid on the communicative use of language. The classroom activity should be geared to this, and the
learners should be well-motivated to ensure effective learning through a natural urge to communicate. The second-language learner attaches significance to the meaning of his utterances much more than the child who is in the process of acquiring his mother tongue.

This is because of his need to communicate in the language. So, learning becomes more effective when he is drilled in sentence patterns in which he understands every lexical item. It is a well-known fact that what is learned is better retained when the language involved is meaningful. The child learns to speak first; then only does he learn to write, and that too when taught; speaking he does without being formally trained. On the analogy of the child’s language acquisition, should the second-language learner be taught speech first and writing next? In other words, is it psychologically necessary or beneficial for speech to be learnt before writing? The history human language shows that it came to be spoken first and written afterwards. This primacy of speeches makes linguists argue that the language learner should be trained in listening and speaking first and reading and writing next. But we should not forget that the second-language learner has already learnt his mother tongue and has reached an age at which he can learn what he sees and hears. So, we may not go the whole hog with the linguists; we may make use of both modalities—speech and writing—simultaneously in our scheme of second-language learning. There are certain variable factors which are of great importance in second-language learning. The most important of these factors is the duration of exposure to the language. In India English is taught as a second language in schools and colleges for five or six hours in a week. Perhaps the duration is hardly adequate; also the courses are spread over years. These two facts make it difficult for us to create a sustained interest and inculcate a sense of progress and achievement in our students. The redeeming feature, however, is that the long period of exposure to English, though intermittent and not intensive, enables our students to have a certain degree of familiarity with sentence patterns, words, and phrases in the language which, with some more continuous contact with the language strengthens his ability to write it though not to speak it.
Another factor in learning is classroom conditions. These conditions include the number of students in a class, the physical arrangements for the class, teaching materials such as chalk, blackboard, audio-visual aids, library etc. It is very important that second-language classes are of the right size. A class consisting of forty or thereabouts becomes unwieldy, and no individual attention can be paid to students. One of the reasons why teaching English in India does not leave the desired impact on the student is that the class is too big for the teacher to do any worthwhile job. The availability of the right type of teaching materials and audio-visual aids can certainly make the teaching of English in India quite effective. Audio-visual aids are an integral part of the learning situation and are as important as the blackboard and chalk. In India teaching English suffers as a result of the inadequacy and poor availability of these resources. Though English learning begins in the Fourth Standard (in the non-English medium schools in most of the States) and goes on till the end of the Second Year of College education, yet the standard of English reached by students in general is poor. This is because of inadequacies relating to teaching aids and other environmental factors. The two vital factors in a second-language learning situation are the student and the teacher. The teacher has problems to tackle when he is faced with the task of teaching a class of students who show varying capacities of assimilation.

In India even at the college level a large number of students have to be given elementary lessons in the language; they as well as the students who have a better standard feel that the lessons and methods adopted are not appropriate to their age or status. The result is a kind of general resentment. In such circumstances the teacher will have to convince the students that what he wants to do is in their own interests. Some of the students are weakly motivated owing to their social and family background; here the teacher must himself stimulate and sustain motivation. The variations that exist in the standards of students in the same class pose other problems too. Individual attention to students can remedy the situation to a great extent. But this is possible only if the class is of small size. A study of the entry behavior of each and every student is not practicable;
nor is it possible because of the difficulties that come in the way of
deciding on objectives in terms of desired terminal behavior in each
of the four sills. What is perhaps possible is to assess the average
competence of the class and then to impart systematic instruction
taking into account the length of course in terms of teaching time,
time at the disposal of the student for personal work, amount of
exposure to English outside its study as a subject in its own right, the
size of class, availability of books, teaching aids, etc. Like the student
the teacher himself is a variable factor in the scheme of teaching a
second language; his skill and personality are instrumental in creating
the necessary conditions for learning. He should be proficient in the
language; his knowledge of and expertise in methods and techniques
of language teaching should be of a reasonably high standard. The
teacher’s language is the principal model for the student. In India the
main problem is to have competent teachers of English. A large
number of the present teachers are relatively ill-taught and are noted
for their lack of professional skill in their understanding of language
and language learning and in their command of methods and
techniques of language teaching.

One of the main reasons for the falling standard of English is
lack of a clear-cut policy. There are still many questions unanswered
with regard to the place of English in the school. Curriculum. This
has led to divided opinions, and in turn frequent changes in the
government policy towards the teaching of English in several states.
The number of failures in English were alarmingly high, as a result of
which Government has decided not to consider marks in English as
an essential criteria for admission into a university course. There
lacks a uniformity in pattern with regard to the standards to be
achieved, maintained, or imparted to the students. In most of the
schools, teaching of English is done like any other subject.

A language teacher should be aware that English should be taught
as a skill subject, not as a content subject. But lack of such
understanding makes the teaching ineffective. Further, the teacher
of English aims to enable his pupils to take an examination and quality
in it, rather than imparting in him a proficiency in the skills of the
language. English teaching is made so dull and drab in schools that
learners do not hold any interest or love for the language, but learn it merely for framing a course. As there is no supervision of English teaching in schools there is a tendency to employ defective methods and techniques in the teaching of English. As a result, teachers receive no guidance in teaching. The teachers are not encouraged to meet specialists in the field and take courses, to replace the old, traditional methods and techniques with the latest ones.

A teacher of English must always keep himself abreast of development in the language. He has to change or modify his methods according to the changing trends and needs of the learners. But, there are no such programmes readily available to the teachers and even if a few institutes offer such programmes, it is not taken seriously, as the need is not felt by them. The method of teaching is decided by the examination pattern. So, the learners are encouraged to memorize a few answers and get through the examination. The result is that although a student succeeds in an examination, he has no practical command over the language. Students have also got into hazardous practices of using readymade guides and question banks, thus hampering his growth. The number of periods allotted to English have been drastically cut down to make more time for the non-languages. Real success in English language teaching and learning is when the learners can actually communicate in English inside and outside the classroom. Successful teachers and institutions differ in many ways, but tend to have certain things in common. Among these are routine communication in English in class, an emphasis on practice rather than explanation, and cooperation among teachers. A major goal of all English language teaching should be to enable learners to use English effectively, and as far as possible accurately, in communication. Memorizing language forms and rules is valid as a short-term objective, but not as a main goal. Where time is short and groups large, goals may be limited, for example, to reading technical publications, but they should still involve communication.

Some immediate objectives will not be communicative in themselves, but should clearly contribute to the development of communicative ability. Learners should feel there is a worthwhile
purpose to each activity and the whole course. Among the most important objectives of every lesson is engaging the learners’ attention and interest. The communicative goal of a course should be ever-present. It should be emphasized from the start by establishing English as the main classroom language. This requires careful management and the use of specific techniques. Regular communicative activities, such as warm-ups, also emphasize the communicative nature and goal of a course. Communicating in English and learning the English language go hand in hand. Communication should be the main goal of all English teaching, but the presentation and practice of new language items is a major element in most syllabuses. We must also recognize that learning language items and systems and eliminating errors is a long-term project.

These three elements - communication, new language, and continuing work on old language - can be integrated into a general model with a ‘communication highway’ and presentation-practice and review remedial loops. A model can help us see a complex process more clearly, but it is a simplification and idealization. It must be adapted to specific situations. Material conditions are not as important for successful learning as other, less tangible, conditions such as opportunities for learners to participate in class, and an atmosphere in which they feel motivated to learn. Lessons should be dynamic, involving the learners in varied activities and interactions. Learners should be active, not just listen and repeat. To participate willingly, they must feel able and confident, not threatened by failure, reprimand, or ridicule. You must take the lead in establishing a positive atmosphere, planning appropriate activities, encouraging learners and dealing with problems sensitively. Motivation is essential for learning. Some types of motivation are brought or not brought to the course by learners, for example, enjoyment of topics, activities, and interactions.

Your relationship and rapport with the group and individual learners is also very important. Having mentioned some of the major factors that have had the most deleterious effect on English teaching in India over the years, we may suggest that the remedy lies in getting down to grassroots and in concentrating on methodologies in the six
years between the Fifth Standard and the Tenth Standard. It is desirable that English teaching commences form the Fifth Standard as at that level the language can be taught by Secondary School teachers who alone (and not Primary School Teachers too) need be trained in English teaching. With the availability of trained teachers, new syllabi, properly graded for each Standard, for the students to proceed gradually form simple to difficult and from difficult to more difficult patterns of sentences and to learn newer and newer words to improve their expressiveness, may be introduced. New methodologies with emphasis on the four-language skills will have to be initiated both in schools and in colleges. These methodologies should depend on techniques that will motivate students to learn English and to enjoy learning it. What is most needed is a change in the attitudes of our teachers - a change that will make them aware that lecturing is not the only teaching technique and that unless they are teaching literature as such they are teaching English as a second-language. This awareness will have to be accompanied by their preparedness to employ new methodologies, approaches and techniques for imparting instruction in the four language skills and for creating in students an interest in both English and its literature.

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Computational Linguistics

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Introduction

Linguistics is a science about natural language, here particularly English. General linguistics studies the general structure of various natural languages and discovers the universal laws of functioning of natural languages. General linguistics has its most important parts as, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semitics, Comparative linguistics, Computational linguistics and Applied linguistics.

Morphology deals with inner structure of individual words and the laws concerning the formation of words from pieces-morphs. Syntax considers structures of sentences and the ways individual words are connected within them. Semantics deals with the meaning of individual words. Comparative linguistics allows us to predict the elements of one language based on our knowledge of another related language.

The growth of the amount of available written information originated in the Renaissance with the invention of printing press and increased now-a-days the unimaginable extent has obliged the man acquire a new type of literacy related to the new forms of media besides writing, One of such forms is the computer an object of the modern world that increases the degree of freedom of human action and knowledge, where the fantasy becomes reality. The success of modern software for natural language processing impresses our imagination. Programs for orthography and grammar correction, information retrieval from document databases and translation from one natural language into another are available now.

The development of the tools for the automatic processing of the natural language like English is tremendous. To develop such applications, specialists in computer science have developed adequate tools to investigate language with a view to its automatic processing. One such tool I a deep knowledge of both computational linguistics
and general linguistic science.

A better way to understand the methods and techniques of computational linguistics is to have a review of some existing practical application or in words called as applied linguistics. These applications include in its category of all known tasks of word processing, as well as those of text processing, text generation, dialogue in a natural language and language understanding. Some of these applications already are available in English language.

**Classification of applied linguistics**

Applied linguistic systems are now widely used in business and scientific domains for many purposes. Some of the most important ones. Among them are as follows:

1. **Automatic Hyphenation**

   Hyphenation is intended for the proper splitting of words in natural language texts. When a word of occurring at the end of a line is too long to fit on that line within the accepted margins, a part of it is moved to the next line. The word is thus wrapped, i.e., Split and partially transferred to the next line.

   In this way, hyphenation improves the outer appearance of Computer-produced text through adjusting their right margins. It saves paper and at the same time preserves impression of smooth reading just as without any hyphenation.

2. **Spell Checking**

   The objective of spell checking is the detection and correction of typographic and orthographic errors in the text at the level of word occurrence considered out of its context.

   No body can write without any errors. Even people well acquainted with the rules of language, can just by accident, press a wrong key on the keyboard, or miss out a letter. Additionally, when typing, one sometimes does not synchronize properly the movements of the hands and fingers. All such errors are called typos and typographic errors. On the other hand, some people do not know the correct spelling of some words. Such words are called spelling errors.
The programs that perform operations of both kinds are called orthographic correctors, in English they are usually called spell checkers. In everyday practice, spell checkers are considered very helpful and are used by millions of users throughout the world. The majority or the modern text editors are supplied now with integrated spell checkers. The amount of linguistic information necessary for spell checkers is much greater than for hyphenation.

3. Grammar checking

Detection and correction of grammatical errors by taking into account adjacent words in the sentence or even the whole sentence are much more difficult tasks, for computational linguists and software developers than just checking orthography.

Grammar errors are those violating for example the Syntactic laws of the laws related to the structure of a sentence. One of these laws is the agreement between a noun and an adjective in gender and grammatical numbers. Another example of a syntactic agreement is the agreement between the noun in the role of subject and the main verb in number and person. Other types of grammatical errors, include incorrect usage of preposition. In the last few years significant improvement have been made in grammar checkers. For example, the grammar checker included in Microsoft word is helpful but still very far from perfection.

In any case, since the author of the text is the only person that definitely knows what he or she meant to write, the final decision must always be left up to the users, whether to make a correction suggested by the grammar checker or to leave the text as it was.

4. Style checking

The Stylistic errors are those violating the laws of use of correct words and word combinations in language in general or in a given literary genre.

The application is the nearest in its tasks to normative grammars and manuals on stylistic in the printed, oriented to humans, form. Thus style checkers play a didactic and prescriptive role for authors of texts. There exists style checkers for English and some other
major languages, but mainly in laboratory versions. Meanwhile, commercial style checkers are usually rather primitive in their functions. The assessment of deeper and more interesting stylistic properties connected with the lexicon and the syntactic constructions is still considered a task for the future.

5. Reference to words and word combinations

The reference from any specific word give access to the set off words semantically related to the former in a text. This is a very important application. Nowadays it is performed with linguistic tools of two kinds: autonomous on line dictionaries and built in dictionaries of synonyms within typical processors, the synonymy dictionaries are usually called the sauri. References to various words or word combinations of a given natural language have the objective to help the author of a text to create more correct, flexible and idiomatic texts. Indeed only an insignificant part of all thinkable word combinations are really permitted in the English language, so that the knowledge of the permitted and common combination is a very important part of linguistic competence of any author.

6. Information Retrieval

Information retrieval systems (IRS) are designed to search for relevant information in large documentary databases. This information can be of various kinds, with the queries ranging from “find all the documents containing the word conjugar” to find information on the conjugation of English verbs.

Nowadays a simple but powerful approach to the format of the query is becoming popular in IRSS for non-professional users. The query is still a set of words, the system first tries to find the document containing all of these words, then all but one and finally those containing only one of the words.

Thus the set of key words is considered in a step by step transition from conjunction to disjunction of their occurrences. The result are ordered by degree of relevance, which can be measured by the number of relevant keywords found in the document. The documents containing more keywords are presented to the user first.
The result of retrieval operation directly depend on the quality and performance of the indexing and comparing subsystem, on the content of the terminological system or the thesaurus and other data and knowledge used by the system. Obviously the main tools and data sets used by an IRS have the linguistic nature.

7. Topical Summarization

In many cases, it is necessary to automatically determine what a given document is about. This information is used to classify the documents by their main topics, to deliver by internet the documents on a specific subject to the users, to automatically index the documents in an IRS, to quickly orient people in a large set of document, and for other purposes. Applied linguistics can improve this method in many possible ways.

8. Automatic Translation

Translation from one natural language to another is a very important task. The amount of business and scientific texts in the world is growing rapidly and many countries are very productive in scientific and business domains, publishing numerous books and articles in their own languages. With the growth of international contacts and collaboration, the need of translation of legal contracts, technical documentation, instruction, advertisement and other texts used in the everyday life of millions of people has become a matter of vital importance.

At present there are a number of translation softwares, ranging from every large international projects being developed by several institutes or even several corporations in close cooperation, to simple automatic dictionaries. However the quality of translations ever for large systems developed by the best scientists, is usually conspicuously lower than the quantity of manual human translation.

9. Natural Language Interface

The task performed by a natural language interface to a database is to understand questions entered by a user in a natural language and to provide answers usually in natural language, but sometimes as a formatted output. Typically the entered queries or questions, concern
some facts about data contained in a databases.

Since each database, is to some degree specialized the language of the queries and the set of words used in them are usually very limited. Hence the linguistic task of grammatical and semantic analysis is much simpler than other tasks related to natural language such as translation.

There are some quite successful systems with natural language interfaces that are able to understand a very specialized sublanguage quite well. Other systems, with other usually less specialized sublanguages are much less successful. Therefore, this problem does not have at least thus far, a universal solution.

10. Extraction of factual data from texts

Extraction of factual data from texts is the task of automatic generation of elements of a factographic database, such as fields, or parameters, based on on-line texts. Often the flows of current news from the internet or from an information agency are used as the source of information for such systems and the parameters of interest can be the demand for a specific type of a product in various regions, the prices of specific types of products, events involving a particular person or company opinions about a specific issue or a political party etc.

11. Text Generation

The generation of text from pictures and Formal Specifications is a comparatively new field, it arose about ten years ago. Some useful applications of this task have been in recent years. Among them are multimedia that require a text generating systems to illustrate the pictures through textual explanation. These subsystems produce coherent texts starting from the features of the pictures. Another very important application of system of this kind is the generation of formal specifications in text form from quite formal technical drawings.

12. Systems of language understanding

Natural language understanding systems are the most general and
complex systems involving natural language processing. Such systems are universal in the sense that they can perform nearly all the tasks of other language-related systems, such as grammar and style checking, information retrieval, automatic translation, natural languages interface, extraction of factual data from texts and so forth. Hence creation of a text understanding system is the most challenging task for the joint efforts of computational linguistics and artificial intelligence.

Conclusions

Thus, it could be concluded that the review of applied linguistic systems has shown that only very simple tasks like hyphenation or simple spell checking can be solved on a modest linguistic basis. All other systems should employ relatively deep linguistic knowledge. It was also proved that most of the language processing tasks could be considered as special cases of the general tasks of language understanding, one of the ultimate goals of computational linguistics and artificial intelligence.

References

Developing Reading Competency in English Language Teaching

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Efficient living in modern society today demands communication for which reading skills are indispensable. Complex society is dependent every hour of every day upon the capacity of its people to read and write, to make complex judgements and decisions. Where there is not this kind of base on which to build, modern social and economic developments are simply impossible. Today's youth is not educated until he becomes an effective reader.

Experiences reveal that many children have difficulties in learning to read. They do not have access to the wonders of books and other kinds of texts for learning and enjoyment. With reading disabled children, many negative effects become apparent. Their humiliation leads to predictable decrease in motivation and self-esteem.

It is observed that those who fail in school have usually failed in reading. Giordana Bruno rightly remarked, "if the first button of a man's coat is wrongly put, all the rest are bound to be crooked" (Ahuja 1). Time demands these children to develop the kind of skills required to learn to read. To encourage and facilitate the development of reading in young children involves parents and teachers in many activities. Parents have to talk and read to their children and remember to make all the language and literacy interactions in the home positive and enjoyable experiences. Once the confidence is gained, the role as the reader will be more frequently taken over by the child.

Skilled reading requires the integration of several skills and abilities. Readers must be taught "phoneme awareness" if it does not come easily to them. Once children learn how to apply sounds to letter symbols, they must practise the process to ensure that their reading becomes rapid and fluent. Reading also requires phonics, reading fluency and comprehension skills. Each of these skills is necessary and none are sufficient in their own right. They must be integrated.
and applied in text through consistent and frequent practice. The ability to read effectively is critical to the success of students and this can be done by engaging them in active reading practices that can help them become more involved in their reading, thus aiding comprehension and retention. One must also train one’s tongue for fluency.

But, too many students read passively, failing to construct accurate comprehension with the guidance of a purpose or goal for reading. The result is that too many students begin to dislike their reading and come to view it as a necessary evil. Reading doesn’t have to be an onerous task and to be dreaded. To avoid these ill feelings about reading, experience shows and reading specialists know, that an active approach to reading will likely be more productive and interesting.

Specific active reading strategies that can be used with students of today are,

Analytic Reading that involves breaking a text into its component parts, in order to understand its meaning and relate it to other texts.

Graphic Organizers is organization of knowledge or a mode of intake for visual learners; graphic organizers can be used effectively to make abstract ideas concrete and visible.

Integrating the Internet into the Classroom - The Internet has a vast amount of information and it has become an important skill for students to master.

Active reading involves checking your understanding, monitoring for difficulties, and checking for ways to correct difficulties. It should be clear from these aspects of active reading that active reading is brain intensive; it involves thinking as one reads and directing that thinking to achieve certain reading goals. In short, active reading assists the students in doing what had come to university to learn that is how to think deeply about issues of importance in society.

Realizing the need a student reader must become a rapid, efficient reader through training and practice with an aim to develop his innate capacity for accurate comprehension
Quicker, more accurate
Sharper, more immediate, concentration
More active participation in thinking along with his peers
Deeper involvement and therefore greater mastery over printed matter.

The student succeeds and feels self-assured about comprehension and is aware of the reading efficiency and discovers that a book is not his master but his willing servant.

To improve reading or to transform the potential speed into a normal habitual speed an individual must

- **Read more** - read merely to pass time, make time for reading, speed can be developed into a permanent habit.
- **Learn to read for main ideas** - push through efficiently for a quick recognition of main ideas.
- **Challenge his comprehension** - never limit to easy reading, read on a more challenging type than the accustomed one.
- **Budget the time** - time limit will mobilize concentration
- **Pace himself** - devise personal tricks to speed up
- **Develop habits of immediate concentration** - to top comprehension speed, constantly challenge understanding, stimulate the mind and get involved with the author’s views.

As one continues to apply these newfound strategies, one must endeavour to remain flexible in the approach to reading and always read with a view to improve skills. This will help a student to eliminate the faulty habits and inefficient techniques that interfere with total concentration that slow up comprehension and keep the rate of reading down to a much lower level than they are potentially capable of achieving. Determination will make it possible for a student to read, to understand quickly and to respond accurately to a page of print. It is a potential challenge to develop this skill with a sense of urgency to progress toward their goals - to be intellectually strong, be a store of knowledge and ideas and to be alert to what is going on in the world.

This accomplishment is gradually rewarding and meaningful. It
influences an individual to behave in a certain way or to decide upon future behaviour. Reading is a service skill. Printed matter has a potential social value; hence lack of understanding is a tremendous detriment in the striving for success as an individual. The desire to better the mental horizons and to learn more will help the individual move toward successful living in several directions at the same time.

A reader not only gains the benefit of the social contact with the great mind who has written the book, but also helps to develop a social relationship with those who have a common aim and who are bound in a closer social union by virtue of a common goal. Readers understand the values and the problems of other people. Reading develops cross-cultural awareness, enables readers to analyze and suggest measures for using and sharing the earth’s resources, develops a spirit of kinship with other people, since humanity shares a common future and makes an individual aware of the choices he can make in order to considered as a citizen of the world.

Reading is the golden bridge between the individual and his community and without this kind of communication neither the individual nor the community could exist. It is left to the individual to develop the bridges that bind him/her to their fellow men. The more an individual is connected, the more significant will be the life and the more thrilling the living of it.

Bibliography

Gender and Metaphor: Gujarati Gender System

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‘If linguistics can be said to be any one thing it is the study of categories: that is, the study of how language translates meaning into sounds through the categorization of reality into discrete units and sets of units.’ (Labov, 1973: 342, quoted in Taylor, 2003: 02) Different languages categorize the world in different ways. There are categories of gender, animate/inanimate things, human/non-human, etc. The word ‘gender’ derives from Latin ‘genus’ via Old French ‘gendre’, originally meaning ‘kind’ or ‘sort’ (Lyons 1968: 283). ‘Gender system may have sex as a component, as in languages with masculine and feminine genders; but equally, sex may be irrelevant, as in the Algonquian languages, where the distinction is between animate and inanimate.’ (Corbett, 2006: 749). Gujarati is the language where we can see the classification in these three ways; Gujarati marks masculine, feminine and neutral genders by various morphemes. Present paper is an inquiry into the role of gender marking from cognitive and metaphorical perspective in Guajarati language in particular and the role of cognitive categories in general.

While talking about gender, we talk about two types of gender, one, natural gender, and two, grammatical gender. Natural gender refers to biological gender. For example, in English language, ‘boy’ is biologically classified as masculine; it is masculine in all the cultures and societies, because it is naturally male. On the other hand, the word ‘girl’ is for female, it can not be used to talk about male. It is naturally feminine. Similarly, the word ‘baby’ and ‘chair’ are neutral in English language, here, ‘baby’ can be used for both male and female child, while the word ‘chair’ is inanimate, and hence can not be classified as male or female, because no natural gender is associated with such furniture. This is true for English language, where we do not have gender marked by any grammatical morpheme. If we take the case like Gujarati language, we have a very different scenario.
Here, these three morphemes, -o, -i, and –uN, marks masculine, feminine and neutral gender respectively. Many words do not exhibit these morphemes in their base forms, but again they take a particular morpheme to mark some other gender. And certain words are inherently categorized as masculine or feminine, for example, ‘biladi’ (cat) is categorized as feminine, or ‘table’ is categorized as neutral. In such cases, these forms are considered base forms, and the change of gender is possible in a very marked situation. For example, ‘bilado’ (male cat) will be used only if one is very specific about the gender of the cat or the gender of the animal is really an important part of the discussion. At times, this word is also used to refer to the male in an abusive manner. The core fact remains is that cat, as an animal, is categorized as female in Gujarati language.

It is not the case that, all the words that end in ‘-i’ are categorized as feminine in Gujarati. For example, the word like ‘haathi’ (elephant) is masculine in Gujarati, probably based on the natural gender, and the term for female elephant is, ‘haathan’, which is yet another paradigm in gender marking, we require different set of morphemes for gender marking in this case. Thus, Gujarati follows a very complex and developed gender system. But, as Corbett marks, “a language has a gender system only if noun phrases headed by nouns of different types control different agreements. No amount of marking on a noun can prove that it has gender; the evidence that nouns have gender in a given language lies in the agreement targets that show gender.”

Let us check the agreement pattern in Gujarati.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Agreement Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-o</td>
<td>“boy”</td>
<td>kutar-o “dog”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-i</td>
<td>“girl”</td>
<td>kutar-i “bitch”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-u</td>
<td>“kid”</td>
<td>kutar-u “puppy”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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We can see in these examples, that Gujarati exhibits agreement with respect to gender with verb, adjective and demonstratives also. In example (h), the word ‘ghar’ does not have any particular morpheme which marks neutral gender, because the word itself is categorized as neutral, and masculine or feminine counterpart is not possible. There are many such examples in Gujarati language. This kind of gender categorization is also visible in the words of foreign languages borrowed in Gujarati. Let us see an example; the English word ‘baby’ is borrowed in Gujarati. Originally, the word is neutral, that is it does not denote any specific gender, if we want to specify the gender we need to say, ‘baby boy’ or ‘baby girl’ in English. Gujarati borrowed this word, now the word comes with ‘i’, which is, incidentally, the most productive feminine gender suffix in Gujarati. This sound is reinterpreted as a gender marker, and the word falls into the feminine category. Now, for making it masculine, Gujarati speaker attaches ‘-o’ instead of ‘-i’, and nativizes it as a word of Gujarati language. Now, in order to refer to ‘baby boy’ Gujarati speaker uses ‘babo’.

Similar nativization process is visible in the word like ‘bottle’. Again ‘bottle’ is an English word, borrowed in Gujarati; it is adapted as ‘baatal’, but, if the ‘bottle’ is small in size, it will take feminine gender,
and pronounced as ‘baatali’, and if it is big in size, it will take masculine in gender, and pronounced as ‘baatalo’. This categorization reveals one more interesting factor related with gender categorization. If there is a possibility of assigning different gender to the same root, the feminine gender marked word will be smaller or inferior one in the pair.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>baatal-o</td>
<td>baatal-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b-a-t-o</td>
<td>“bottle (big in size)”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ord-o</td>
<td>ord-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o-r-d-o</td>
<td>“room”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chopard-o</td>
<td>chopard-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-o-p-d-o</td>
<td>“big book”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chamch-o</td>
<td>chamch-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-a-m-c-h-o</td>
<td>“big spoon”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chhar-o</td>
<td>chhar-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-a-r-o</td>
<td>“big knife”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dhagl-o</td>
<td>dhagl-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d-h-a-g-l-o</td>
<td>“heap”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dad-o</td>
<td>dad-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d-a-d-o</td>
<td>“ball”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lit-o</td>
<td>lit-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l-i-t-o</td>
<td>“thick line”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waatk-o</td>
<td>waatk-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w-a-t-k-o</td>
<td>“bowl”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hathod-o</td>
<td>hathod-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h-a-t-h-o-d-o</td>
<td>“hammer”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thal</td>
<td>thal-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-h-a-l</td>
<td>“big dish”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In all the above examples, we can easily notice that gender marker and category is used as a size marker, masculine gender marked entities are bigger in size, while their feminine counterpart is smaller in size.

Similarly, the neutral gender is also specified, if something is unimportant, or gender is irrelevant, Gujarati speakers tend to mark neutral gender at that point.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neutral Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-h-o-k-a-r-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-h-o-k-a-r-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chhokar-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-h-h-o-k-a-r-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ghod-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-h-o-d-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ghod-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-h-o-d-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ghod-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-h-o-d-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gadhed-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-a-d-h-e-d-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gadhed-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-a-d-h-e-d-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gadhed-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g-a-d-h-e-d-u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Recent Advances in Linguistics

In all these examples, as we can see, the neutral gender marks triviality, neutral gender marked noun is not necessarily the small in size, but it sure is an unimportant entity.

Gujarati society is a male dominated society. Woman is always considered inferior, and secondary. This category of feminine gender is extended, metaphorically, to the issues of superiority and inferiority. Actually, it was used to mark the smaller size, a kind of diminutive. Everything that is marked masculine gender is bigger and/or superior than feminine gender marked counterpart. This metaphor is now used in discourse very frequently, to mark the inferiority. For example, while talking to male, the female gender morpheme is used as an abusive word, like instead of saying, “chhaan-o maan-o besi re”, the person would say, “chhaan-i maan-i besi re.” (keep silence.) As it appears here, in order to make other interlocutor inferior, the speaker takes the help of the gender marker.

Let us see, some other type of example, where morphological gender plays very little role, but the natural gender itself is used as inferiority marker.

a. aa to maar o chhokar o chhe.
   (This is my boy.)

b. aa to maari chhokari chhe.
   (This is my girl.)

Now, here, if sentence (a) is used for the girl, means the deixis aa (this) refers to girl, it is considered praise for the girl. But, the deixis of sentence (b) refers to boy; it is considered an insult for the boy. It
means that the boy is not capable of enduring responsibilities of a male. Such examples, more or less refers to the social structure, and gender roles in the society.

Now, the issue is that “What affects the categorization?”, whether the diminutives of non-living things affect the inferiority of female, or the inferiority of female affects the diminutives of the objects. We need to look for the prototype of the category of Feminine gender. As Langacker puts, “A prototype is a typical instance of a category, and other elements are assimilated to the category on the basis of their perceived resemblance to the prototype; there are degrees of membership based on the degrees of similarity.” (Langacker 1987: 371) When we take the case of Feminine gender into account, we need to look for the prototype for the category. The category, itself, is called ‘Feminine’, the term indices toward the prototype. But, in order to look for the metaphorical meaning associated with this category, that is the meaning of being inferior or small, we need to look into the anthropological aspects of Gujarati society. Gujarati Society is Male dominated society; all the decisions in the house and society are taken by male. The role of female, here, becomes marginal or peripheral. Even the superiority among the woman is also based on the male superiority, superior male’s wife or mother will be considered superior among the females.

Apart from such social and family structure, we can see many proverbs which are considered gendered. These proverbs reveal a lot about the social status and traditional role about the woman. “stree ni buddhi pani ye” which means, the intelligence of a female is in her feet. The proverb talks about the inferiority of a woman in terms of intelligence. Another proverb questions the existence of female, “daal ni sobat thi chokho nar mati maadaa banyo”, which literally means, the male rice becomes female in the company of female grain. Here, with the help of metaphors of rice and grain, the message related with gender roles is given. ‘daal’ (grain) is feminine in Gujarati, while ‘chokho’ (rice) is male, but , when we cook using these two, it becomes ‘khichdi’ which is feminine. The implication
is that male identity is superior identity, and female identity is inferior one.

“The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind or thing or experience in terms of another.” (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 455, italics in original.) In Gujarati language, the category is affected by the ‘conceptual metaphor’ of inferiority, smallness and/or uselessness. It is conceptualized in terms of ‘FEMININE IS INFERIOR/SMALL’ and because of this conceptualization Gujarati speaker unconsciously categorizes female as inferior. As Mistry (2003: 126) notices in his Gujarati paper that gender marker vowels performs two jobs: it marks natural gender in the animate beings and in inanimate it indicates the materialistic or psychological characteristics. But, he did not mention about the diminutive function of the female gender, which is a conceptual metaphor.

To conclude the discussion, the examples prove that the feminine gender category is used not only to mark the category, but also to encode the inferiority and small size in the language. Such marking is generally known as diminutives, as it is available in several Bantu languages (Corbett 2006: 751). This diminutive metaphor is a conceptual metaphor for the present category. The categorization affects our cognitive capabilities, and consequently, when encountered with a new word, to make it smaller or inferior we tend to assign feminine gender in Gujarati language.

Footnotes
1. Most of these examples are from Bhayani (1969).

References


Abbreviations

Sing. - Singular
Masc. - Masculine
Per. - Perfect
Fem. - Feminine
Neut. - Neutral
Corpora and Contrastive Study: Evidence from Hindi-English Language Pair

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Introduction

One of the challenging issues in both language teaching and machine translation is to obtain a comprehensive account of the types of divergences between a pair of languages. Divergences between a pair of languages occur at various levels (Dorr 1994) and have implications for both second language teaching and machine translation. A contrastive study based on comprehensive corpora is needed for the identification, classification and resolution of the difficulties posed by divergence. The resolution of the divergence related complexities in a language pair is done by identifying the exact or near equivalent of a particular construct of one language for another language. In this respect, the traditional monolingual grammars are of no use. Even modern grammars are quite inadequate to provide a comparative account of various linguistic construction types between a pair of languages. This is most evident from applications in the areas of machine translation and language teaching. However, the significant role of a contrastive study between a pair of languages for machine translation and foreign/second language teaching has been well-recognized in literature (Halliday 1956, 1960; Granger and Levot 2003).

It is in the recent years that corpus-based language resources have been immensely popular for several purposes such as linguistic analysis, grammar writing, and material production for second language teaching (Dash 2007). Without going into the various other major uses of corpora and contrastive study, in this paper, we focus on their role in the area of machine translation and second language teaching. We base our discussion on examples of divergences between Hindi-English language pair. Beside, we draw examples from the polysemous nature of various words, particularly the particle
elements is the context of Hindi-English language pair. We examine these types of examples to relate their complexity in resolution when we go from one language to another either for machine translation purpose or for second language teaching. For illustration, we can look at the nuances of subtle meaning differences and consequently the need for accurate classification of various lexical items for machine translation from Hindi to English. We can show this with a couple of examples from Hindi-English language pair. The use of the lexical item *phir ‘again/to return’* in Hindi and its counterparts in English is interesting to note.

1) a. vah dilli se phir aayaa.
   {he Delhi from again/return came}
   i. ‘He again came from Delhi.’
   ii. ‘He returned from Delhi.’

   b. vah dilli se phir gayaa.
   {he Delhi from again/return went}
   i. ‘He again went from Delhi.’
   ii. ‘He returned from Delhi.’

   c. vah dilli se phir kar aayaa.
   {he Delhi from visit did came}
   ‘He returned from Delhi.’

In (1a & 1b), *phir* can potentially be used with both simple adverb interpretation (as is shown in their first English translations) and as a simple verb meaning *return* (as is shown in their second English translation). Thus both the sentences are ambiguous with at least two interpretations. In (1c), however, *phir* is followed by a conjunctive participial marker *kar* which disambiguate it and there is only a single interpretation of this sentence, as is shown by its English translation.

For both teaching and linguistic analysis of such uses of a lexical item as well as for determining its exact tag and meaning is greatly facilitated by a contrastive study using corpora. In second language teaching without a comprehensive corpus, such subtle dimensions of lexical meanings are generally not even evident. On the other hand, a corpus-based contrastive study goes a long way in facilitating teaching of such issues to the learners of a second language (in this case Hindi). In the area of machine translation, involving these types
of polysemous constructions, a contrastive study is imperative and that, too, based on a large corpus (preferably comparable corpus). In the following paragraphs, we attempt to provide a general account of divergence studies related to machine translation, divergence data from Hindi-English language pair, and their implications for machine translation and second language teaching.

The Theoretical Framework

Dorr (1994) has identified classes of translation divergences and has argued that they can be extended to study any pair of natural languages. She categorizes the divergence point between a pair of languages into two broadly classes: (A) Syntactic Divergences, and (B) Lexical-semantic Divergences. These two classes of divergences have been further categorized into different sub-classes, as follows:

A) Syntactic Divergences
   i. Constituent order divergence
   ii. Adjunction divergence
   iii. Preposition-stranding divergence
   iv. Movement divergence
   v. Null subject divergence
   vi. Dative divergence
   vii. Pleonastic divergence

B) Lexical-semantic Divergences
   i. Thematic divergence
   ii. Promotional divergence
   iii. Demotional divergence
   iv. Structural divergence
   v. Conflational divergence
   vi. Categorial divergence
   vii. Lexical divergence

The classes of translation divergence have been defined to account for different types of translation divergences found in a pair of translation languages. However, she also points out that the translation divergences arising out of idiomatic usage, aspectual knowledge, discourse knowledge, domain knowledge, or world knowledge remain
out of the scope of her paper (Dorr 1994). Dorr’s seminal study has been an important source of theoretical understanding on this issue and a number of works have been done using that framework for different languages, including Indian languages (Sinha & Thakur 2004, 2005a, 2005b, Patnaik & Thakur 2004, Dave, et al 2001).

Dorr (1994) has examined the structure of the lexical-semantic divergences and proposed a Lexical Conceptual Structure (LCS) based approach to handle them in machine translation application. This classification takes into account various sources of differences between a set of translation language and is inclusive enough to capture a large sets of translation divergences across language pairs. This study on divergence and particularly their classification takes its theoretical assumptions largely from the GB framework (Chomsky 1986, Jackendoff 1990) of linguistic theory that assumes two levels of syntactic representation: deep structure and surface structure. The deep structure is assumed to capture variations manifested at the surface structure/level. Within this framework, both the classification of divergence and their resolution have been discussed largely from the perspective of the universal grammar. Therefore, it is claimed that the observations made in this work can be used to capture major grammatical issues in divergences across natural languages. However, the issue of divergence between a set of given languages is associated with a number of factors that can pertain to both linguistic as well to socio- and psycho-linguistic aspects of the languages involved. The present paper attempts to take some of the basic assumptions of this framework in showing that there exist a predictable set of divergence points between a pair of languages and that can be identified by a detailed contrastive study using corpus. The significant role of corpus in language analysis and particularly, in identifying and resolving divergence issues has been emphasized.

Dash (2007) lists a number of relevant sources of literature on the uses of corpora for contrastive study and its various applications including second language teaching and machine translation. The works on contrastive study between Hindi and English, particularly with respect to machine translation application have started in the
recent years for Indian languages, too (Dave et al 2001; Sinha & Thakur 2004, 2005a, 2005b; Patnaik & Thakur 2004).

3Divergence: Data Analysis

3.1 Linguistic Factors

Divergence between Hindi-English language pair can be located on various levels. The examples in (2) illustrate thematic divergence type. This arises from differences in the realization of the argument structure of a verb. The Hindi counterpart of an English example in which the subject NP occurs in the dative case whereas the subject NP in English is in the nominative case, can be cited as a type of thematic divergence.

(2) John likes Mary.

=> i. jOn mErii-ko pasand karataa hE.
   {John Mary-ACC like do be.PR}

ii. jOn-ko merii pasand aaii.
   {John-DAT Mary like came}

iii. jOn-ko mErii pasand hE.
   {John-DAT Mary like be.PR}

We can notice that in English and Hindi contrastive study, there is a choice among three options in Hindi where the Hindi sentence in (i) presents no divergence, the ones in (ii-iii) present divergence. It is also a question of lexical choice as to whether the English verb ‘like’ is treated as a transitive-active verb in Hindi with a lexical entry pasand karanaa or like an inchoative verb with a lexical entry pasand aanaa or a stative verb with a lexical entry pasand honaa.

The option in (iii) is the most difficult one to obtain because to get pasand hE from pasand honaa involves complex procedure. In both options (ii) and (iii), divergence arises because the lexical entry of the inchoative and stative verb pasand aanaa and pasand honaa respectively selects a dative subject NP rather than a nominative subject NP. Besides the phenomenon of the dative subject constructions in Hindi, some other types of data that can be included under this class of divergence are the asymmetry between active and passive constructions in Hindi and English, the causative verbs
in Hindi and their realization in English. However, they may also overlap with other classes of divergence. Another divergence type i.e. promotional and demotional divergence or Head-swapping divergence arises where the status (lower or higher) of a syntactic constituent in one language is affected in another language. For instance, when an adverbial element in one language is realized by a verbal element, it constitutes a case of promotional divergence and an opposite case will result in demotional divergence.

Contrastive study between Hindi and English language pair show a number of structural divergences. This is reflected in constructions where an NP argument in one language is realized by a PP adjunct/oblique NP in another language. The verb ‘enter’ in an English sentence such as “he entered the room” => \textit{vah kamare meN paravesh kiyaa} (he room in enter did) takes an NP argument \textit{‘the room’} whereas its Hindi counterpart \textit{pravesh karanaa} takes a PP adjunct \textit{kamare meN (room in)}. We notice that ‘enter’ is an intransitive verb and takes a locative adjunct which in English is optionally an NP or PP and in Hindi it is obligatorily a PP. In Hindi, most of the arguments as well as adjuncts NPs of the verb are realized with an overt postposition whereas in English, they are bare NPs. A potential linguistic question remains whether to categorize such contrasts under structural divergence or whether they belong to some kind of morphological gaps in the system of languages.

Further, some of the passive constructions in Hindi which are used to denote a number of grammatical functions can come both under structural divergence and examples of some kind of inflectional gaps. For instance, the impersonal passive constructions in Hindi have active counterparts in English which should certainly come under structural divergence. However, at the same time, these structural gaps also indicate that whereas Hindi realizes a certain kind of mood by the use of a type of passive construction, such grammatical device is not available in English, as in examples in (3).

(3)raam se calaa nahiiN jaataa.
{Ram by walk not PASS}
‘Ram cannot walk.’
Another construction type where a contrastive study between Hindi and English has lots to do is conflational divergence. This arises when two or more words in one language are translated by one word in another language. The opposite case is referred to by inflational divergence. The English verb ‘stab’ is generally cited as an example of this class of divergence. The verb ‘stab’ incorporates the instrumental adjunct which in other languages is realized by overt use of the relevant instrumental adjunct. For instance, in Hindi, as in (3) ‘stab’ is mapped by overt use of both the instrumental adjunct chuurāa ‘knife’ and verb bhONkanaa ‘to insert’, as in (4).

(4) cor-ne pulis-ko chuuraa bhOnk-kar maar daalaa.
   {thief-ERG police-ACC knife insert-CPP kill dropped}
   ‘The thief stabbed the police to death.’

3.2 Socio-Cultural Factors

Besides linguistic factors determining the divergence patterns between a pair of languages, the socio-cultural factors, too, play an important role. Natural languages show a number of differences on account of their socio-cultural characteristics and this causes a number of divergences of various types that need to be identified and used in both language teaching application as well as machine translation application. Some of the differences on this account between Hindi and English can be illustrated, as below.

3.2.1 Honorificity Expressions

Honorific is marked by several linguistic devices that include the pluralization of the verb and the use of plural pronominal expressions in Hindi. That is, even if the subject NP is singular but it represents an honorific person, it triggers plural inflection on the verb. Secondly, the pronominal subject need to be in the plural form. The English counterpart of these sentences are without any honorific markers and thus this difference in the system of the Hindi and the English grammar is an important source of divergence, as in examples (5) below.

(5) a. mukhya atithi aa cuke hEN. ve ab manch par aaeNghe.
   {chief  guest come CPT be.PR. he now dais on come.FU}
3.2.2 Temporal Expressions

Temporal expressions are fundamentally based on the worldview of the speech communities. That is, several socio-cultural factors determine the way a language characterizes the temporal expression used in that language. We see that the concept of time is realized in Indian and Western cultural settings in different ways. Even some of the very common English temporal expressions such as a.m. and p.m. are difficult to be straightforwardly mapped onto any Indian language. In case of the divergence types pertaining to socio-cultural issues, a detailed contrastive study is required not only of the involved language texts and grammars but also their respective cultures and other related issues.

Concluding Remarks

We have shown that identification and classification of the divergence types in a particular set of language pairs are heavily dependent on a large corpus of the languages involved. The significance of a study of this nature has been shown with respect to both second language teaching and machine translation. We have argued that only a contrastive study of the text can help identify the subtle differences in the construction types between a pair of languages. Further, the identification of an exact counterpart in another language of a construction type in one language is facilitated by the use of a large corpus. In both machine translation and second language teaching, the implication of this type of study based on corpora is well recognized. However, in the case of the Hindi-English language pair, some of the representative examples discussed above clearly show the importance of a corpus-based contrastive study for both second language teaching (of Hindi) and for building linguistic and grammar resources for developing Hindi-English machine translation system.
References

Teaching and Learning with New Technology and New Pedagogy and Creation of Global Learner in Pedo Community

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Introduction

English education began in India during the British rule in India. It is the result of gradual evolution. Today it has become the integrated part of education in India. During the British rule in India, in 1793, William Wilberforce, the famous British philanthropist proposed to take the responsibility of education of Indian people but it was rejected by the East India Company. After few years again in 1813, when the Company's charter was renewed, that a clause was inserted requiring the Governor-General to devote not less than 100,000 rupees annually to the education of Indians. This clause laid the foundation of English education in India. But at that point of time money was spent mainly on translation of some English works into Sanskrit and Arabic language and some new publications of English books was also encouraged. Later, finally, with the minutes of Macaulay in Feb, 1835, the western education in India through the medium of English was advocated. Even after the independence, in India, it remained an issue of controversy whether to continue with English education in India or not because along with Gandhi ji along with other leaders were against the English education in India and Pandit Nehru and many more were favoring the English education in India.

Ultimately, in 1950, on 26th January, with the commencement of Indian constitution, it was unanimously decided that English should continue as the official language for fifteen years. And then after even today India is continuing with English education and Indians are able to communicate all around the world through English.
Thus using techno forms may create one's own classroom as per one's own wish and perhaps this is what today's learner is seeking for. In present scenario, it has become prerequisite that learner should be having learner centered view of entire teaching-learning process and moreover he needs to have 'new age feel' at every step of learning and all these requirements can be fulfilled only through integration of technology in teaching-learning.

Teaching of English without any affiliation with its literature broaden on the fact that the world today needs English for special purpose - for understanding of scientific or technical vocabulary specific to different of interest to the learners.

The decline on the standard of English has been commonly attributed to the teaching methods as used and adopted by language teachers. The aim should be not to teach about language but to develop learner's abilities to make them capable of using the language for variety of communication purpose.

There is difference between teaching about the language and communication in the language. In fact there is often 'a great ability gap' between having information and being able to use it spontaneously for common purpose. In order to bridge this gap and frame a relevant syllabus its contents should be made to learn a resemblance to the social context. This awareness of the social context can be had from the world of literature, which can depicts society in all its hues and colors in a language as varied as it is authentic and natural.

**Emergence of PedoCompunity Environment**

The formation of Pedocompunity Environment involves certain conceptual frame work;

**A. Influence of cognitive development in PedoCompunity environment due to intuitive thinking**

The formation of PedoCompunity is a social constructive process where the role of language learner is purely receptive in nature. The influence of cognitive development helps to acquire divergent skills, discover principles etc-for example a teacher wants to teach a topic
on different type sentences or parts of speech by using any sophisticated technology in a pedotechnology in a PedoCompunity, the student will develop the image due to the Cognitization Effect.

B. Instructional design models and instructional strategies for pedo Compunity Environment

A model is mental picture helps us to understand something we cannot see or experience directly (Dorin et.al, 1990). It is apparent that while technology offers a wide range of learning facilities, it prevents a new set of challenges.

Global language Learner Chain

Instructional design model via computer

Group of learners

Threshold stage of the emergence of PedoCompunity

Chaining of PedoCompunity

Formation of Global Language Learner

Learner Factors

The factor of motivation for learning plays a vital role in the learning process on the part of learner and generally the learners are exposed to text books which do not attract them and ultimately it leads to them to withdraw their interest in learning.

Learning of mother tongue is an unconscious process. Children learn it from the environment around them. Exposure which takes place in living, meaningful situation continuously helps the learners internationalizing their mother tongue naturally, spontaneously and with ease. But the same children face many difficulties in the learning
of second language. Learning language involves learning its skills—reading, writing, listening and speaking, a student needs some material. Many text books fail miserably in creating interest among the students. These text books are uninteresting and completely fail in motivating young learners and the contents used in them are not related to the culture and environment of the rural learners'.

Here are few suggestions on what we should do while dealing with ELT

a) Support the inclusion of local cultural component in teaching of English.

b) Learning must be need based.

c) Success of any program depends on willingness. If the students are motivated, the task of language learning would be easy and entertaining.

d) Classroom environment is an important criterion for language learning.

e) The teacher should instill confidence in the students so that they can express themselves without inhibition. The teacher should plan more innovative classroom activities.

f) With the limited resources, teacher should try some innovation with his teaching material and methodology, so that he may become more acceptable and creative among the learners.

g) Course content is another major aspect that plays a remarkable part in inculcating communication skills among youngsters.

Technology in ELT

Throughout the years since independence in India, ELT has grown up by various means and latest additions have always been inserted in teaching of English in India. As per the era's demand, today in India. We can surely say that no less improvement has been done in ELT compared to any other field of teaching. Generally language teaching and Language learning is to be defined as oral-aural process and apart from that at the most text books were expected to be the
helping hand to the earners and the teachers as well. But gone is that time, and in today's scenario that is not the case with ELT in India. Today’s education has not remained only on blackboard and in textbook but it has removed all boundaries of the classroom teaching-learning and with the help of technology one can teach and learn efficiently and perhaps more effectively.

Various online courses are available today for which learner can enroll staying home and they can have the certificate even from foreign universities at home. So this is possible just because of the use of technology in teaching-learning. ELT in terms of Engg education and many other disciplines like Medical, management, Tourism etc has become the part of soft skills for the learners.

Engineering in past were mainly concerned with the technical aspects of engineering commonly known as ‘hard engineering’. Times and roles of engineers have changed and a paradigm shift is perceived. Though formation of technical skills remains the nucleus of any content, the shift involves movement toward ‘soft engineering’

These days teachers have initiated with their personal websites and blogs and through that they are teaching all around the world with the help of web technology. Through this, they can come to know about needs, views and feedback of learners and experts all around the world. So because of the world has become a global village where with little efforts we can share information with another person at any corner in the world: every place is just one click away on the screen of your computer. For ELT, many websites are just waiting to be clicked by the teachers and learners. Apart from that we have been using variety of techno-forms like CD ROMs, interactive Software, Digital Language Lab, Mobile Technology and many more which have already been inseparable component of teaching-learning in today’s age and so need no further explanation.

**Technology in Teaching-Learning of Literature**

Literature teaching generally has remained up to the limits of classroom discussion and classroom interpretations by the teachers most of the time. But the new age classroom needs to go beyond
that. An enthusiastic teacher search for some movies based on literary work and can use that movie in the classroom to arouse the interest of the learners in the literature by screening of such movies. Studies in Psychology also say that the thing being watched remains for a longer time in the memory of the person who watches compared to the person who just listens to it. Various encyclopedia of literature are available these days in the form of CD which can be used in the classroom. For instance, Encyclopedia on Shakespeare is now easily available in the market so the use of such material should highly be encouraged in the literature class. This kind of encyclopedia provides detailed information about literature in the digital form along with appropriate audio-visuals. Many websites are available which offers online forums for discussion on various issues in literature studies.

Promote Online Tasks

Being a teacher, we must encourage our learners to use technology more and more, and avoid abuse of technology. We can give some vocabulary task to find out the meaning of the words on websites and not from the dictionary only. We can give them an assignment project to gather information from internet on some specific topic. We can give them some questions to find out the answers from the websites. It is also possible to assign them a web designing or blog designing task. We can encourage them for e-Publishing, by encouraging them to write on some current affairs kind of things for online publications through blogging.

Useful Websites

MERLOT (Multimedia Educational Resource for Learning and Online Teaching) is hosted by the California State University Center for Distributed Learning and offers a growing collection of online teaching resources from around the world. While anyone can view the online collection, membership (available for free upon registration) gives user rights to post new resources and to comment on existing ones. The focus is on university-level teaching, but many of the resource could be used at the secondary level as well.

Edu Hound is maintained by T.H.E Journal (Technology Horizons in
Education) and provides a useful classifications and listing of a broad range of educational sites. Teacher-related topics such as standards and assessment and educational software are included. T.H.E, Journal is available online and also by free subscription. EdHelper.com provides links to large numbers of online lesson plans organized by subjects. It also includes useful set of links to recent articles on education-related subjects.

EDSITEMENT     The best of the Humanities on the Web is sponsored by the National Endowment of the Humanities and includes an excellent array of NEH websites under the categories of Art and Science, Literature and Language Arts, foreign Language, and History and Social science .

http://www.britishcouncil.org/arts-literature.htm
http://www.britishcouncil.org/arts-literature-creativereading-eltereading.htm

Learn & Fun

The greatest feature of today's age is 'online earning'. Some workaholic teachers can also search for some options to earn money online using their teaching skills but it requires a little of techno-skills at the same time. Lots of websites are providing this opportunity of online learning and online earning as well. Learners can enroll on such sites for their interest in learning in specific area and can have guidance of experts from any corner of world through web technology. At the same time, teachers can also go beyond the classroom for maximizing their earnings with the help of such websites which are willing to have services through web tool. For example to name one or two 'wizig' and 'tutorvista' are the sites where you can grab this opportunity. Sitting at your place, you can teach the students waiting for you at any place in the world and you can add some amount in your annual income. Isn’t it interesting?

Reforms Required

In the field of education, these days various reforms are taking place and through that teachers' skills are getting upgradation but even after that so far as English teachers are concerned, it is believed that
they are not expected to do anything with technology and they should be focused only on language teaching through various techniques, approaches and methods already suggested by the linguistics. This is totally unfair belief and English teachers themselves do need to come up with new technologies in their teaching.

Conclusion

To sum up this paper, we can surely say that use of technology really helps by various means in education in Pedo Compunity Environment. But unfortunately especially English community needs to come out of the illusion that they are supposed to deal with text books and blackboard to educate their learners because new age learner is no more attracted to such conventional teaching. Today’s learners is more likely to favor the teacher who uses techno-forms in his teaching. So it becomes essential to master at least few of the new techniques of teaching along with technology in the classroom and outside the classroom too. Every teacher should have at least website or blog where he can keep in touch with his learners through some online uploaded information. Teachers can also give some online assignment to the learners because that is very much required to motivate learners to use such technology elements in their day-to-day life. In a nut shell, Pedo compunity Environment creates Global Language Learner.

Bibliography

Taboo and Euphemism in Tamil

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Euphemisms are words chosen as substitutes for words that evoke connotations that the speaker wishes to avoid. It is also one of the rhetorical categories like metaphor, hyperbole, litotes etc.

The dyslogistic connotations of a good many words, to be sure are matters openly acknowledged and widely agreed upon and whenever a common word gathers so heavy a load of taboo or social disapproval that many speakers hesitate to use the word at all, a process known as euphemism sets in. Most people, that is employ another expression (either a new coinage or a new application for one already familiar) to symbolize the class to which the taboo word normally refers.

In order to overcome the uneasiness arising in the minds of the speakers of the language euphemisms are used. When two or more expressions with the same denotation and the same linguistic connotation, often the shortest becomes taboo and the longer word or phrase becomes a substitute for the other. This has gentle overtones and is socially more acceptable. This is conditioned by the users of the language on the basis of sociological factors due to deep-rooted psychological impulses (This is more or less common to all people).

This article is about ‘meaning’, specifically about how cultural meanings are expressed in language. However, language is used to avoid saying certain things as well as to express them. Certain things are not said; not because they cannot be, but because ‘people don’t talk about those things’; or, if those things are talked about, they are talked about in very roundabout ways. In the first case we have instances of linguistic taboo; in the second we have the employment of euphemisms so as to avoid mentioning certain matters directly.

Taboo is the prohibition or avoidance in any society of behaviour believed to be harmful to its members in that it would cause them
anxiety, embarrassment, or shame. It is an extremely strong politeness constraint. Consequently, so far as language is concerned, certain things are not to be said or certain objects can be referred to only in certain circumstances, for example, only by certain people, or through deliberate circumlocutions, i.e., euphemistically.

According to H.L. Mencken (1921) “a euphemism is a softened, indirect expression used instead of one that seems too harsh and direct.” For example, “he passed away” and “he is gone” are euphemisms for “he died” and “he is dead” circumlocutions like these may arise from the desire to avoid giving pain and in such cases must be accounted useful terms. In another way, euphemisms are employed merely through hyper sensitivity or excess of delicacy. The Victorian use of “white meat” to avoid saying “breast” is an example for this type. There is still a third reason for the use of euphemistic terms to enhance prestige according to him. The job of a garbage collector for example, seems more prestigious if he is called a ‘sanitary engineer’. Likewise, the term ‘underdeveloped countries’ replaced by developing countries and so on.

In Tamil also we can find euphemistic terms for the above mentioned reasoning. In ancient Tamil text, ‘Nannul’ the term ‘mangalavalkku’ used by Nannular to denote an inauspicious things as an auspicious one. Like that, the term ‘iTakkaraTakkal’ also used to avoid certain awkward terms by him. In addition to that, to promote prestigious value now-a-days certain new terms are used as euphemism in Tamil.

Hence, we can employ euphemism in Tamil for the following four reasons.

### Euphemisms

- Taboo of fear
- Taboo of delicacy
- Taboo of propriety
- Taboo of prestige
Taboo of Fear

These types of euphemistic terms are used on the basis of people’s beliefs in their attitudes. Generally mind is the basic reason for all kind of actions. Mind’s nature is reflected in people’s language and their activities. Belief originates in their minds because of their fear in order to get positive result through their approach of the things. Their approach in language based on beliefs explore in different ways.

Certain terms are replaced by another term in order to avoid bad result in their life. For instance, in Tamil Nadu, the people have great faith in Goddess Mariyamma. If a person suffers by chickenpox, they believe that the Goddess Mariyamma has got angry with them. Because of their fear towards mariyamma, they used to say atta: vantirukka: ‘she has come’, atta: veleya:TuRa: ‘she plays’ instead of saying ammai po:T Tirukku’ or vacu:ri va:t turukku ‘she is suffering from chickenpox’.

If a person dies due to the chickenpox, people used to say kuLirntu viTTa:rkaL ‘he/she is frozen’ instead of saying iRantu viTTa:r ‘he died’.

In another example people are lighting the sacred lamp in their houses daily in front of their pooja room. In order to put off the ti:pam, they used to say any one of the following terms:

- malai e:ttu - ‘raise it to the hill’
- pericu paNNu - ‘make it big’
- aTakki vai - ‘to subjugate’
- kuLiravai - ‘to make cook’
- kayyamarttu - ‘press with hand’
- camata:gam cey - ‘make peace’

etc., instead of saying viLakkai aNai ‘put out lamp’. People feel if we say ti:ppattai aNai ‘put out lamp’ directly such a word will bring evil to the family.

Sometimes certain phrasal forms are used by the folk against their real action due to their fear in such terms. For example, People give more importance to say vare:n/po:yiTTu vare:n – ‘(I am) coming’ /‘(I am) going’ instead of po:re:n – ‘(I am) going’ when they depart
from that place. The term po:Re:n is not used by the common folk because by saying so they believe that they would not come back to meet them again. That is to say that that meeting was going to be the last encounter.

Like that if a person is leaving from the house, the people ask rompatu:rama:? ‘Is it a long distance?’ or eppa varuvinge:? ‘When will you return?’ instead of asking like enge: po:Ri:nga? ‘Where are you going?’ Because they believe if we ask directly like enge: po:Re/? po:Ri:inge:? ‘Where do you go?’ he cannot get fruitful result in his matter.

Taboo of Delicacy

Words referring to unpleasant events/subjects are replaced by pleasant ones. This is known as in Tamil mangalavajakkku. We find many references in old literature for this type of euphemisms. The names for death and other such unpleasant events are replaced by euphemisms. The dying was referred to as tuncutal ‘sleeping’ in old literature. When a lady loses ta:li – ‘sacred cord’ at the demise of her husband, it is expressed as ‘ta:li perukiRRu’ which literally means flourished instead of aruntatu ‘broken’.

In the old Tamil text Nannul, Nannular used the euphemisms for the following terms. The term cuTuka:Tu ‘graveyard’ is replaced by nanka:Tu ‘good place’; another term elai ‘death news’ is referred to as tirumugam ‘glorified face’. In another example, the term ca:Ni ‘cow dung’ is replaced by a:mun pakaravi by him; the term ka:ra:Tu ‘black goat’ is noted as vella:Tu ‘white goat’ by him.

The term peruviya:ti ‘big disease’ is replaced by tolu:ny: to refer pep roxy. In another example, the term iRanta:r, cetta:r or kakalamannar: ‘(he) died’ are referred as eivalokap tattav aTainta:r ‘He reached the feet of Lord Siva’, vaikuNTap tattavi aTainta:r or He reached the feet of Lord vishnu’, or iyakRkai eyti:nar: ‘assimilate with nature’.

Taboo of Propriety

When it is not considered as etiquette to use some term to a decent audience, they are replaced by some other suitable terms.
This is known in Tamil as iTakkaraTakkal.

Euphemisms are employed for propriety i.e., to avoid strong taboo words like certain body parts and certain physical actions. The term veLiye: potal ‘to go out’ is used for ‘movement of the bowels’. ka:l ka{	exttt{lu}}vutal ‘cleaning of legs’ is used for cleaning the ‘anum’. In old Tamil the term pi: ‘excreta’ was replaced by pavvi or pakaravi. Obscene terms are replaced by other words. The expression onRukku – ‘for one’ is used for ‘passing urine’ and iraNtukku – ‘for two’ is used for ‘moving of the bowels’. In old literature the term kongai is used for ‘breast’. Later on in middle middle period ‘amman’ is used in Nalayirativya pirapantam, but in modern period the euphemistic terms for breast is ‘ma:rpakam’.

In rural areas, the people used to speak many indecent words related to human organs and human relationships. But those words can not be spoken in the public places or meetings. For example, the action of veLikki potal ‘go to toilet’ is referred by them as kollaykki po:yrukkan:nga ‘he is in backyard’ or va:ykka:l pakkam po:yrukkan:nga ‘he is going near canals’ and so on. But now a days all the people used to say ‘bathroom po:yrukkan:nga’.

Taboo of Prestige

In this case, the Euphemistic terms are employed to enhance prestige values in the society. In our day to day life, many new words are coined to substitute older terms. Sometimes those words are coined intentionally to raise the value of the particular professional groups/ institution/communities and so on. In Tamil we can notice a number of terms used to enhance the prestige. The older term kakkuska:ri / ka:ran ‘scavenger’ is replaced later by to:TTi, and now it is termed as tuppurava:Lar. Another term ana:tai illam ‘orphanage’ is replaced by karuNai illam, the term ki:Lca:tiyir is referred as pintangiya:varak:arL / piRpaTuttappaTTo:r ‘backward class’, ce:ri > Harijan colony. Now a days the term ali ‘transgender’ is replaced by the term ‘tirunangai’; the term u:gamuRRor ‘handicapped’ is termed as ‘ma:RRut tiRagaLik:al’ those terms are coined due to elevate the
Hence, in Tamil Euphemisms are employed in different ways in modern times. By studying these aspects deeply we can identify the different communities in which the particular term stands for.

This study shows that Tamil employs words significantly on occasions when some words are treated as taboo. As the communication has to be conducted in which the participants have to view matters in an objective way it is sometimes hampered due to the avoidance of taboo words. That is to say people do not want to use certain words publicly. However they want to convey the same sense to others. This becomes possible only by using other terms which we call euphemisms. Thus euphemisms bale out speakers from unnecessary embarrassments.

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Technology in Language Teaching

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Introduction

The need for effective communication is the basic requirement in this age of globalization, internationalization and multi nationalization of higher education. Amazing things have been happened in every filed with the launch of technology, which has contributed tremendously to the academic environment to encounter various situation for enhancing language skills. The ultimate objective of any teaching is providing a platform for better learning. This paper is focused on activity based language teaching with the application of technology.

Technology has put a foundation stone to new methods of teaching English, in which teachers get opportunities to deal differently with students of different abilities. Present scenario in education is quiet different from traditional methods. The teacher is the sole source of information in traditional method, the students have little involvement and passively participate with varying degrees of attention. Those with poor listening skill to not benefit much, they become a silent witness. The teacher only has more opportunity to speak for an extended period of time, students are not given chance to interact. Technology enable teaching is more on student / learner centered one. As a solution to the traditional teaching, technology assists to ensure learners participation in class room and they take part actively to enhance the skills , whereas the teacher assumes the role of a guide.

Traditionally, only the human mind would generate process to receive and create information by absorbing conserving, interacting, imagining and thinking. But in modern technology a part of this process have been taken over by the electronic machines. Increase in potential expectation of students over the tutor, communication and learning
environment, multimedia is the most effective media for educational opportunity. It is a great education because we learn and update knowledge without rigorous of learning. Though technology enable teaching is a combination of hardware and software, it cannot replace human interaction such as face to face interaction, eye - contact, body language, stimulating and motivating factors in the field of education. Following are some of the technical tools in teaching which makes learning more effectively. E-board, LCD projector, Power point presentation, Spread sheet, web technologies. The usage of these tools have given their best contribution to acquire essential skills in English language.

Listening

We use English language for an infinite variety of purposes. A common obstacle in communication is poor listening. It requires a conscious effort to interpret the sounds, grasp the meaning of words, recognizing and reacting the message. Listening can be categorized as 1.Appriciative listening, 2. Emphatic listening, 3.Comprehensive listening, 4.Critical listening. Students are involved in last two types of listening during class room teaching. There are 3 stages take place in class room session such as pre – listening, while listening and post listening. The first stage helps the learner to be familiar with the topic which they are going to listen. Second stage, learners go deep into the context and they interact and share general / specific understanding and ideas of the text. Post listening is more important than the two stages. This stage makes students to be creative and expand the text, at the same time other skills also developed, for example vocabulary building, grammar structure, pronunciation, speaking other topics related to the text etc., Apart from students - teacher interaction, technology plays a wonderful role improving listening skills, as follows.

- Making students to listen sports commentaries on television radio.
- Listening to recorded telephone conversation, spoken by native speakers.
- Recording and listening his / her own speech, which will help
one to correct mistakes.
- Interactive drill practice, using audio visual in language lab, listening for comprehension and responding the questions are helpful for enhancing listening skills.
- Visual aids are more effective than verbal explanation. Slide show, handouts, chart, table, films, listening brief speech, puzzles, riddles and pictures can be delivered more accurately and quickly.

**Speaking**

Speech in the representation of the experience of the mind. Speaking in the most indispensable tool for communication in business dealing. Official, personal and all relationship. Speaking in a natural phenomenon so it cannot be taught but it can be acquired and improved by creating interest among the students, will help them take initiate to speak. Continuous pronunciation practice, presentation skills, Group discussion are other possible ways to improve speaking skill. Electronic media makes every things possible to participate in video or Audio conference.

**Reading and Writing**

E-mail is the wide spread application of this century. Language teachers may design e-mail based tasks into curriculum. E-mail assignments, supplementary activities, similarly debate topics can be given, the students, may login the discussion through e-mail. These kind of tasks encourage students to discover they own potentials and it assists then to learn new vocabulary and develop writing and reading skills. Multimedia in a educational system offers a number of models of learning strategies it has enlarged a platform to attract the teacher and learner for easy and happy learning.

The internet has added to the vocabulary of English language by coming new words and new meanings for already existing words. E-Journals and E-books serve the purpose of reading as printed book, which also gives the experience of a printed book. E-Journals is a source of information, sought for various reasons, including research, current awareness, teaching, learning and other communication.
These E- sources give their considerable contribution to language to enrich the skill of reading.

Blog (web log) technology in class room has become very easy because it requires very minimum technical knowledge. Blog leads to reading, thinking, reflecting, writing and publishing. It is a basically an updated online personal diary with a blog. In which every person has an equal opportunity to share thoughts and opinions. Visitors of the blog can contribute the suggestion and help to build the content. An excellent opportunity is given here for students to interact, participate, in pre - class are post class discussion and learning.

Web tutorials is an excellent method of providing information for literacy the benefit of it, the web tutorials can be revisited to reiterate information for reading. Pod casts plays a pivotal roll in education it is used to publish audio and video recording on the web. It encourages auditory learning style. It will be a successful method in teaching because listening is more easier than reading a book.

The virtual class room is an advanced method in teaching. The teachers and students anywhere in the world can meet in the class room for online class. The virtual class room environment enable to communicate synchronously using video, audio, text chat, to share a presentation, document and images on the interactive white board. The effective integration of communication and technology in to educational system has expanded to access to education, strengthen the relevance of education and raise educational quality. Influence of technology in language teaching resulted in the following benefits.

- Develops independent thinking, leadership qualities and managerial skills.
- Assists to acquire self confident and self reliance
- Directs to understand different problems and different situations with suitable measures.
- Increases wide knowledge and understanding
- Gives platform for collaborations among teachers and students using a common tool.

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- Arranges excellent opportunities for students to enrich LSRW skills
- Promotes discussion, exchanging ideas and encourages interaction.
- Generates the opportunity to learn complex skills with new ideas, views and approaches.
- Self Motivation and self evaluation can be acquired.
- Information can be updated very frequently.

Conclusion

The success in the implementation of technology based teaching depends on learning approach, a student adopts, because present educational system is purely learner centered one. Technology has a power to products of its best teacher globalized education. It is the ability of the teachers to focus their method in utilizing a variety of e-resources available. Employing the sources highlights and strengthen teaching method, which also has the grace among the learning community. Technology enable teaching is a effective medium for a healthy advancement of learner centered education. The students reflect interest to learn new technologies, which allowed to be more creative and independent.
Enhancing the Language Teaching Strategy by using Powerful Communication Tools

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If we could communicate 'any information or details' to our students with impact, clarity, and memorable, what difference would that make to their perception of us? If we could make language come alive what difference would that make to our teaching?

One way to achieve this is using powerful and effective communication tools which are all used by great communicators and leaders through the centuries. The effective communication tools are metaphor, anecdote and story to explain complex messages in concrete ways.

Vocabularies are nothing more than abstractions. A word is merely a representation of something, not the thing itself. Without contextualization words remain vague and hazy and open to a multiplicity of interpretations. Vague communication can create confusion and misunderstanding. If we wish to ensure our words are understood in the way we wish, we would do well to translate concepts and ideas into concrete, tangible shared meanings. Anecdotes, stories, and metaphors are very powerful ways to do this. Stories connect ideas with people's lived experience. They make sense!

Example Story

The Boy Who Cried Wolf

A shepherd-boy, who watched a flock of sheep near a village, brought out the villagers three or four times by crying out, "Wolf! Wolf!" and when his neighbors came to help him, laughed at them for their pains.

The Wolf, however, did truly come at last. The Shepherd-boy, now really alarmed, shouted in an agony of terror: "Pray, do come and help me; the Wolf is killing the sheep"; but no one paid any heed to his cries, nor rendered any assistance. The Wolf, having no cause.
of fear, at his leisure lacerated or destroyed the whole flock. Moral of the Story / Message: There is no believing a liar, even when he speaks the truth. If we tell a story; and the story contained a 'message' even a week after the class, everybody remembered the story and the power of its message. Stories can be used in many different contexts to achieve different results. This study discusses how stories can enrich our communication. We will find out how we can apply them in a variety of contexts, enhance our ability to give 'messages' and discuss values, teach language skills effectively, and encourage effective action. In whatever context we use stories, they work brilliantly and impact upon the memory of our listeners.

**Enriched Communication**

We can use stories for many different purposes in the classroom. They work particularly well when you 'frame' them. Framing means that you give the listeners a clue as to what the 'message' is about. It is usually better not to explain a story. When the listener has to work to find a meaning it makes more sense and is installed much more deeply in their memory.

**Example of framing Anecdote**

Let's say we want to encourage our students to take more responsibility for their learning and behaviour in the classroom or any team work. We have to mind a certain set of attitudes, but rather than be directive you would prefer they work it out for themselves. So we talk generally about the kinds of people who are successful in groups and teams and we can use an anecdote to explain this.

**Ronald Reagan: Hollywood President**

Secretary of State James Baker once gave Ronald Reagan a briefing book to study before the next day's World Economic Summit in Williamsburg, Virginia. In the morning, Baker was dismayed to learn that the president had not even bothered to open it and frankly asked him why. "Well, Jim," Reagan replied, "The Sound of Music was on..."

"Reagan's masterly delivery sometimes disguised the fact that he did not really know what he was saying," The Economist wrote in
Reagan's obituary. "The lines were written, for safety's sake, on three-by-four cards or on his shirt-cuff." "I think Nancy does most of his talking," Robin Williams once said of Reagan. "You'll notice that she never drinks water when Ronnie speaks."

Reagan, Ronald (1911-2004) American actor and politician, governor of California (1967-75), and 40th President of the United States (1981-1989) [noted for his administration's stewardship of economic recovery; its military involvement in Grenada, Central America, Lebanon, and Libya; and its improved relations with the Soviet Union] Anecdotes, stories and metaphors can be used to reinforce almost any message we want to get across.

Metaphors

"All the World's a stage, And all the men and women merely players they have their exists and their entrances" - William Shakespeare.

A metaphor is a figure of speech that says that one thing is another different thing. This allows us to use fewer words and forces the reader or listener to find the similarities.

Look at this example:

1. Her home was a prison.

In the above sentence, we understand immediately that her home had some of the characteristics of a prison. Mainly, we imagine, she could not leave her home. She was trapped inside. Why it was a prison we do not know, but that would be clear from the context-- perhaps her husband forced her to stay at home, perhaps she was afraid of the outside. We don't know, but the rest of the story would tell us. What is important here is that in five simple words we understand a lot about her environment, how she felt and how she behaved? In this sentence, "prison" is a metaphor.

Look at another example:

1. George is a sheep.

What is one characteristic of sheep? They follow each other. So we can imagine that George is a follower, not a leader. In this sentence "sheep" is a metaphor.
Metaphors are very common in everyday language. But poets also like to use metaphors. In the following famous verse (from The Highwayman by Alfred Noyes), can you spot three metaphors in the first three lines?

The wind was a torrent of darkness among the gusty trees, The moon was a ghostly galleon tossed upon cloudy seas, The road was a ribbon of moonlight over the purple moor, And the highwayman came riding--Riding--riding--The highwayman came riding, up to the old inn-door.

The key to success in life is learning skills that enable us to run our own life and achieve the goals we want. Without these skills we can be sure there are plenty of people willing to take control of us.

Teaching Language Skills

Write this word Sandal on the board and check understanding of vocabulary. Ask students individually to invent a story including at least seven of these words [no writing]. After a few minutes ask students to go round telling their stories to other students. Telling at least three other students, and listening to their stories, will allow them to improve their story and to develop their speaking and listening skills. For homework they could write their story which should be easy after all the practice of telling it. We will also find they really want to listen to you reading the original story to find out how close to it their own story was.

We can always do more than we think we can. If we start using stories, Metaphors and Anecdotes in our language teaching class room we can see the positive improvement in the language learning process among the second language learners.

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Effectiveness of Reciprocal Teaching Technique in Enhancing the Reading Skills of Engineering Students in English

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"As a means of communication, reading is more versatile than wireless, television or films; it needs no equipment and can be done at any time and place. It is many things to many people. It is a telescope, because through it we can look at the distant stars and speculate about life upon them. It is a microscope, because through it we can not only examine the chromosomes and the atoms, but also infer those minute particles, which even the finest lenses cannot reveal. It is a never-ending wide screen film on which the human pageant passes in review. It is still the only known time machine that can recreate the events of the past and open the vistas of the future."
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Emerging Importance of Communication Skills in the Modern Era of Science, Technology And Globalisation

Interest in communication skills has increased dramatically since social scientists first turned their attention to life silks in the mid-1960-s. But “overall understanding of communication skills has not reached a level where prescriptive generalizations are warranted” (The International Encyclopedia of Education, 1988).

Importance of Reading

The current age is essentially an age of communication. Despite the phenomenal advances in communication, made possible today by electronics, the printed page still reigns supreme even in countries like the U.S.A. Without it, no higher education or interchange of serious professional knowledge is possible. In a developing country like India, which is achieving a technological break-through, the
Importance of Reading in Technical Education

In an address at the 35th RELC International seminar held at Singapore, Kumaravel (2000) observed, “Most of the reading that the future doctors and engineers of India will have to do will be narrow, laborious, inartistic and exact. Teaching this kind of reading is a far less humane and far less self-indulgent business than teaching the reading of literature, but vital for India’s future”. This observation assumes greater significance in the modern context. Though reading occupies a special position among all the skills that a student learns during his/her academic career, the need for improving the reading skills is more pronounced in the case of students of science and technology, obviously for the following reasons:

1. The students have to interact with a considerably high amount of study materials on Science and Technology.
2. The students’ ability to grasp the right meaning from the technical and scientific writings, reports etc., is very much essential.

Need for the Present Study

Though teachers and educationists are quite aware of the importance of reading, very little has been done to develop the skill in reading to the desired level. In western countries, teacher, educationists and parents can assess and evaluate the progress of their wards at every step with the help of standardized tests on reading to suit different grades and age levels and adopt suitable remedial measures. But in India, such steps are very few in number and often quite unsuitable to Indian needs, as India is a vast and growing country differing in every respect from one part to another, in language, culture and so on. Especially no such remedial measures and reading improvement strategies are available for technical students.

The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, an educational resource laboratory, has a web site that explains Reciprocal Teaching and summarizes the research from which it comes. The University of Washington post’s a Reciprocal Teaching Home page that reviews...
the research and concludes that the technique is effective. In fact, an Internet search to locate Reciprocal Teaching resources received 122,000 sites on date.

**Rationale of the Present Study**

Reading research during the past twenty years has been characterized by simultaneous efforts at many fronts. Many research studies have been conducted to evolve a reading development strategy or set of strategies that would raise the reading levels of students. One such research was carried out in 1987 by Anne Marie Palinscar, from Michigan State University and Anne Brown, from the University of Illinois and the outcome was the discovery of Reciprocal Teaching. The application of Reciprocal Teaching strategy was experimented on urban students in Highland Park, Michigan, and the success of the experiment was reported by UNESCO-International Bureau of Education in 2001 in its "Innodata Monographs - 8".

From the review of literature, the investigator understands that a substantial body of empirical studies done abroad in countries like U.S.A. and Canada finds that Reciprocal Teaching has significant advantages as a reading improvement strategy. However, in the Indian context, the potentiality of Reciprocal Teaching as reading improvement strategy needs to be tested against empirical data of actual research findings.

**Reciprocal Teaching - A Conceptual Framework**

'Reciprocal Teaching' is an instructional procedure designed to enhance reading comprehension in students. It is characterized by:

1. Dialogue between students and teacher, each taking a turn in the role of a dialogue leader.
2. 'Reciprocal' interactions where one person acts in response to the other.
3. 'Structured dialogue using four strategies viz., Predicting, Summarizing, Questioning and Clarifying.

According to Palinscar (1986) "Reciprocal teaching refers to and instructional activity that takes place in the form of a dialogue between
teacher and students regarding segments of text. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: predicting, summarizing, question generating and clarifying. The teacher and students take turns assuming the role of teacher in leading this dialogue. The purpose of reciprocal teaching is to facilitate a group effort between teacher and students as well as among students in the task of bringing meaning to the text”.

**Strategies of Reciprocal Teaching**

Each of the four strategies of Reciprocal Teaching helps students construct meaning from text and monitor their reading to ensure that they in fact understand what they read.

**Predicting** requires the readers to hypothesize about what the author might discuss in text. This is an opportunity for the students to link the new knowledge they will encounter in the text with the knowledge they already possess. It also facilitates the use of text structure as students learn that heading, sub-headings and questions in the text are useful means of anticipating what might occur next. To predict, the reader must read with anticipation and expectancy, watching for text clues indicating where the author goes next. The inability to predict may also be an indicator that comprehension is inadequate.

**Summarizing** provides the students with opportunity to identify meaning paraphrase and integrate important information in the text. It requires the reader to recall and state that gist he or she has constructed. Therefore, a reader who can summarize has activated background knowledge to integrate information appearing in the text, allocated attention to the main points, and evaluated the gist for consistency. The inability of the reader to summarize text indicates that comprehension is incomplete.

**Questioning** helps the students identify the kind of information significant enough to form the basis for a question. It is also a form of self-test. Generating questions about text, likewise, depends on the gist and the function needed for summarizing, but with one additional demand: that the reader monitors the gist to pick out the
important points. To generate questions, the reader is required to re-process the information to put it read into question format. The inability to formulate appropriate questions about the text is another indicator that comprehension has not occurred.

**Clarifying** enables the students to identify the difficulties in comprehending the text and the reasons for the same. They also conclude whether to reread a segment of the text, or to go ahead or to ask for help. When a reader clarifies the point, he or she must allocate attention to the difficult points and engage in critical evaluation of the gist. In short, clarifying directs the reader to look for parts of the passage that are confusing and unclear. The reader must ask the question: 'Is there anything in this segment that I don’t understand?' if there are unclear segments which block understanding, the reader is signaled to reread, or ask for help.

The process begins with the instructor modeling the steps of Reciprocal Teaching. The instructor reads the title and subtitle of the text segment and raises questions as to what might be covered in the text. Then the passage is read and the points are summed up at every point of transition. Next the instructor asks the students questions to which the students respond orally. The students ask questions to the instructor about the text for the purpose of clarification. The process is repeated by the instructor until students are familiar with the sequence of activities and the skills involved. A student then performs the modeling role in either a large group or in small groups or pairs with the instructor acting as "coach", ultimately withdrawing from the process.

**Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the present experimental study is to find out the effectiveness, if any, of Reciprocal Teaching of reading over the Conventional Method of teaching reading in English to the students of Engineering Colleges. The experiment was designed and carried out to find out answers to the following questions:

Is there any advantage in favour of Experimental or Control group with regard to the comparison of reading improvement of the
students of engineering colleges in English?

Is there any significant difference in the reading skills of the sub-samples based on Locality, Socio-Economic Status, Newspapers Reading Habit, Medium of Instruction and Language Interest, as a result of Reciprocal Teaching?

Finding answers to the above questions required the formulation of specific objectives for the experiments in a more precise, research oriented style, as given below:

To compare the mean Reading Comprehension scores of the students of an Engineering College in Experimental Group and Control Group.

To compare the mean Reading Speed scores of the students of an Engineering College in the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

To compare the mean Vocabulary scores of the students of an Engineering College in the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

To qualitatively analyze the effect of Reciprocal Teaching Technique on the students of an Engineering College.

To offer suggestions and recommendations on the basis of the findings of the experiment.

**Hypotheses**

The specific hypotheses formulated on the basis of the insights gained from the review of related literature and tested by the experiment are given below:

1. There will be significant difference between the mean achievement scores of the Experimental and Control Group students in the sub tests on Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and Vocabulary.

2. Pupils taught through Reciprocal Teaching Technique will have higher mean achievement than the pupils taught through Conventional Method of Teaching.
Methodology of the Study

Pre-test Post-test Equivalent-Group Design was adopted for the study in which the participants were randomly assigned either the experimental group or the control group.

The experiment was conducted on a cluster sample of 120 students of an Engineering College. They were divided into two intact groups and the hundred twenty students were randomly assigned either the Experimental Group or the Control Group (RTG), which was taught reading through reciprocal teaching technique. The other group was treated as Conventional Method Group (CMG), which was taught reading through conventional method of reading.

Variables Taken for the Study

In the words of Garret (1971), "The term 'variable' refers to attributes or qualities which exhibit differences in magnitude and which vary along some dimensions". The students' improvement of the Reading Skills is caused, promoted and affected by various factors, like variables arising out of the person, variables arising out of the home, variables arising out of their parents, etc.,

Randomization and matching the two groups were the procedures adopted for controlling the confounding variables.

Instrumentation

The following were used for the present study.
1. A Reading Skills Test.
2. Socio-Economic Status, Family Background and Reading Habits Questionnaire.
3. Reaction Scale for Students.
4. Language Interest Inventory.

Analysis Of Data

The data collected through the above tools were subjected to the percentage analysis. The quantitative analysis of data was also supplemented with qualitative analyses of verbal data such as Content Analysis. Analyses of data were carried out at two levels viz., macro
level analyses and micro level analyses (in-depth Case Study).

**Major Findings of the Study**

From the analysis of data, it was evident that

1. Reciprocal Teaching Technique contributed to the improvement of Reading Comprehension of the engineering students in English.
2. Reciprocal Teaching Technique contributed to the improvement of Reading Speed of the engineering students in English.
3. Reciprocal Teaching Technique contributed to the improvement of acquisition of Vocabulary of engineering students in English.
4. Urban students in the Reciprocal Teaching Group recorded higher increase in their Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and their acquisition of Vocabulary as a result of treatment.
5. Students with High Language Interest in the Reciprocal Teaching Group recorded higher increase in their Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and their acquisition of Vocabulary as a result of treatment.
6. Students with regular newspaper reading in the Reciprocal Teaching Group recorded higher increase in their Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and their acquisition of Vocabulary as a result of treatment.
7. Students with English Medium Background in the Reciprocal Teaching Group recorded higher increase in their Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and their acquisition of Vocabulary as a result of treatment.

The above findings substantiate the findings of earlier research in Reciprocal Teaching Group recorded higher increase in their Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and their acquisition of Vocabulary as a result of treatment.

**Conclusions, Implications, Suggestions and Recommendations**

Results of the experiment imply that the Reciprocal Teaching Technique strongly influences the outcome of reading sessions in
terms of Reading Comprehension, Reading Speed and acquisition of Vocabulary. This implication helps the formulation of some theoretical guidelines so as to modify the present practice of teaching reading in English at the engineering colleges.

1. The major outcome of the experiment highlights the effectiveness of the Reciprocal Teaching Technique in teaching reading. The pupils taught through Reciprocal Teaching have recorded high achievements than their counterparts taught through Conventional Method.

2. In-depth studies conducted by renowned researchers have reported that this is due to the limitations of the traditional system of instruction. Two of the serious limitations of large group instruction namely, lack of catering to individual differences in abilities and lack of uniform attention to all the pupils prevailing in technical education system now, can be minimized if Reciprocal Teaching Technique is practiced. The friendliness, mutual trust and consciousness of a common goal to achieve and the cohesiveness among members yielded by the Reciprocal Teaching Technique provide a joyful and rewarding learning environment.

3. The key element in Reciprocal Teaching is to hold the students accountable for their learning and give them a sense of power and ownership over the ultimate outcome of their learning. The reading tasks provided to the small groups increase the responsibility of the individual member to work for the group goals through shared learning. The limited intervention of the teacher, at moments of need, promotes ‘Learning by Doing’.

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Alternative Connections
(Translating Emotion of Love in ‘Kural’)

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Introduction

Translation is a process which transmits knowledge between
languages that demands to be transferred (Source Language) and a
language in which transfer taken place (Target Language). Taking
a role of connecting knowledge of a language a transmitter who agrees
to attempt to adjust the linguistic properties of both the languages
should be an authenticated to convince with the parallel
correspondence at mutual way in a dynamic manner. Dynamic manner
adjudged by the cognition. Cognizing process apparently dealt with
the internalization of thought and connections of relative ideas. In
this context, internalization involves to meet all levels of linguistic
and non-linguistic activity such as culture, society, psychology and
other related existing knowledge. The knowledge of an individual
may reflect in the result of the system of a translation.

Translation as a connection

Translation is a process of connection. It connects various ideas
conceived by two individuals. Sometimes they go together at a same
platform and some occasions they divert. Though the definition is
intentionally wide, a term platform mean to say that the mutual
cognitive relationship between Source author and Target reader. The
dynamism of linguistic and non-linguistic properties may cause for a
diversion that may affect their coordination. In several contexts,
some translations are proved to be an example for such a diversion.
It is expected that all adequate materials intended in Source text
should have the parallel connections with suitable materials available
in Target text. Somehow, translators tried their level best to connect
their own knowledge with the intended truth of Source text. But the
result is not consistent always and it may either be a proximity or
remote. Those properties have to be explained clearly to find out
the possibilities to have a cognitive connection between Source and Target texts.

Background

Theoretical works have been always helpful to understand the problems to find out the solutions wherever possible and explain them to extend the suggestions. Many linguists have been defined on existing system of the procedures of various translations. Jiry Levy (1967) proposed ‘a generative model of translation by means of the methods used in defining decision problems’. This model has the following components 1. The situation is an abstract of reality 2. The definitional instruction defines the class of possible alternatives 3. The paradigm is the class of alternatives i.e., a set of ordered equivalents according to different criteria (i.e., stylistic levels, connotative extensions of meaning etc), and 4. The selective instruction directs the translator’s choice among the possible alternatives. Levy also discusses other aspects of his theory as Surplus decisions: The translator may take some steps more or less than the author of the SL text did. They may be necessary or not necessary and either motivated or not motivated. A surplus decision, which is dictated, by the system of the TL is ‘necessary’ and one which is prescribed by linguistic or extra-linguistic context is motivated. Levy’s notion of ‘surplus decision’ may help in the evaluation of translations empirically. Surplus decision cannot be taken for granted always but practically it is a provision that helps to compromise the Source meaning. Levy argues that the decision processes operating in translation are of two types because translation involves interpretation and creation at the same time a) the choice from the elements of the semantic paradigm of the word in the SL text; i.e., between possible interpretation of the meaning of the SL text. b) the choice from the paradigm of words of the TL which more or less correspond to the meaning chosen under i.e., the expression of the meaning. (Ramasamy, V. 2001) Taking into consideration of levy’s notion of superfluous alternative in translation, this paper review some empirical data to justify the connections through the implicit notion.

Problem of the study

Tirukkural a text of great literary traditions of Tamil having great artistic work to the lofty humane ideas permeate it, which are equally
precious to the people all over the world. It has captivated the mind and spirit of the people of all denominations. A large number of critical commentaries by native as well as non-native scholars are available for this text. There are some old commentaries available which were written in the medieval period. After that, more new commentaries have come up in modern times. There is little long respite, remains sustain in coming works on that. Besides, the native and non-native scholars, out of their own interest or some other deliberations, have also done the translations of the text. Most of them are source text oriented and rests of them are target text oriented.

Hence, it considers both the groups for empirical study and that is to aim of the present paper.

Source for the study

This paper put forth some sample translations to understand the said problems. Few English versions of a single couplet included in the chapter on Arattauppaal of ‘Tirukkural’ has been selected as a sample text for analysis and comparison. The various connections identified through the translators attempt to reveal the concept on ‘emotions of love’ defined in KURAL have been brought out for discussion. The translators are native as well as non-native scholars. Native scholars like P. S. Sundaram (1987), G. Vanmikanathan (1951), S. Maharajan (1979), C. Rajasingham (1989), N.C. Naidoo (1996), M. S. Purnalingham Pillai (1931), V.M. Gnanaprakasami (2004) and S.M. Michael (1926). The non-native scholars like G.U. Pope (1886), H.A. Popley (1931) have also been taken for discussion. The translations of them are not taken for neither criticize nor deep analysis but for understanding the diversion taken place in their interpretation. Let us see some sample texts to scan the deviation in connecting their options under the theoretical definitions.

Alternative connections in Translation

‘Virtue’ is one of the chapters in Tirukkural dealing also with the emotions of love. A couplet come under virtue has been used as a source text for analysis and its translations done by the above scholars are compared to identify the possible alternatives for equivalents through their surplus decision.
anbirkum uunto adaikum tal arvalar
punkanir pusal tarum

The couplet refers ‘love cannot be hidden, because the tears or some other feeling appearing in the face of the one who loves will bring out the hidden love’. The couplet primarily intended the same and it became overlaps due to the alternative system involved in the process of rendering. For instance

Connection-I

What bolt can bar true love in fact?
The trickling tears reveal the heart

It is a translation done by N.C. Naidoo. All the alternative parallel elements are decided in accordance with the motive of faithful to the original. However, there is understated, overstated alternative equivalents prevail in the core meaning of the original. In this translation, the expression of love is seems attributed as ‘true love’. The original text mean to say that ‘what bolt can bar love’ for anpirkum unto adaikkum tal and the alternative decision could be as such. Naidoo decides to overstate by adding the alternative for the feeling of love as ‘true’ and the phrase ‘in fact’ placed deliberately to emphasize the subject of the meaning. Taking into an account of the phrase ‘trickling tears reveal the heart’; a word ‘heart’ is a specialization in which the emotion of love is expressed. Hence, the thematic alternatives such as true, in fact and heart’ are the essential entries and it is inferred that they are from Naidoo’s surplus decision.

Connection—II

Is there a bolt that can imprison love?
The trickling tears of loving eyes will cry it out

H. A Popley whose translation having remote alternatives and slightly overlaps the original text. The first sentence is made as interrogative like what N. C. Naidoo did. However, the mode of expression of interrogation distorts. Naidoo’s alternation directly related to the core meaning of the original. Popley’s decision of alternation is declarative and indirectly related to the original text. Popley also adopt the same mode of expression. A fragment ‘imprison’ of Popley decision is
strange and it cannot be substantiate with the word ‘bar’ of Naidoo’s
decision. Trickling tears has been retained and rest of the
connections is deviated. Figurative connection like loving eyes also
taking place then remains with description of the feelings of love.
Popley apply figurative as well as plain expressions in his connections.

Connection –III

Is there even for love bar that will hide it?
The eyes of lover will shed a rain of tears

Consistently an interrogative connection remains for the first
sentence. There are some considerable distortions identified while
comparing with the Naidoo’s and Popley’s decisions. V. M.
Gnanaprakasam conceives the original idea from remote view. He
tries to correspond with explanatory interrogation. The first sentence
connect the core idea by using clumsy style of expression whereas,
the second sentence is so direct. Actual sense of a word bolt found
dissimilar and does not convey the idea as such. The decided word
hide may be related with lexical synonymy but not to be given an
optional value at this context. The total diversion causes the surplus
decision of V. M. Gnanaprakasam.

Connection –IV

Is there indeed a bolt to shut in love?
The compassionate tears of those filled with love will broadcast it

G. Vanmikanathan emphasizes the content of the question. It has
huge deviation from Gnanaprakasam’s surplus decision. The scattered
way of surplus decision may cause to damage the inner meaning of
what actually a couplet says. Considering this rendering, a word
compassionate is seems sub system of connection by the way it explain
the meaning. The affection of love has versed in to a trickling tear in
Popley and Naidoo’s decision and it has been replaced by referring a
‘sympathy’ tears. In this situation, the concept of love is slightly
nullified. Vanmikanathan tried to elaborate the meaning of reveal.
So, the entry of a word broadcast is made suitable but, it is vague
and it may be considered as overgeneralization. Hence, surplus
decision comes in to consider for the discussion.
Can love be latched and hidden?
A trickling tear will proclaim it loud

P. S. Sundaram tried his best through deciding an equivalent ‘proclaim’ and this is an alternative for vanmikanathan’s broadcast, Popley’s cry it out and Naidoo’s reveal. A word latched is a word mean to refer the physical property rather than an abstract concept of love and it cannot be par with what Naidoo and Popley’s bolt. This can be an alternative with similar sense to a fragment hide it as it decided by Gnanaprakasam

What barrier is there to debar love’s outpouring?
The tears that will from within proclaim the proof thereof

In this connection, a word debar refers the sense of expel or get rid of and a word barrier means obstacle. These two fragments are overlaps the core meaning of the original. But they have some inner correspondence each other. This is also a way of connection tried by C. Rajasingham. His decision is so significant to the decision opt by P. S. Sundaram. However there are fragments found scattered and they must be brought out from the ground of surplus decision

Can bolt or chain blind love storms so,
Rains tears o’er the loved one’s woe?

The expression of S.M. Michael’s translation is having considerable deviation from other scholars whose connections are one or other way resembles. He used figurative expression at two places they are seems remote when compare with other options those could be proximity to the original text. S. M. Micheal’s surplus decision is remarkable.

And is there bar that can even love restrain
The tiny tear shall make the lover’s secret plain
G.U. Pope was the first among the European scholars who had understood ‘Kural’ in the correct perspective. His edition of the ‘kural’ is extraordinary for its notes and metre, lexicon and concordance. Pope has attempted to give a metrical translation and even tried to reproduce the original rhythm in many cases. Accordingly, he attempted to connect his style into the original meaning of the character of love or affection. He is also not exempted from surplus decision. In this translation, the words restrain secret and tiny are Pope’s alternatives and are distinguished from other scholars.

Conclusion
There are some fragments directly connects to the actual theme of love in kural. However, some of them are with abstract way of connections and rests of them are physical concrete way. This alternative dynamism takes a major role and interrupting the properness of communication between Source and Target text. The translations of the native scholars are influenced by the source text due to their native orientation and it is not the case when the translation done by the non-native scholars, because; the influence of the original is unusual to them. They are remote and if the situation demands in terms of parallel correspondence; they try to attain the original through making indirect cognitive connections. But they are faithful to original. They provide equivalents with motive of communication rather than structural identity. Among the native translators there are some subtle differences occurs in their decision of equivalents in structural level. It is assumed to confine that, where there are variations in personal may cause the variations occurs in their production too. So, the problem is inevitable and the situation demands to prevail over.

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Listening : The Most Neglected Skill in the Language Curriculum

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A good listener is not only popular everywhere, But after a while he Knows something
- Wilson Mizner

"Let every man be quick to hear, slow to speak"
- New Testament

One of the best ways to persuade others is by listening to them
- Dean Rusk

Listening is an important aid to communication through its importance had not been realized till very recently. In an American company when a survey was conducted on how members spent their time communicating, they were surprised to discover that 63 percent of their time was taken up listening to one another while reading took 4 percent, writing 11 percent and speaking 22 percent. It is undoubtedly that if people are bad listeners, they will also make bad communicators.

The teaching of any language in the Indian context is an extremely complicated job with a variety of problems. Our curriculum is not concentrating a skill based teaching. The linguistic method of teaching emphasizes the importance of Language skills and if these skills are given importance in the curriculum the communicative skills of the students may be enhanced.

Among the four language skills viz., Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing, the most neglected skill in our curriculum is listening. Why Listening should given importance, is that it is the basic skill to all other skills.
Good listening is necessary for success. A good listener is more liked, more influential than a one way speaker. Every successful business man is a good listener.

Good communication skills are a vital key to living a successful life. Business life, family life, social life and all relationships hinge on how well we communicate. Colleges and corporations place a high value on communication as a key skill.

People learn communication to a large extent by watching others. Let the learner see that the teacher making eye contact with him. Let the learner notice the teacher's tone of voice when the teacher relate to the learner. Remind your students that learning good communication skills is a life-long process. We all need to continually hone our skills and improve in the way we communicate.

**Listening as a communication tool**

Any discussion of oral communication is incomplete without considering listening as a communication tool. Speaking and listening, listening and speaking go hand in hand. No oral communication can be effective without proper listening. The recipient of the message must be attentive and receptive. But we know that all listeners are no alike. There are good listeners, and also very or impatient listeners. Poor listening may defeat the very purpose of oral communication. Authorities have found out that generally people retain only one fourth of what they listen after two days. It is, therefore, necessary for us to train ourselves regularly to be good listeners.

The effective communication has the following elements:

1. Listening
2. Verbal Skills
3. Non-Verbal Skills

Among these three our curriculum concentrates only on verbal skills not listening and Non-verbal skills. If two of the three elements of an effective communication is neglected then how our trained as good communicators. In this context, it is stressed that both listening and non-verbal skills should given much importance and these should be included in the curriculum.
Why to Teach Listening?

- Have you ever wished your students were better at following directions?
- Do you wish your students communicated more clearly?
- Do your students misunderstand assignments?
- Are your students clueless about figurative language, idioms and inferred language?

Some useful techniques to use when teaching listening.

**Pre-listening**

- Tell your students they shouldn’t worry that they have to understand every word they hear. Not every word is important!
- Where possible, make sure students know what they are listening for before you start listening. Explain they should focus only on the information they need.
- Give two or three general questions to check students comprehension of the basic details.
- If possible, check for any words that your students may not know. Pre-teach these so they do not interfere with understanding.
- Brainstorm students’ ideas on the topic they are going to listen to. This will help focus them.
- Don’t choose a listening that is too long. If necessary, stop the recording at certain points and review what students have understood so far.

**While listening**

- As a general principle, try to play the recording once for overall comprehension. Then play the recording again for specific details.
- Tell students to note any dates, people or places they hear.
- Divide students into groups and give each group a different listening task (e.g. different questions). Then swap their answers and have students listen again and check their
classmates' answers.
1. Don't be afraid to repeat the recording, especially the parts students have most trouble understanding.

Post-listening

1. Tell students to compare their notes and discuss what they understood in pairs or small groups.
2. Encourage students to respond to what they heard. For example, where possible ask questions like Do you agree? and encourage debate.
3. Tell pairs to write a summary of the main points. Then have them compare their summaries and check if they covered all the main points.
4. Play the recording again and tell students to call out 'Stop!' when they hear the answers they were listening for.
5. Put students into groups and tell them to make a list of comprehension questions to ask each other.
6. Tell students to make a list in their notebooks of any new vocabulary they feel is useful.

Improve Listening Skills

To improve poor communication and listening skills, follow these steps when you are receiving a message:

1. Take the time to listen carefully.
2. Focus on the speaker's words.
3. Don't try to anticipate what they are trying to convey.
4. In other words, don't jump to conclusions.

Teachers can show students why good listening is useful and even crucial in some situations. Poor listening can lead to unnecessary arguments and problems. As in the case of doctors, careful listening and questioning might even save lives. Students' listening skills may be enhanced and tested by asking them questions about what they have heard. They may be given practice in note-taking and could be asked questions about the facts and inferences that may be made
from their notes. They can be taught to recognize the difference between the main points and incidental or less relevant ideas and information.

Require your students to partner up and spend time taking turns just listening to each other. Listening seems to be a lost art among many. Waiting for him to finish before you begin to speak and them thinking before you speak are important communication skills to teach.

Teach communication skills by showing your students those actions. Speak louder than words. Kindness can be communicated by a gentle touch. Tenderness and kindness communicate value to others. A smile communicates confidence and inspires confidence in others.

**Why to Teach Non-Verbal?**

When listening to other, pay attention to the facial expressions that the speaker makes. These expressions can provide additional insight into the speakers' state of mind and the intent of their message. Interpreting body language offers the listener clues about the speaker's emotional state and the purpose for their message.

Scientific analysis has shown that body movements and gestures constitute 55 percent of effective communication. Hence, non-verbal communication merits some earnest and thoughtful consideration.

Non-verbal communication involves things such as gestures, posture and physical appearance and, in general, all bodily movements. It takes place without written or spoken words. Non-verbal communication is those messages that are expressed by means other than linguistic. While you can refuse to speak or write, it is impossible to avoid behaving non-verbally. Non-verbal communications are classified into two different ways:

- Visual (can be seen)
  - Eg., signs, colours
- Auditory (can be heard)
  - Eg., bells, horns

Teachers should be aware of nonverbal behaviour in the classroom.
for three major reasons:

1. An awareness of nonverbal behaviours will allow you to become better receivers of students' messages.
2. You will become a better sender of signals that reinforce learning.

This mode of communication increases the degree of the perceived psychological closeness between teacher and student.

Some major areas of nonverbal behaviours to explore are:

1. Eye contact
2. Facial expressions
3. Gestures
4. Posture and body orientation
5. Proximity
6. Paralinguistics
7. Humor

**Eye Contact**

Eye contact, an important channel of interpersonal communication, helps regulate the flow of communication. And it signals interest in others. Furthermore, eye contact with audiences increases the speaker's credibility. Teachers who make eye contact open the flow of communication and convey interest, concern, warmth and credibility.

**Facial Expressions**

Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits:

1. Happiness
2. Friendliness
3. Warmth
4. Liking
5. Affiliation

Thus, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likable,
friendly, warm and approachable. Smiling is often contagious and students will react favorably and learn more.

**Gestures**

If you fail to gesture while speaking, you may be perceived as boring, stiff and unanimated. A lively and animated teaching style captures students’ attention, makes the material more interesting, facilitates learning and provides a bit of entertainment. Head nods, a form of gestures, communicate positive reinforcement to students and indicate that you are listening.

**Posture and body orientation**

You communicate numerous messages by the way you walk, talk, stand and sit. Standing erect, but not rigid, and leaning slightly forward communicates to students that you are approachable, receptive and friendly. Furthermore, interpersonal closeness results when you and your students face each other. Speaking with your back turned or looking at the floor or ceiling should be avoided; it communicates disinterest to your class.

**Proximity**

Cultural norms dictate a comfortable distance for interaction with students. You should look for signals of discomfort caused by invading students’ space. Some of these are:

- Rocking
- Leg swinging
- Tapping
- Gaze aversion

Typically, in large college classes space invasion is not a problem. In fact, there is usually too much distance. To counteract this, move around the classroom to increase interaction with your students. Increasing proximity enables you to make better eye contact and increases the opportunities for students to speak.

**Paralinguistics**

This facet of nonverbal communication includes such vocal
elements as:

1. Tone
2. Pitch
3. Rhythm
4. Timbre
5. Loudness
6. Inflection

For maximum teaching effectiveness, learn to vary these six elements of your voice. One of the major criticisms is of instructors who speak in a monotone. Listeners perceive these instructors as boring and dull. Students report that they learn less and lose interest more quickly when listening to teachers who have not learned to modulate their voices.

**Humour**

Humour is often overlooked as a teaching tool, and it is too often not encouraged in college classrooms. Laughter releases stress and tension for both instructor and student. You should develop the ability to laugh at yourself and encourage students to do the same. It fosters a friendly classroom environment that facilitates learning.

**Conclusion**

Listening is not just a simple thing which involves only hearing. In fact, it is quite different from hearing. Hearing is the physical process of sound falling on one’s ears. But listening involves the brain, draws attention to the subject matter and makes sense of the talk. Hearing is through ears and listening is by mind. Intelligent listening requires openness of the mind, focus, constant mental classification and association of the message heard and taking notes—mental or written.

Thus, Listening which is most neglected skill in our curriculum plays an important role in improving the communicative skills of the students should be included as a part of the syllabus in the curriculum.
1.0 Introduction

The start of 20th century had visualized tremendous changes in technology; transportation and other communication technologies such as, satellite television, electronic mail and the World Wide Web. This makes it possible to encounter worldwide events which have transformed the world into a global village. This process of globalization has become the key tool in making a significant impact on people's migration, travel and other parameters of their activities. While discussing about globalization, Kvale (1992) and Lash (1990) claim that growing globalization is related to a matrix of economic, cultural and psychological changes. Subsequently, in this postmodern period hardly one can see a country where monolingualism and monoculturalism prevail. Rather, in every country of the world one can visualize linguistic and cultural pluralism.

Malaysia too is not an exception to this reality of the time. The South East Asian country Malaysia has a total population of 27 million. In that, 65.1% constitute ethnic Malay, 26% Chinese, 7.7% Indians and others 1.2 % according to Census 2000 (Department of Statistics Malaysia 2002). It is evident from the demographic details given above that the Chinese and the Tamils are the two major minority ethnic communities living in the multi-ethnic, multi-lingual and multi-cultural Malaysia. Though these two communities come from two different ethnolinguistic stalks, as far as Malaysia is concerned they have lot of similarities in terms of their migratory history, sub-ethnic composition, language maintenance, activities related to education, maintenance of their cultural and linguistic identities. However, they exhibit differential behavior in the present socio political background of Malaysia. This behavioral heterogeneity
with an objective of getting sociolinguistic and cultural stability is the result of the impact of the socio political and the attitudinal dominance of the dominant community.

This paper aims at comparing both the communities in order to identify various strategies being adopted to maintain their linguistic and ethnic identities under the present socio political scenario of Malaysia. Since no research has been so far undertaken involving the above mentioned two minority communities with the objective of the present study, this paper can contribute significantly for understanding the behavior of these two minority communities in order to attain the common goal.

In the current literature regarding language maintenance in a multilingual society, ethnolinguistic vitality theory (Giles et al 1977, Bourhis et al 1981) seems to be an appropriate academic scale to measure the linguistic vitality of a community which is a significant factor for the maintenance of language and ethnic identities. Giles while explaining his theory combines objective dimension with subjective dimension to account for different extent of vitality of ethnic groups in a multilingual context. The objective dimension emphasizes the importance of three key factors for language maintenance, namely, the demographic factor, the status factor, and the institutional support factor; the subjective dimension refers to the perception and assumption of the people of the above factors, which is considered to be more accurate as a predictor for language maintenance (Coulmas 2005: 161). One of the fundamental assumptions from ethnolinguistic vitality theory (EVT) is that low ethnolinguistic vitality will lead to language shift while high ethnolinguistic vitality may lead to language maintenance. The current study adopts this framework to analyze and compare the linguistic situation in two minority groups in Malaysia, namely, the Chinese and Tamils.

2.0 Methodology

In the current study, both Chinese and Tamil communities in Malaysia were compared in order to identify the ethnolinguistic vitality of both the groups with reference to EVT. The second type of comparison was conducted through the questionnaire survey in order
to find out the inter-group perception towards one another with special reference to identity. This is the subjective dimension to scale the vitality. Through the survey, the responses for the following research questions were analyzed: (1) how do the Chinese perceive the Indian group? (2) how do the Indians perceive the Chinese group? (3) how do the Chinese and Tamil students identify with their ethnic group and the nation? The subjects are the students from the Chinese linguistic program and the Tamil linguistic program at the University of Malaya. The questionnaires were administered in the class and were monitored by both researchers respectively. The questionnaire used for the language attitude study was divided into 2 sections, namely, close-ended questions and open-ended questions. The main objective of close-ended questionnaire was to find out the identity of these students, whereas, the open-ended questionnaire has more subjective questions through which different kinds of attitudes involving various sociolinguistic, economic, and political issues were studied. For both surveys, 12 Chinese college students and 20 Indian college students were involved.

3.0 Ethnolinguistic Vitality Of The Chinese And Tamils

3.1 Demographic Factor

As mentioned above, among the three objective factors to study the ethnolinguistic vitality of the community, the demographic factor refers to the distribution and the absolute numbers of the population. It also covers the settlement patterns, birth rate, and migration. In this section, Census data from year 1991 and 2000 will be used as reference for the demography of the Chinese and Indian group.

3.1.1 Chinese In Malaysia

The absolute number of the Chinese population in Malaysia is around 6 million (26%) which is definitely a positive factor for language maintenance. However, the Chinese community is not homogeneous but heterogeneous mainly in its linguistic composition. That is, the

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1 The sample of this study is relatively small. So it may not reflect the whole picture of these two communities. However, it may indicate the general attitude of the Chinese and Tamil communities in Malaysia.
community consists of various dialect groups. These dialect groups vary in their population and distribution. The Census data (Department of Statistics Malaysia 1995: 81)\(^1\) show that Southern Min group is the largest dialect group, followed by the Hakka group and Cantonese group. It is reported that the major dialect groups, such as Southern Min group, Hakka group, and Cantonese group, maintain their dialects to a better extent than those minor dialect groups (Wang, 2010). In this process, demography of these dialect groups plays a crucial role.

Besides, the Chinese tend to settle in urban area, such as Kuala Lumpur, Penang, Malacca, Ipoh, and Johor Baru. Apart from this, a large number of Chinese live in New Villages\(^2\) where over 80% of the residents are Chinese (Loh 2000: 269). Without any doubt, the concentrated settlement is a positive factor for the maintenance of both linguistic and ethnic identities.

3.1.2 Indians in Malaysia

The Indian Diaspora felt their presence in West Asia, Eastern Africa and many countries of Southeast Asia since several centuries. Indians in Malaysia include several ethnic communities such as, Malayalis (3.37%), Sikhs and Punjabis (3.41%), Telugus (2.64%) Sindhis, etc (Department of Statistics Malaysia 1995: 82). Among the Indian communities in Malaysia, Tamils are the dominant group (84.72%).

As opposed to the Malaysian Chinese community at the initial stages of migration to Malaysia, the Tamil community was not very much keen on maintaining their mother tongue Tamil in formal platform such as, education (Rajendran 2008). But, of late they have taken active steps in maintaining Tamil by way of establishing schools, cultural associations etc. Numerical strength of Tamils often plays a pivotal role in the socio political and ethnolinguistic activities of Malaysian Indians. Apart from taking active steps in maintaining the language by adopting various strategies within the country, Malaysian

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1. The detailed sub-ethnic data are not available in Census 2000.
2. New Villages were set up by the British colonial government during the emergency period (1948-1960) to cut off the contact of the Communist Party with the local residents. The majority of the villagers were ethnic Chinese who live in 452 such villages in Malaysia with a total population of 2 million (Loh 2000).
Tamils also have strong association with India. They have cultural exchange, business transaction and going for higher education. For all these activities the Malaysian Tamils undertake frequent visit to Tamil Nadu.

### 3.2 The Status Factor

The status factor refers to economic status, political and social status, and language status of a specific group in a multilingual society. It is proposed by EVT that the more status a linguistic community is recognized, the more vitality it possesses (Bourhis et al 1981: 146).

It is commonly acknowledged that the Chinese community plays an important role in the economy of Malaysia, especially in the private sector enterprise (Phang 2000: 111). Traditionally, Chinese contributed mainly to the rubber plantation, commercial agriculture, fishing industry, and managing or supervision sectors. With the transformation of Malaysian economy in 1990s, Chinese shift to the commerce, construction and finance sectors (Phang 2000: 103). They even started to invest in overseas markets. The strong economic status of the Chinese group may facilitate the maintenance of Chinese language as a positive factor. For instance, proficiency in any Chinese language is often one of the compulsory conditions for the job advertisement in the Chinese newspapers.

As far as the Indian community is concerned, historically they started their career as estate laborers. Though during the past several decades of their living in Malaysia they have established their positions in business, plantation, finance etc, their overall performance in gaining satisfactory economic success is not significant when compared to the Chinese community.

In addition to that, it is felt by the community that unless there is a strong linguistic and ethnic affiliation, it will be difficult to build a viable intra ethnic political network in Malaysia. As known, the leading alliance in Malaysia is the National Front among which UMNO (United Malays National Organization), MCA (Malaysian Chinese Association) and MIC (Malaysian Indian Congress) are the three largest parties, representing three major ethnic groups respectively.
MCA is composed of ethnic Chinese exclusively, which was founded in 1949. With over 1.1 million members, MCA claims to represent the 6 million Chinese in Malaysia⁴. Though historically Tamils started their career as estate laborers, currently their status has improved in education, business and politics. If we compare Tamils with Chinese, Tamils do have certain heterogeneities. But, when we look into the political history of Malaysia, Malays could establish a political organization UMNO which could rapidly rise to form a strong force. Similarly, Chinese could knit a strong political organization MCA. The Indians could establish Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC). All these political organizations enjoy varying levels of status in the political scenario of Malaysia.

At this juncture, it is appropriate to say that as per the Malaysian Constitution, among all the three languages, Malay is hierarchically on top whereas the other languages enjoy equal status. However, by considering several parameters such as, political strength, role of the community in decision making at the national level, status of the language etc. it is possible to place Malay at the first level, Chinese at the second level and Tamil at the third level. This is the reflection of the prevailing ethnolinguistic vitality exerting on these groups.

3.3 The Institutional Support Factor

Giles et al (1977) classify the institutional support factors into formal and informal categories. Formal institutional support factors include education, mass media and government services⁵; informal factors are support from industry, religion and culture. In the following sections education, mass media and religion will be discussed respectively.

3.3.1 Education

Education domain is a crucial domain for language maintenance. If a language is adopted as the medium of instruction or a subject in the school, there will be a good chance for its maintenance. On the contrary, if a language is abandoned by all levels of education, the

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⁴ For more information, please visit the official website of MCA. http://www.mca.org.my.
⁵ Since Malay is the single official language in Malaysia, it is extensively used in government services. Sometimes English can also be used depending on the situation and interlocutor. However, Chinese or Tamil are not provided in government departments.
opportunity for its maintenance will be much less.

In Malaysia, a bilingual or multilingual education policy has been adopted in the past decades. At the elementary level, both Chinese schools and Tamil schools are part of the national education system, termed as National Type Schools. In these schools, Mandarin or Tamil is used as the medium of instruction respectively for all subjects except for English and Malay subjects. Both English and Malay are taught as subjects but Malay occupies much more teaching hours than English. The situation in Chinese schools is that 90% of the students are ethnic Chinese and the remaining 10 percent are either ethnic Indians or Malays. In the meantime, the situation in Tamil schools is very much unique in the sense that only 52% of the total Indian student population enrolls as students in these schools (Rajendran 2008: 12). According to the latest information, only 49% of the total Tamil student population is going to Tamil schools (Nanban 2010/10/7, p13). It may be noted that within a couple of years 3% reduction in the enrollment is observed. However, unless a national level statistics on this issue is taken, it may be difficult to find out the exact number and the percentage. The remaining students either go to National Schools or private schools where Malay or English is the medium of instruction respectively.

Though academically one can prove that education is one of the strong contributing factors for language maintenance, by looking into the existing situation in Malaysia it is possible to say that Chinese and Tamils are having different attitudes and strategies to maintain their languages. For instance, various steps are taken by the communities’ concern for maintaining their respective languages. However, Chinese community has very strong positive attitudes towards maintaining Mandarin in a formal manner. This is visible if we look into the various private Chinese educational institutions which are flourishing with more Chinese students who learn Chinese language. When compared to the effort of Chinese in maintaining formal Chinese education by way of establishing private schools, Indian community as a whole is experiencing a set-back. There are two reasons for this. One reason can be the economic reason as stated by Schiffman (1995). The second reason is because of the
inherent inconsistency prevalent in the community regarding the mother tongue education. This inconsistency can be seen in the periodic reduction in enrolment of Tamil students in Tamil schools. As a result, during the educational history of Malaysia, it is possible to visualize various Tamil development associations' constant negotiation with the Tamils to send their children to Tamil schools. Also, they have been developing several strategies to enhance the quality of Tamil schools and the mother tongue education. As a result it is possible to see considerable increase in the enrolment in Tamil schools. However, it is also possible to see several Tamil students who are studying in other disciplines do not know how to read and write Tamil. In the absence of national level statistics it is not possible to measure the percentage of these students. As we understand this situation does not prevail among the Chinese community. In other words, overwhelming majority of the Chinese not only know their mother tongue, but also have their education in Chinese at least at certain level.

3.3.2 Mass Media

Mass media is a strong institutional support for the maintenance and spread of a language in a modern society. In this section, print media and multimedia in Chinese and Tamil will be looked through.

For print media, newspapers are the most influential in Malaysia. In total, there are five major Chinese newspapers in west Malaysia, among which Nanyang Press, Sin Chew Daily, and China Press are the most popular. According to Chooi (2002), the daily sales volume of these five Chinese newspapers in west Malaysia in year 2000 is as follows: 276,239 for Sin Chew Daily, 176,798 for Nanyang Press, 126,596 for China press, 90,033 for Guangming Daily, and 72,058 for Kwong Wah Daily. The large readership of Chinese newspapers is a positive factor for the maintenance of Chinese language and culture. In fact, the local Chinese associate Chinese newspapers with Chinese culture and show strong support to these Chinese newspapers and relative cultural activities promoted by these newspapers.

There are three major Tamil newspapers, namely, Malaysia Nanban (60,000 circulation), Makkal Osai (52,000 daily circulation and 95,000 weekend circulation), and Tamil Nesan (45,000 circulation) in Malaysia. Apart from this, some magazines which deal with politics, education, and social issues are also printed locally. In addition to this, almost all the leading newspapers and magazines printed in Tamil Nadu are also available in the major cities in Malaysia like Kuala Lumpur, Penang, Malacca, etc.

Chinese and Tamil programs on TV and radios are also available in Malaysia. However, the Chinese and Tamil slot vary across TV and radio channels. On national TV channels, Chinese and Tamil programs are reserved for news broadcasting and limited TV series. On private channels, both Chinese programs in Mandarin and Cantonese are available and the Chinese slot is slightly longer than that on national channels. In contrast, Tamil programs are restricted only during some important Indian festivals. ASTRO is the only cable TV in Malaysia, providing varieties of TV channels telecast from abroad. The Chinese programs are from mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan in both Mandarin and Cantonese and the Tamil programs are mainly from India.

3.3.3 Religion

The third important factor from the institutional support is religion, which is not only a crucial cultural practice for many ethnic groups in this world but also a factor to maintain the language of the community. In Malaysia, religion varies across ethnic groups. Islam is the national religion and practiced mainly by the Malays; Hinduism is the most important religion for the Indians; Buddhism is the main religion of the Chinese group. However, with the interaction of the three ethnic groups, it is observed that there are considerable numbers of inter-religious conversions taking place among the Chinese and Indian groups.

Three quarter of the Chinese population is Buddhist; more than 84% of the Indian population is Hindus. However, Buddhists and Hindus behave differently in terms of their worship pattern. For instance, Buddhism does not require any formal worship while...
Hinduism is practiced both at home and also by visiting regularly to various temples depending on the choice of the devotees. Most of Malaysian Chinese install altars at home and worship the deities or spirits personally (Tan 2000: 293). Apart from that, Buddhism does not associate with a specific language; in contrast, the language of worship among Hindus involves both Tamil as well as Sanskrit. But, the formal use of Tamil in Hindu religious domain is very much minimal. In the meantime Tamil plays a significant role in religious functions, festivals and other activities related to religion. Hence, religion is a very important domain for the use of Tamil within the Indian group; whereas, it seems that religion does not play any significant role for maintaining language among the Chinese community.

4.0 The Inter-Group Perception by Malaysian Chinese and Indian Groups

Demographic factor, status factor, and institutional support factor which can be measured objectively are the three major contributing factors for the maintenance of language within the framework of ethnolinguistic vitality theory (EVT). However, sometimes it is difficult to quantify these three factors. Therefore, Bourhis et al (1981) proposed a subjective dimension also to complement EVT, in which the perception of the community members is taken into account. By doing so, the situation of language maintenance and shift will be better predicted.

4.1 The Perception of the Chinese Students Towards the Indians

Generally, the results show that the Chinese students hold negative or neutral attitude towards Malaysian Indians. So do their family members. To be specific, they perceive the Indians as poor, extreme, discourteous, impolite, trouble-maker, alcohol-lover, unconcerned to

7. As Tan (2000: 63) explained, most of Malaysian Chinese are actually followers of traditional Chinese religion rather than Buddhism. They worship their ancestors, Chinese deities or spirits at home or in the temple.

8. The Christian Church services in Malaysia are also conducted in different languages, such as English, Mandarin, and other Chinese dialects (Tan 2000: 301).
people and segmented into various groups along the line of status and education. The students claim that based on their past experiences in schools, they have more chances to contact with Malays rather than Indians since Malays are the majority group in this country. Furthermore, more students (N=6) feel that the Malays are more friendly than the Indians (N=4). When the students were asked about the perception by the Indians, they responded that the Indians tend to act in favor of Chinese (N=6) rather than other groups; while the Chinese also show more favor in Indians (N=6) rather than others. The majority of the subjects agree that learning Tamil will be advantageous for them because they may understand the Indian language and culture better and communicate with the Indians more efficiently; while all the subjects contend that learning Chinese language is absolutely an advantage for the Indians especially for the economic benefit. As for their view towards the language and culture maintenance by both ethnic groups, the subjects hold the opinion that the Chinese maintain their languages more actively and comprehensively than the Indians; the Chinese show stronger faith and will in the maintenance of their languages as an unified entity; in contrast, the Indians are more silent and less active in language maintenance. In addition, as one subject contends that the rising of China seems to be a positive factor for the maintenance of Chinese language; while India seems not to exert any positive influence on the maintenance of the Indian languages in Malaysia.

4.2 The Perception of the Indian Students Towards the Chinese

The overall attitude towards Chinese by the Indian students could be viewed as follows: high economy status, helpfulness, unity, dependability. The general opinion about the Chinese by the Indians is that their economical independence is a result of their ethnic unity. This became the contributing factor for gaining more power both in politics as well as in gaining the economic strength of the country. Further, the Indians feel that this characteristic feature as a whole became a contributing factor for their overall uncompromising behavioral outcome. To be specific, more than 50% of the participants feel that Chinese do not have the basic tendency to help non-Chinese. Also most of the Chinese are opportunists and mostly confined to
intra-ethnic activities only. However, whenever there is an opportunity arises, Chinese have a positive attitude towards the ethnic Indians. For instance, Chinese prefer to extend job opportunities to Indians whenever there is a need. This includes menial jobs to specialized jobs. This positive attitude of Chinese towards Indians reveals not only the confidence Chinese have towards Indians but also the recognition the Chinese hold towards them. It is also understood that whenever there is any political or socially relevant decisions to be taken, the respondents (N=12) have a feeling that Chinese mostly take neutral stand. In most of the situations, the respondents (N=10) feel that the attitude of Chinese towards Tamils and the subsequent actions will be positive. Tamils (N=17) prefer to learn Chinese language mainly because it has economic viability. This type of language choice which has economic attestation is also reported in other studies. Appel and Muysken (1987: 16) claim that language can function as a tool to identify the social and ethnic groups and also to evaluate the social groups. By learning Chinese language, the Indians may get more working opportunities in Chinese establishments, which in return will enhance the economic power of the Indian community. As observed by Appel and Muysken (1987) in this situation the Tamil community evaluates the Chinese on the latter's economic strength.

5.0 Identity and Ethnicity

As far as the issue of identity among the Chinese and Tamils is concerned, on the basis of the data collected we could observe a dual identity status prevalent among the communities. In other words, they often maintain a hierarchy of identity which is conditioned by the situation. That is, when the community interact with any government official or during the official situations they prefer to identify themselves as Malaysians first and then as Chinese or Indians. As opposed to this during the non official environments which include inter ethnic and intra ethnic situations, they prefer to reveal their respective ethnic status first and then as Malaysians.

With reference to language, both Chinese and Tamils in general have a strong positive attitude towards the role of language in
maintaining their ethnicity. Both communities hold the opinion that speaking Chinese and Tamil is essential for being Chinese or Tamils respectively. However, when it comes to linguistic identity across the ethnicity, the general tendency is to use a neutral language which is either English or Malay. In certain areas of Malaysia like East Malaysia where Chinese are dominant, Tamils have the tendency to shift to Chinese while interacting with the native Chinese but not vice versa. This phenomenon can be a litmus test to prove that ethnolinguistic vitality plays a pivotal role in maintaining linguistic fluidity.

In multilingual communities, in order to index the ethnic identity, there are several types of resources available such as, religion, attire, food, living pattern, language, etc. While discussing about the linguistic resources and ethnicity, Bailey (2000:556) in his study of Dominican-Americans claims that the local ideology is 'they speak Spanish, so they are Spanish'. This means speaking a language makes them members of the particular ethnic group. Another index can be the use of certain specific linguistic features within a language variety which are the key elements to identify the ethnicity. For instance, Uriciuoli’s study (1996:116) identified a speaker on a tape as a black, because he used habitual be. Almost on the similar line of thinking of Uriciuoli, Le Page and Tabouretkeller (1985) sought to address with their model of linguistic behavior as acts of identity. It may also be noted that ethnicity does not occur in isolation with only the community's linguistic behavior as mentioned above. For cross ethnic communication in Malaysia, Chinese and Tamils index their ethnic identity through their marked intonation, lexicon, vowel and consonant articulation while they speak Malay.

6.0 Conclusion

To conclude, through this study it is observed that both Chinese and Tamils are adopting several strategies in order to maintain their linguistic and ethnic identities as follows:

1. Both communities have strong political support for the maintenance of linguistic and ethnic identities.
2. Chinese and Tamil education are maintained as an essential factor for the maintenance of both linguistic and ethnic identities.

3. Mass media in Chinese and Tamil contribute to the maintenance of both linguistic and ethnic identities.

4. Both groups show strong identification with their respective ethnicity.

However, as far as differences between the two groups in adopting these strategies, there are certain variations on the basis of ethnolinguistic vitality. To be concrete, Chinese show a high extent of vitality which results in their strong tendency to maintain their language and less extent to shift to other languages. In the meantime, Tamils because of their comparatively lesser vitality have the tendency to move towards English, Malay or in specific situations even Chinese. It may be noted that the Chinese in most of the cases will not shift towards Malay or Tamil. If the situation demands, they have the tendency to shift to English.

References


USE OF FEATURES OF MORPHOSTYLISTICS AND SYNTACTIC STYLISTICS IN KIRAN DESAI'S NOVELS: A STRUCTURAL APPROACH

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Introduction

This paper aims at discussing various aspects of structure of language found in the novels of Kiran Desai at Morphology and Syntax levels stylistically. These levels are considered as linguistic elements. These stylistic features are identified and taken in to account in these linguistic features. Various significant aspects in Desai’s novels such as analogical creations, neologism, hyphenated words, litotes, repetitions, alliteration, and assonance are studied at the Morphological level.

Grammar is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term “grammar” refers also to the study of such rules, and encompasses morphology and syntax. ‘Stylistics of the sentences’ or ‘Syntactic Stylistics’ will examine the expressive values of syntax in a few significant grammatical items such as Holophrase, Hybrid Words, Clipped Words, Use of Question Tags, Frequent Use of ‘For’, Determiners and Ellipses have been taken for analysis prevalent in Kiran Desai’s novels. Such stylistic devices have been used to keep the thread of the story interesting and engaging syntactically.

Thus, this paper on Structural Approach of use of features of Morphology and Syntax in Kiran Desai’s novels under study mainly focuses on myriad linguistic features observed in the structure of language employed by the author.
Morphostylistics

It is the study of stylistic aspects at the morphological level. It is a fact that ‘style aspects’ are morphemes and morphological processes. Analogical creations, neologism, new words by putting hyphens, negations and repetitions have been examined here at the level of the word.

Analogical Creation

It is a special aspect of Kiran Desai’s style. It shows the creativity of the author to select words pertaining to analogy. The illustrations throw light on this aspect.

The littlest sister had been joined by several older ones. (HITGO 147)
They boiled the chicken…with a bottlecapful of brandy. (TIOL 84)

Neologism

‘Neologism’ means a new word or expression, or a new meaning for an existing word. Neologism is a stylistic notation. It shows the semantic power of the author. According to I. R. Galperin in his ‘Stylistics’, neologism means, “There is a term in linguistics which by its very nature is ambiguous and that is the term neologism.” (p. 92) The samples are as follows:

Rose and jasmine and moonflower. (HITGO 45)
They threw cannonball cabbages at each other. (TIOL 23)

Hyphenated Words

The term ‘Hyphenated Word’ is the major stylistic feature that Kiran Desai employs in her novels. There are a number of words used with hyphens. Hence, the novel is endowed with the excessive use of hyphenated terms, because the author surmises that the existing words are inadequate in certain contextual expressions. The following are examples from the novels of Kiran Desai.

The clutter of rooftops and washing lines…merged with the dust-filled sky (HITGO 1)
… she had fed her belief…a lemony- limy- luscious Limca, the fizz from… (TIOL 218)
Litotes

‘Litotes’ is, in other words, called double negative. Litotes falls under the category of stylistic device which is used for narrative technique by the author in her morphological style. It comprises typical use of negative constructions. I. R. Galperin comments that “Litotes is a deliberate understatement used to produce a stylistic effect.” (p. 246) This stylistic feature gives the reader a positive note, albeit it is considered as a stylistic intricacy. The following illustrations from the novels of Kiran Desai emphasise this fact.

He didn’t have the courage not to. (HITGO 121)
Biju in this picture did not look fearless... (TIOL 14)

Repetitions

Repetition is a linguistic device. The thinking process of a character is involved in the repetitive form in order to give emphasis on the importance of particular words in a particular context. It also draws out the attention of the referent’s feelings, zeal, dullness, and distress, during discourse. It is an important linguistic device as the author has commonly used it in her novels, at word level, phrase level and sentence level.

Hence, repetition found in the novels of Kiran Desai has been categorised under two levels as Repetition at Phrase Level and Sentence Level. It is quite significant that these two levels are approached at the morphological level. Moreover, alliteration and assonance are also significantly employed by the author to bring out rhythmical expressions at the sentence level. Examples selected from the novels of Kiran Desai, exemplify this point.

‘Not for you, not for you,’ she declared regally, and they backed away… (HITGO 104)
Hot dogs, hot dogs, two and a soda for $1.95. (TIOL 15)

Alliteration

Alliteration is the use of words starting with or containing the same letter or sound in a sentence or phrase. This is an effective stylistic tool in assigning the order of repeated sound or letter to impart...
melodic effect or poetic expressions in utterances. Kiran Desai has therefore used this device to project her thoughts more effectively, as illustrated below:

Pinky was forced to retreat to an infuriatingly powerless position… (HITGO 150)

Something sweet and something salty. (TIOL 3)

**Assonance**

Assonance, yet another repetition of vowel sounds, is used to produce a half-rhyme effect. The excerpts cited below are culled from Kiran Desai’s novels.

**Many a pickle makes a mickle** (HITGO 175)

“Shame shame, I know your name,” said the nun, feeling jolly. (TIOL 30)

**Grammatical Items**

According to Richard Ohmann, “grammar is an abstraction from a flow of mental process and physical execution to the fixed systematic forms that make speech coherent....” (Ohmann 116) In this section, a handful of important grammatical items found in Kiran Desai’s novels are discussed. They are Holophrase, Hybrid Words, Clipped Words, Use of Question Tags, Frequent Use of ‘For’, Determiners and Ellipses. To make the story vibrant syntactically, Desai has adopted these devices.

**Holophrase**

There are numerous occasions where a single word is used like a sentence with the capital letter and a period. This linguistic style is known as Holophrase. They are:

A job. A wife. (62) And… (191), No (204), and ‘Wait!’ (208) – HITGO

Nothing (62), silence (205), chomping (214), cheese (217), return (221) – TIOL
Hybrid Words

Basically English is a hybrid language. Linguistically a hybrid word, part of which is extracted from one language and part from another, is called monolingual. It has a prefix of Greek origin and a root of Latin origin. A word composed of elements originally drawn from different languages, as in the word television: the components come from Greek and Latin. The following extracts taken from Desai’s select novels are:

Thermometer (2), Polytechnic (28), Television (57), Photograph (59) – (HITGO)

Telephone (229), Cassette (238), Permafrost (239), Pornography (251) – (TIOL)

Clipped Words

Some new words are shortened forms of existing words. Cab, for instance, was clipped from cabriolet. A word formed by dropping one or more syllables from a longer word or phrase with no change in meaning, as deli from delicatessen, gas from gasoline is known as clipped words. The following from the select novels have been mentioned below.

Van (HITGO 193) : Caravan

Flu (TIOL 193) : influenza

Use of Question Tags

According to Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, question tag is, “a short phrase such as ‘isn’t it’ or ‘don’t you’ that is added to the end of a sentence to check information or to ask if someone agrees…..” (1165)

Question tags are often used to acquire confirmation from the listener in any conversation. This stylistic device is also essential to continue the dialogue in any situation. Kiran Desai has utilised this device very aptly in her two novels. The following excerpts have been extracted from Desai’s novels:

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‘A child cries for its mother’s milk, doesn’t it?’ (HITGO 89)
He could be the judge himself, couldn’t he? (TIOL 59)

**Frequent use of ‘for’**

No avid reader of Kiran Desai’s novels can miss the abundant use of ‘for’. The preposition ‘for’ largely serves a sequential purpose, that is, causal relationship. As a link, it takes the narration forward. The samples are:

He went to the public…advance, for he knew how long the waiting lists were. (HITGO 6)

Not that it mattered, for there were no latches to keep them out… (TIOL 4)

**Determiners**

Kiran Desai is a wonder at weaving fictitious names of places that seem real and authentic and familiar because of the use of the definite article ‘the’ as determiner. The use of ‘the’ assumes a familiarity and does away with introduction of any sort. Also, the determiner ‘the’ is used to denote the names of various titles. The illustrations are:

…the Mother Dairy Booth (HITGO 18)
…the Singalila Mountains (TIOL 21)

**Ellipsis**

Laura Wright and Jonathan Hope say that Ellipsis is a cohesive device involving the absence of an item which the reader or listener has to supply. (Wright 170) It seems that the author has used this stylistic device for both grammatical completeness and economy. In addition, this method is generally adopted by most of the Indian novelists. Some illustrations given below prove the point.

And if he was balding a little and had a small belly…well, he liked… (HITGO 19)

“Just disappear quietly is my advice…” (TIOL 16)
Conclusion

The various technical devices mentioned in this paper are comprehensible to the reader and add a stylistic flavour to Desai’s works in *Hullabaloo in the Guava Orchard* and *The Inheritance of Loss*. Subsequently, the various methods of stylistics such as Morphostylistics and Syntactic Stylistics have been taken and a modest attempt has been made to justify their stand in the course of the novels taken up for analytical study.

References

Sequential Converbal Construction in Danuwar

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0. Introduction

Danuwar is one of the languages belonging to Indo-Aryan group of Indo-European Language Family. It is spoken in Nepal by an ethnic group of the same name as their mother tongue. In the report of Population Census 2001, 31,849 people have been recorded as mother tongue speakers of this language. This language passes through different alternative names. Danuwar, Dhanvar, Rai Danuwar, Danwar, Denwar, Donwar are different alternative names used to refer to this language.

Most of the South Asian languages typically employ non-finite clauses instead of finite clauses to realize clause linkage (Masica, 1976). This paper focuses on one of such constructions, viz. sequential converbal constructions (also known as ‘conjunctive participle/participial clauses’) in Danuwar language and tries to analyse them.

This paper is organized into three sections. Section 1 presents the morphological analysis of the sequential converbal constructions in Danuwar. Section 2 briefly discusses their semantics. In section 3 the syntactic features associated with these constructions are discussed. It ends with summing up.

1. THE MORPHOLOGY OF SEQUENTIAL CONVERB

The sequential converb in Danuwar is formed by attaching the suffix –ku to the verb stem, e.g.

1) mahes [dherai paDhi-ku] baDke maanus bani-lak
   Mahesh a lot read-CONV big man become-PST 3SG M
   ‘Having read a lot, Mahesh became a big man.’

2. The Semantics of Sequential Converb

Semantically, this language employs sequential converbal constructions, apart from simultaneous converbal construction. The
sequential converb basically refers to the event occurring immediately prior to the event encoded in the following verb, which may be another sequential converb or a finite verb in the matrix clause. It is exemplified in the following illustrations.

2) moro bubaa saanaa-ku khaanaa khaai-s
   1 SG GEN grandfather take bath-CONV meal eat-NPST 3 SG
   ‘My grandfather eats meal after taking bath.’

3) lugaa dhoi-ku oi saanai-lik
   cloths wash-CONV 3 SG ERG take bath-PST 3 SG F
   ‘Having washed the clothes, she took a bath.’

Illustration (2) contains a sequence of events: ‘My father takes bath’ and ‘eats meal’.

Similarly, in (3), first she washed clothes, and then took a bath.

It is, however, to be noted that these languages, like several other Asian languages, have non-specialized sequential converbs, which are open to a range of meaning including cause (as shown in (3)) and manner (as shown in (4)), apart from its core meaning, viz. anteriority or temporal priority (as shown in (2)).

3) bubaa-k khabar suni-ku u khusi bhai-lak
   grandfather-GEN news hear-CONV 3 SG happy become –PST 3SG M
   ‘He was happy to hear (his) grandfather’s news.’

4) sitai hōski-ku moro sab baat maani-lik
   Sita.ERG laugh-CONV my all suggestions accept-PST 3 SG F
   ‘Sita accepted all my suggestions gladly.’

3. The Syntax of Sequential Converb

3.1. Position

The sequential converb clause is normally joined to the left of the matrix clause. However, they can also be postposed in marked constructions as a discourse strategy to express afterthought or focus. The sentence (2) can be uttered as (5).

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5) sab-lok suti-la khaanaa khaai-ku
   all-pl. sleep-pst 3 pl. meal eat-conv
   ‘All have slept after eating.’

3.2. The Scope of Tam

   The tense and the mood of the matrix clause verb had broad scope which extends to the sequential verb. Consider the following example in which the sequential verb agrees with the simple past tense in the matrix verb:

   6) raam-e ciThi lekhi-ku hulaak-maa di-lak
       Ram-erg letter write-conv post office-loc give-pst 3 sg m
       ‘Having written the letter, Ram gave it to the post office.’

   In this sentence, the tense of the sequential converb matches with the past tense of the verbs in the matrix clauses. The aspect is inherent in the converb.

3.3. The Scope of Negation and Question

   In sequential converbal constructions, both negation and question have narrow scope; i.e. their scope remains restricted to the matrix clause and do not extend to sequential converbal constructions:

   7) oi saanaa-ku khaanaa boi-khaai-la
       he.erg take bath-conv meal neg-eat-pst
       ‘Having taken bath, he did not eat.’

   8) oi saanaa-ku khaanaa khaai-lak?
       he.erg take bath-conv meal eat-pst
       ‘Having taken bath, did he eat?’

3.4. Subject of Sequential Converb

   The subject of sequential converb in this language can be either null NP, viz. PRO or a lexically overt NP. These two options have been illustrated in (9a) and (9b), respectively.

   9) a. [PRO ghar aai-ku] raam suti-lak
       home come-conv Ram sleep-pst 3 sg m
‘Having come home, Ram slept.’

b. [tui kaanu nai-aai-ku] kunnu kaam nai-hokh-is you.NH tomorrow NEG-come-CONV any work.N NEG-be-NPST 3SG
‘If you don’t come tomorrow, there won’t be any work.’

3.4.1. The Null Pro

As discussed in Keenan (1975) and Mohanan (1994), one of the
behavioural properties of subjecthood, widely accepted in syntactic
theory, is that the controllers of obligatorily null control sites PROs in
the sequential converbal constructions are nominative/ergative
subjects. The following example illustrates this fact:

10) ajit-e, mainaa-lai [PRO, Dhokaa kholi-ku] bas-aai-lak
   Ajit-ERG Maina-ACC door open-CONV sit-CAUS-PST 3 SG M
   ‘Having opened the door, Ajit seated Maina.’

11) [PRO, khaanaa khaai-ku] raam, suti-lak
   meal eat-CONV Ram sleep-PST 3 SG M
   ‘Having eaten meal, Ram slept.’

Besides, the controllers of gaps or PROs in a sequential verb
clause may also be dative subjects:

12) [PRO, moro kuraa suni-ku] raam-lai, ris uThi-lak
   my saying hear-CONV Ram-DAT anger rise-PST 3 SG M
   ‘Having heard me, Ram got angry.’

The controller of the gap or PRO in a sequential verb
clause may not be only the matrix subject, but also object (13), location (14) or
possessor (15) for pragmatic reasons:

13) [PRO, ichi nai-aai-ku] mui tolakha-ku ichu nai-sikaai-ku
    here NEG-come-CONV 1 SG.NOM nothing NEG-teach-
    NPST 3SG
    ‘If you don’t come here, I won’t teach you anything.’

14) [PRO, aai-ku] moro najik ekTa carai jar-ilik
    come-CONV 1 SG GEN near one bird fall-PT.3
    ‘Coming near me a bird fell down.’
15) \[ \text{PRO, okhraak bebaar DiTha-ku} \text{ moro, man khusi boi-hokh-la} \]

\[ \text{3 SG NH GEN behaviour see-CONV 1 SG GEN soul happy neg-be-PST} \]

\[3SG] ‘Seeing his/her behaviour, I was not happy.’

3.4.2. The Lexically Overt Subject

The sequential converb is constrained by a specific type of grammatical relation. Unlike other languages (such as Maithili, Hindi, etc.), this language overtly allows subjects without enforcing any case demotion rule. Both nominative and ergative are fine in a converb clause.

16) \[\text{tui akhni nai-aai-ku haamr o kaam-ai nai-hokhi-s} \]

\[\text{you SG NOM now neg-come-CONV 1 PL GEN work, N-EMPH neg-be-PST} \]

\[3SG]\n
Unless you come now, our work won’t go on.’

17) \[\text{tui baaji-ku tani oi yi kaam kari-lak} \]

\[\text{2 SG NH NOM tell-CONV only 3 SG ERG this work, N do-PST 3 SG M} \]

‘He/She did this work only because you told him/her.’

Thus, converb clauses in Danuwar, like other types of non-finite clauses, are not sensitive to any grammatical notion at all. However, it must be mentioned that certain lexically specified expressions such as time/weather expressions where subject identity constraint is violated:

18) \[\text{ghar-i-k chaano khasi-ku dui beTyak-lok mari-la} \]

\[\text{house-GEN roof fall-CONV two son-PL die-PST 3 PL} \]

‘Having collapsed the roof of the house, two sons died.’

It is, however, to be noted that lexical subjects occur only in such converbal clauses which express cause and effect relation, temporal clauses and the clauses with opposite verbs. They are banned from sequential converbal clauses.

4. Conclusion

To sum up, the converbal constructions in Danuwar language tend to have the same subject as their main clause. In addition to this
referential coherence, they also have temporal coherence with their main clauses; i.e. they tend to exhibit a rigid temporal-aspectual relation vis-à-vis their main clauses.

**Abbreviations**

1: first person \( m \): Masculine  
2: second person \( n \): noun  
3: third person \( neg \): negative  
abs: Absolutive \( nh \): non-honorific  
conv: converb \( nom \): nominative  
dat: dative \( np \): noun phrase  
emph; emphatic \( npst \): non-past  
erg : Ergative \( pl \): plural  
f : feminine \( pst \): past tense  
gen: genitive \( sg \): singular  
loc: locative \( vp \): verb phrase

**References**

Enhancing the Nonverbal Communication to develop the Social Skills

Shahul Hameed Vahid
Jubail Industrial College, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Nonverbal communication has received much attention in the areas of business presentation, sales and marketing, and the development of social skills. Little attention, however, has been given to its importance in general communication despite major differences in cultural use and interpretation of body language, expression, personal space and other nonverbal tools.

It is estimated that less than ten percent of interpersonal communication involves words, the remainder being made up of voice tone, sounds and a variety of devices such as kinetics (movement), haptics (touch), oculesics (eye-contact), proxemics (space) and chronemics (time) as well as posture, sound symbols and silence, which either replace or accompany words. Different studies have identified a wide variety of types of nonverbal communication. The following is a relatively simple classification:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinesics</th>
<th>body motions (blushes, shrugs, eye movement, foot-tapping, drumming fingers)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proxemis</td>
<td>spatial separation (in relation both the social and physical environment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haptics</td>
<td>Touch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oculesics</td>
<td>eye contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronemics</td>
<td>use of time, waiting, pausing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olfactics</td>
<td>Smell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocalics</td>
<td>tone of voice, timbre, volume, speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound Symbols</td>
<td>grunting, mmm, er, ah, uh-huh, mumbling,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is often assumed that nonverbal communication is a transferable skill. However, there are two major problematic factors:

Firstly that, like speech, it has both form and function, and,
Secondly, that it is not always directly translatable.

It is the first of these factors which makes nonverbal communication difficult to teach, and the second which leads to breakdowns and misunderstandings in intercultural communication.

Gestures, expressions and all other forms of nonverbal communication have functions, which, as with language, need to be taught along with their forms. In the same way as language items, some paralinguistic expressions have several functions, while nonverbal communication in general performs the three basic functions of managing identity, defining relationships, and conveying attitudes and feelings (but not ideas):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Main Function (in some cultures)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Silence</td>
<td>absence of sound (muteness, stillness, secrecy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adornment</td>
<td>clothing, jewellery, hairstyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posture</td>
<td>position of the body (characteristic or assumed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locomotion</td>
<td>walking, running, staggering, limping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>frowns, grimaces, smirks, smiles, pouting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Silence
- absence of sound (muteness, stillness, secrecy)

Adornment
- clothing, jewellery, hairstyle

Posture
- position of the body (characteristic or assumed)

Locomotion
- walking, running, staggering, limping

Expression
- frowns, grimaces, smirks, smiles, pouting

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Hand-shake | Socializing
---|---
Touching, kissing | Arousal
Over-adornment | Boasting

Misunderstandings occur because the functions of paralinguistic forms vary from culture to culture, although there are some universal nonverbal such as smiles, laughter and sour expressions.

There are also differences according to gender and age. Nonverbal communication tends to be relatively ambiguous and open to interpretation while its influence often depends on the nature of the 'listener', particularly when it is unclear whether the messages conveyed are deliberate or unconscious.

Nonverbal indicators are most common in poly chronic cultures, in which an individual often performs several tasks simultaneously. The following are examples of common gestures which have different functions and meanings in different cultures:

| Perfect | Thumbs up | Stop | The 'Hic'
|---|---|---|---
| Commonly - everything's all right, perfect | Commonly - all OK, Australia, Iran, rural Nigeria - very offensive | Commonly - stop, enough (passion, cut, action) | Turkey - You get nothing from me, W. Africa - You have 3 errors!
| France - wonderful | Japan - sorry | Turkey - You get nothing from me, W. Africa - You have 3 errors! | Turkey, Greece, Turkey, Holland - obscures, Haiti, you can't have it, short - good luck

Nonverbal and verbal communication are normally inseparable, which, for example, is why it may seem so difficult to use the telephone in a foreign language. It needs to be taught and practiced situationally, in the right contexts, and with plenty of cultural input and awareness. Given its importance, there is a singular lack of material for the teacher which focuses on this aspect of communication, but here are a few techniques:
Learners discuss the meaning of gestures and expressions (either demonstrated by the teacher, from pictures, or from existing published materials. This is particularly effective with multilingual classes.

Learners watch a video clip without sound, then discuss and write the dialogue.

Learners act out a dialogue using gesture and expression only:

A: Excuse me. Can you take a book of me?
B: Yeah, sure.
A: Just open that button.
B: Er, which one?
A: The one on the top.
B: Fine, the book is here.
A: Thanks.
B: Not at all.

Learners, in pairs, take turns in listening to each other for 30 seconds, using only nonverbal responses.

Nonverbal communication has implications for the teacher as well as the learner. It is often said that one can always recognize a language teacher by their use of gesture in normal conversation, while it is certainly true that a system of gestures has evolved which allows a teacher to perform aspects of classroom management quickly, quietly and efficiently. Gestures for ‘work in pairs’, ‘open your books’, ‘listen’ and ‘write’ are universal, while individual teachers have developed nonverbal repertoires involving the use of fingers to represent words, expressions to denote approval/disapproval and gestures to indicate time, tense and other linguistic features, and hence systems for instruction, correction and management which well-trained learners respond to immediately.

The effective use of nonverbal cues assists in a wide range of classroom practices by adding an extra dimension to the language:

- reducing unnecessary teacher talking time
- increasing learner participation
confidence building
reducing fear of silence
clear instructions
efficient classroom management
classroom atmosphere
improving listening skills
improving performance in pair and group activities
self and peer correction
avoiding misunderstandings
improving intercultural competence

Teachers, however, should always remember that the meanings of gestures and other nonverbal cues need to be taught in the same way as the meaning of essential classroom language. Make sure that the learners understand our codes, and teach them to use them themselves.

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Enhancing Listening Skill: Fruitful Solution for the Better Employability

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Introduction

The process of communication cannot be effective without listening. Listening is probably the most difficult task for almost all learners of English as a second language. There is a real distinction between merely hearing the words and listening for the message. When we hear we need not grasp the meaning of the utterance. But when we listen effectively we understand what the person is thinking and/or feeling from the other person's own perspective. It is as if we are standing in the other person's shoes. Listening skill involves proper encoding and decoding. We need to identify the hurdles to the effective listening.

If an individual is not able to listen, the listener may have the following hurdles:

3 Audibility of the speaker may be too low
3 The speaker may provide unnecessary details making message too complex
3 Expressing incongruity
3 Lack of interest in the part of the listener
3 Prejudgments

Apart from these hurdles, the student may possess language based difficulties. Listening effectively is difficult because people vary in their communication skills and in how clearly they express themselves, and often has different needs, wants and purposes for interacting. The different types of interaction or levels of communication also add to the difficulty. The four different types or levels are:

F clichés
F facts
F thoughts and beliefs

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Which activity involves the most amount of listening? Students spend 20 percent of all school related hours just listening. If television watching and one-half of conversations are included, students spend approximately 50 percent of their waking hours just listening. For those hours spent in the classroom, the amount of listening time can be elevated to almost 100 percent. If we review our own activities, especially those related to our college experience, are most of our activities focused around listening, especially in the classroom? We can find only negative answers.

The students don't have the patience to listen. Good listening is built on three basic skills: attitude, attention, and adjustment. These skills are known collectively as Triple-A listening.

Listening is a very important skill, especially for students. Many students tend to think about something during a lecture session. This defeats the purpose of teaching, which is not allowing the students to learn by discussion. So turning the session into activity based lecture may attract students to actively listen while performing this task. Gradually we can encourage the students to become active learners.

On the other hand, teachers conferring full attention to all the students are sometimes difficult because we start to run out of time, or we may find ourselves thinking about our next activity, however, the time we spend actively listening to our student will result in a quality teaching session.

Also the teacher is expected to create awareness among the learners about the listening activity by not only giving theoretical aspects but also practical evidences to comprehend to the listeners to make them good listeners.

1. Motivating them not to criticize any speaker
2. Avoid finding fault with the speakers’ speech
3. How to make ourselves be not distracted
4. How to avoid the fake attention
Apart from giving instructions to improve the listening skill and guiding them with very good listening task may equip the students to improve the communication skills. The following are the examples to enhance the students’ communication skill; also these will augment the teaching process.

**Activity: Story Telling**

This is a very interesting task. If that class is the very first class for the teacher, the teacher should initiate the task. Duration for this task is 15 minutes. The teacher can say the story with some ethical / moral values. Also that story should have many characters. Then allowing students to discuss or review about the story for 5 minutes. After 5 minutes the teacher should ask the individual student to repeat the story, to say the theme of the story along with the title.

At the end of the class, the teacher should interact with the students by means of listening to their views and allowing one student to consolidate the task.

Outcome of the activity: This activity will stimulate the listening skill and also interpersonal skills among the students.

**Activity: Watching News**

Sitting in front of the TV is an all too common occurrence. This activity makes the most of that time spent sharpening listening skills. This activity will develop Listening, language and thinking skills. The teacher may ask the students to watch the particular day news in CNN, BBC, NDTV also in other Tamil news channels’ English News. The aim of this activity is to understand the use of language in various TV channels. Very next day the students are asked to compare the news what is broadcasted in each TV, the way they have exposed the particular issue. This kind of activity simulates self motivation also to stimulate the interest about the language use.

**Activity: Ad Zap**

Watching advertisement in the television is an interesting task. But reproducing the advertisement is very difficult. This is the one of the task which stimulates personal interest as well as creative
thinking skills.

In the class room set up the advertisement video file without audio should be shown to the students. Allowing them to listen and discuss for 10 minutes. Then the teacher should name a new product and ask the students to sell it by preparing their own effective advertisement. For Example: How to sell the break less Car.

Outcome of the activity: This activity develops the individuals' creative thinking. Also through this kind of advertisement they can learn non-verbal (body language) communication.

Activity: Encoring

Allow the student to describe his/ her own experience about the industrial visit. Permit the student to complete their details and their thought. Then ask other students to form a response. At the Same time ask the student to wait for a moment before he/she begins to reply.

This gives the other person a chance to add something else more than, they may have thought of. By waiting an additional moment before she/he replies, also let the other person know they have been heard completely.

If we practice this during the class hours the students will relax when conversing with us because they will know that they don't have to rush to get/ give their opinions. They will appreciate the fact that they can communicate with us and be heard.

Points to consider while conducting this activity: When we practice this with the students, we take it one step further and repeat back what they said, like "what I heard you say is you are uncomfortable..." By doing this we bestow the other person the opportunity to correct any misconceptions in what they have occurred or to clarify any point they were trying to make.

Through this activity the person to whom we are communicating with, will certainly feel respected and importance is given.

The technique of repeating back for clarity had been extremely
useful when I have had conversations with I year B.E Students.

**Activity: Mimeograph**

This is the exercise we’re doing often in our classrooms to understand the art of listening. Our class strength is 30. Duration is 50 minutes. I call only 10 students 5 from girls side and 5 from boys side. For those 10 students I’ll give the instruction about the activity in front of all other 20 students.

To conduct this activity I’ll ask 9 students to stand outside the classroom. I call one boy out of the ten and give 3 minutes narration about some imaginative topic/ incident. The student is expected to listen to the narration, and then the student is asked to give the same information to other boy. He may reproduce the information in front of the class not exactly what I said but he may transfer the content. The same way I ask the other boy to transfer to the next student. The process continues up to the tenth student. Here I could see that the gist is passed on.

Out come of this activity is

1. The student may understand how to listen
2. How to reproduce the details what he heard / listened.

Here the role of the teacher is to explain the concepts behind this activity.

**Activity: Bilingual Testing**

To do this task, the class should be divided into groups. In our classroom set up it is only 30. So each group may consist of 15 students. I name the groups as A and B. This classification is based on 1st language and second language priority. The group A is who learned through English Medium, group B other regional medium. (Tamil / Telugu)

Now I explain an interesting topic or story to the A group through regional language (Tamil or Telugu) and ask the students to present the same topic in oral as well as written form in English.

The same way group B will be given story or any interesting topic
through English and the students are asked to present the same topic in oral as well as written form in the first language.

Through this bilingual testing we can improve the language skills, also this activity will provide the platform for the students who are not able to interact with others to interact with the teacher as well as group members.

Activity: Picture Matching

To conduct this task the class should be divided into 3 groups, each group with 10 members. One packet of picture (10 nos) will be given to each team. There will be a related picture in each group packet. Based on the picture, again they have to make the group. They should organize the entire picture. Based on the picture organization each member in the group is expected to give a talk. Example the collection of picture may be related to: Child Labour, Technology Development etc.,

Activity: Mute Video File

This is a very interesting and creative thinking listening activity. To do this task, the class should be divided into 5 groups with 6 members in the team. Duration for this task is 20 minutes. I’ll play video file without audio. The students apprehend to listen the video. They are allowed to discuss about the video content for 5 minutes. Then I call the team leader to give the gist of the video play. The other members in the team are also instructed to participate by conferring caption for that play and supportive details for their team leader.

Finally I acquiesce the students to listen to the audio; this activity stimulates the assuming, guessing and creative thinking skills among the students.

Conclusion

Any activity needs some kind of listening, observing and as well understanding. These three activities suggested above will develop the creative thinking. So the Thinking process is the parallel part which progresses when we are listening. Through this article I try to
prove how the listening skill is most important in the job seeking
scenario as always the best listener is the best performer. Keeping
the importance of job seeking in our mind, we're trying our best to
produce good listeners in our class room environment. These basic
tips and activities helped in the students' placement, this we realized
through the students' testimony.

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San Luis Obispo.
Gender Representation in Tamil Morphology

S. Vanitha
CAS in Linguistics, Annamalai University

Morphology

According to the traditional grammarians and also linguists, morphology is the level of grammar at which recurring units of sound are paired with meaning. The meanings of the word is Tamil like maN ‘mud’ and kaN ‘eye’ do not derive from the sounds they contain, but from a conventional association of meaning with a combination of sounds. Some such combinations constitute entire words, as in these examples, while some other combinations do not. The bound forms –kaL, -ay, -aal, -ukku, for example, all have their own meanings. They must, however, affix to noun stem in Tamil kaNkaL ‘eyes’, kaNNai ‘eye’ (acc), kaNNaal ‘eye’ (inst), kaNNukku ‘eye’ (dat) and they in some sense, modify the basic meanings of these stem. The basic invisible combinations of form (sound) and meaning in a language are referred to morphemes.

Lexical morphemes are content forms like kaN ‘eye’, maram ‘tree’ and they only need to be used if one wants to speak about kaNkaL ‘eye-plural’ or marattai ‘tree-acc.’. Grammatical morphemes or bound morphemes in contrast have very abstract meanings that can be combined in a rule governed way with many different morphemes; hence they turn up more or less regardless of the topic. For example, the suffix –kaL can be used with any noun stem to signal the plural. Grammatical morphemes are ubiquitous and more productive, hence, fundamental to the language. Speakers of the language are constrained to use many of these morphemes over and over, and some of the distinctions signaled by grammatical morphemes are required.

Aim

To explain the Gender Representation in Tamil nouns and verbs, by using Linguistics Methodology.
Gender Represented in Tamil Noun Morphology

Gender in noun morphology can be classified on the basis of two factors. The forms thus classified are the following.
(i) Selection forms / Inherent forms
(ii) Derivational forms

Selection / Inherent form

Some of the Masculine and Feminine forms are inherent forms, since no overt morpheme representing gender are found in those forms.

Examples:

Common nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>paiyan ‘boy’</td>
<td>ciRumi ‘small girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciRuvan ‘small boy’</td>
<td>maanavi ‘student (female)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maanaavan ‘student (male)’</td>
<td>aaciriyai ‘teacher (female)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aaciriyar ‘teacher (male)’</td>
<td>vaNNaatti ‘dhobi (female)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alakan ‘handsome person (male)’</td>
<td>alaki ‘beautiful girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aRiñan ‘scholar (male)’</td>
<td>peN ‘girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaviñan ‘poet (male)’</td>
<td>pacu ‘cow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aaN ‘male’</td>
<td>kooji ‘hen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talaiVan ‘hero / head’</td>
<td>matkai ‘young girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paaTakan ‘singer (male)’</td>
<td>maatu ‘woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vaNNaan ‘dhobi (male)’</td>
<td>vitavai ‘widow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaaLai ‘bull’</td>
<td>araci ‘king’s wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceeval ‘rooster; cock’</td>
<td>iLavaraci ‘princess’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arasan ‘king’</td>
<td>toolji ‘friend (female)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iLavarasan ‘prince’</td>
<td>naTikai ‘actress’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naTikan ‘actor’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooljan / naNpan ‘friend (male)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Kinship terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>appaa ‘father’</td>
<td>ammaa ‘mother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aNNan ‘brother (elder)’</td>
<td>akkaa ‘sister (elder)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tampi ‘brother(younger)’</td>
<td>taékai ‘sister (younger)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maamaa ‘uncle’</td>
<td>maami/attai ‘aunt’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>periyappaa ‘father’s (elder brother)’</td>
<td>periyammaa ‘mother’s (elder sister)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cittappaa ‘father’s (younger brother)’</td>
<td>citti/cinnammaa ‘mother’s (younger sister)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taattaa ‘grandfather’</td>
<td>paaTTi ‘grandmother’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gender Represented in Tamil Verb Morphology

In Tamil, the finite verbs (tensed) change according to gender distinctions of the subject noun. If the noun is masculine, the verb which co-occurs with noun changes in accordance with the noun.

1. aval iru kulantakaLaip pëRRaal .
   ‘She delivered two babies’.
2. avan vayalil eer ulütaan.
   ‘He ploughed the field’.
3. leela necRRu pushpavatiyaamaal.
   ‘Leela attained puberty yesterday’.
4. paRavaikaL paRakkinRana.
   ‘Birds fly’.
5. kamala na:RRu naTukiRaal.
   ‘Kamala transplants the seedling’.

There are however a limited number of ‘verbs’ which because of their habitual collection with nouns one classify them as a ‘Feminine verb’ or ‘Masculine verb’

This situation arises when the context is hampered around reproduction. It is not justified by saying that...
1. *kannan oru kuljantaiyarp peRRaan.
   ‘Kannan delivered a child’.

2. *kumar pushpavati aanaan.
   ‘Kumar attained puberty’.

Here, the gender is marked, as is the case of *peru ‘deliver’ and *ulu ‘plough’ are used in a restricted context as a feminine and masculine verbs respectively.

The various verb forms and their classification manifested in the use of gender and the usage of Tense, Person, Gender and Number (PNG marker)

Tamil verbs are generally conjugated by adding the required tense marker with the PNG marker to the root. There are some irregular verbs like non-finite and some finite verbs such as imperative, Appellative etc which do not show the gender distinction.

The PNG suffixes -aan ‘masculine third person singular’, -aal ‘feminine third person singular’ and -atu ‘neuter third person singular’ and -aar ‘third person singular for common gender’ are ended the finite verbs in Tamil. The first and second persons do not have the gender distinction.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>paTitaan ‘studied (he)’</td>
<td>paTitaal ‘studied (she)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naTantaan ‘walked (he)’</td>
<td>naTantaal ‘walked (she)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koTitaan ‘gave (he)’</td>
<td>koTitaal ‘gave (she)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th>Common</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>naTantaan ‘walked (they non - human)’</td>
<td>naTantaar ‘walked (he /she)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuTittana ‘drank (they non - human)’</td>
<td>kuTittinar ‘drank (he /she)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuTittatu ‘drank (it)’</td>
<td>ooTinar ‘ran (he / she)’ etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ooTina, ‘ran (they non - human)’</td>
<td>ooTiyatu ‘ran (it)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Gender in Tamil Grammar

There are some grammatical morphemes having as their content. And one of the most obvious ways in which language can reinforce gender is by requiring the use of gender morphology. The gender of various people involved in an utterance. In Tamil, noun and verb morphology have explicit gender content. It has separate pronominal and verbs forms in personal pronouns depending on whether a human addressee or subject is male or female:

- vanteen ‘came (I)’
- vantoom ‘came (we)’
- vantaay ‘came (you - singular non-hon.)’
- vantiir ‘came (you - singular hon.)’
- vantiirkal ‘came (you - plural / hon. singular)’
- vantaan ‘came (he)’
- vantaAL ‘came (she)’
- vantu ‘came (it)’
- vantan ‘came (they non-humans)’

In using third person singular pronouns only to refer to a specific person, Tamil forces the speaker to index the referent’s sex: to say “someone called but he did not leave his name” is to ascribe male sex to the caller.

Linguists talk about grammatical gender when a language has noun classes that are relevant for certain kinds of agreement patterns. For example,

In Tamil and other Dravidian languages, the forms of plural suffixes are described by the gender classes. The noun is modified by the form of adjectives and also the noun is an antecedent which the form of pronoun. According to general principles the noun classes have to do with their properties like shape and intimacy but not like sex. In fact, grammatical gender has nothing at all to do with social gender in some Dravidian languages.

Lexicon

Lexicon is a repository of cultural preoccupations. It is as a result the link between gender and the lexicon is deep and extensive. The
Lexicon is also the most changeable part of language. It is an important site for bringing in new ideas. Because lexical items have content in different domains, different language users have access to somewhat different lexicon: Linguists have their specialized terminology and other professionalisms have theirs. The gendered division of labor is likely to produce gendered patterns in the precise lexical inventories speakers can access.

Grammatical morphemes like pronouns are more stable than lexical nouns and verbs. They come and go only gradually. The traces in a grammar of gender may reflect more the preoccupations of earlier eras than they do the culture of those currently using a particular language. Marks of gender in the lexicon are often more complex and multilayered than those found in gender morphology. The linguistic resources seem to come ready-made. Like gender however, they all have a history. Resources we deploy come to be embedded in language through use. In Tamil, we have masculine generics, pairs of words that reflect the social asymmetry of male and female. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>naTikan ‘actor’</td>
<td>naTikai ‘actress’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciRuvan ‘boy’</td>
<td>ciRumi ‘girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paaTakan ‘singer (male)’</td>
<td>paaTaki ‘singer (female)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kataanaayakan ‘hero’</td>
<td>kataanaayaki ‘heroine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanavan ‘husband’</td>
<td>manaivi ‘wife’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

1. The differences among social dialects identified in this attempt are quantitative and not qualitative. Thus, variants are not usually associated exclusively with one group or another; all speakers tend to make use of the same linguistic features to a greater or lesser degree.

2. Differences between men and women are not equal though the social hierarchy have been noticed. Thus, women may be using linguistic means as a way to achieve status denied to them through other outlets. Since women have long been denied equality with
men as far as educational and employment opportunities are concerned, these are not reliable indicators of a woman’s status or the status she aspires to. Although the marketplace establishes the value of men in economic terms, the only kind of capital a woman can accumulate is symbolic. She can be a “good” housewife, a “good” mother, a “good” wife, and so on, with respect to the community’s norms and stereotypes for appropriate female behavior.

In this sense, the use of the standard might be seen as yet another reflection of women’s powerlessness in the public sphere.

References