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Autobiography and Biography in Indian Writing in English

Autobiographies and Biographies occupy an important place in Indian Writing in English for various reasons. Indian leaders communicated their worldviews to Indian people using this genre. Gandhi's *The Story of My Experiments with Truth* is an excellent example. *My Truth* by Indira Gandhi is yet another example of communicating the message of an individual to a larger world. *Jivansmriti* (Reminiscences) of Rabindranath Tagore narrates his early years of life, while in *Toward Freedom: the Autobiography of Jawaharlal Nehru* Nehru writes to his "own countrymen and women." Nirad C. Chaudhuri's *The Autobiography of an Unknown Indian*, published in 1951, stands apart as a great master-piece, combining personal life experiences with a strong motivated worldview ("the conditions in which an Indian grew to manhood in the early decades of this century" [20th century].

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Invitation to Scholars from South Asia

As we share a common heritage in many respects, Language in India www.languageinindia.com invites scholars from South Asian nations to contribute their papers with focus on important autobiographies and biographies in all of South Asia. Please avoid polemics and let us join together to build a better understanding of our heritage through the authors of autobiographies and the biographies of eminent people.

Rationale and Justification for Writing Autobiography

The leaders have also debated on the need or otherwise for writing such works.

Jawaharlal Nehru writes in his *Autobiography*: "… this account is wholly one-sided and, inevitably, egotistical; many important happenings have been completely ignored and many important persons, who shaped events, have hardly been mentioned. In a real survey of past events this would have been inexcusable, but a personal account can claim this indulgence."

Gandhi justified writing an autobiography with these words:

> But a God-fearing friend had his doubts, which he shared with me on my day of silence. 'What has set you on this adventure? he asked. 'Writing an autobiography is a practice peculiar to the West. I know of nobody in the East having written one, except amongst those who have come under Western influence. And what will you write? Supposing you reject tomorrow the things you hold as principles today, or supposing you revise in the future your plans of today, is it not likely that the men who shape their conduct on the authority of your word, spoken or written, may be misled. Don't you think it would be better not to write anything like an autobiography, at any rate just yet?'

> This argument had some effect on me. But it is not my purpose to attempt a real autobiography. I simply want to tell the story of my numerous experiments with truth, and as my life consists of nothing but those experiments, it is true that the story will take the shape of an autobiography. But I shall not mind, if every page of it speaks only of my experiments. I believe, or at any rate flatter myself with the belief, that a connected account of all these experiments will not be without benefit to the reader.

Language Medium for Major Autobiographies and Biographies

Indira Gandhi's work is a compilation of her writings in a manner that the book has an autobiographical format. Nehru wrote his*Autobiography* in English. Gandhi and Tagore wrote their autobiographies first in their mother tongues (Gujarati and Bengali respectively) and then

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they sort of translated or recreated their works in English. Nirad Chaudhuri wrote his celebrated work in English.

Biographies in Indian Writing in English

There are many biographies written by Indian authors. These biographies cover many personalities from every field: politics, science, sports, cinema, drama, religion, literature, etc. Indeed, biography writing is a very popular pursuit among Indian writers in English and other Indian languages. Sahitya Akademi has brought out a number of biographies of varied quality.

Controversial Nature of Biographies and Autobiographies

Both biographies and autobiographies may raise controversies of various types: political, social, familial, regional, religious, etc.

A recent biography-like book on Muhammad Ali Jinnah by Jaswant Singh (*Jinnah: India-Partition-Independence*) raised a hue and cry among Jaswant Singh's own party members. Earlier in recent times, actor Om Puri's biography *Unusual Hero* by his wife created strong and deep controversies. Such controversies arise out of revelations in public of private personal acts and thoughts that may involve others and thus hurt the feelings, careers and interests of people referred to. It looks like that the biographer or the autobiographer never asks the permission of others to narrate the incidents which involve these "friends", etc.!

Autobiography and Biography versus Fiction Writing

Writing an autobiography or biography is quite different from writing a novel or short story or any type of material that aims at catering to the literary sensibility of its readers. Facts and the related, relevant and appropriate interpretation of facts and events become the hallmark of autobiography and biography, in some sense.

Narration is usually straightforward following the course of events and implications presented in these works. Authors of fiction have greater freedom and employ many techniques of presentation in their narratives. Hidden and explicit metaphors, lack of any explicit didactic conversations, creating curiosity to look forward to the next event, conflict, confrontation, resolution, etc., play an important role here. Characterization and characters follow a different course in fiction than in autobiography or biography. Actually, most events narrated in biographies and even autobiographies are already public knowledge. On the other hand, fiction offers a progressive revelation of unknown events, etc.

In what way does a first-person narrative fiction differ from an autobiography?

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However, autobiographies and biographies have their own aspects difficult to master. Even the authors of these works are burdened with the responsibility of ensuring that the readers are with them and are comfortable with the journey they choose to undertake with the authors.

The Goal of This Special Volume

The goal of this Special Volume is to make a survey of some of the major autobiographies and biographies written in English in India and other South Asian countries, by Indians and other South Asian authors. It is assumed that these authors, like Nirad C. Chaudhuri, are products of a system that taught and nourished Indian Writing in English through the teaching of English by Indian and other South Asian teachers. They may have been greatly influenced by their education and living abroad, but their language is, for its better part, derived from Indian Speaking and Writing in English. Their world is typically India and South Asia.

What Is Expected from Contributors?

1. Choose an autobiography or biography.

2. Describe the content briefly.

3. Focus on the structure of the chosen autobiography or biography: introduction, chapterization, language and style, narrative techniques, idioms and metaphors, their justification for writing the autobiography or biography and how this justification is revealed in their works, clarity of language and thought, effect on readers, readability of the text, gaps in information, gaffes, etc. This is only suggestive of what you can do. You need to be creative and imaginative to work on your plan of research, description, analysis and interpretation, conclusion, etc.

4. You may also make a comparative or contrastive study of two or more autobiographies or biographies available in Indian Writing in English and in other Indian languages.

5. All quotes should be properly cited following either MLA or APA format. All sources should be acknowledged where these are used in the text of your paper. No bibliography is to be added. You need to have only a list of references. Your paper should be predominantly your own work, not a compilation of comments, etc., from other sources. You need to read the autobiography or biography in great detail and write your paper with adequate understanding.

6. It is tentatively proposed to publish this special volume in the April or May 2011 issue of Language in India www.languageinindia.com. A formatting fee of Indian rupees 500 is payable to Language in India www.languageinindia.com by the author/s for every paper accepted and published.

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Please write to the editors of this special volume for any clarification you need. You may also write to M. S. Thirumalai, Managing Editor, Language in India www.languageinindia.com, languageinindiaUSA@gmail.com.

With best wishes

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Call for Papers for a Special Volume on
Indian Writing in English – Analysis of Select Novels of 2009-2010

Editor of this Special Volume
G. Baskaran, Ph.D.

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The Hindu Best Fiction Award 2010 for Indian Writing in English was announced on November 1, 2010. The Jury shortlisted 11 novels from out of 75 entries received for this competition. Publishers were eligible to send books published between June 2009 and June 2010 for the competition. The jury for the competition comprised Shashi Deshpande, novelist; Mukul Kesavan, author and essayist; Brinda Bose, academic and critic; and Jai Arjun Singh, literary critic. It is reported that "the shortlist was finalised by a panel of Chennai-based judges comprising Shreekumar Varma, novelist; K. Srilata, poet-academic; Parvathi Nayar, artist-critic; and Ranvir Shah, founder of the Prakiriti Foundation."

The shortlist includes the following novels, quoting from http://www.hindu.com/2010/10/30/stories/2010103054591700.htm (The serial number , bold and italics for the titles are added by me. The number given by me does not reflect any ranking order. – G. Baskaran).

1. Tabish Khair is Associate Professor in the Department of English, University of Aarhus in Denmark. His book *The Thing About Thugs* is vying for the title. Mr. Khair's best known works include Babu Fictions (2001), The Bus Stopped (2004),

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which was shortlisted for the Encore Award (U.K.) and the poetry collection Where Parallel Lines Meet.

2. Poet, novelist and literary critic Anjum Hasan is shortlisted for *Neti, Neti*. Her other books are Lunatic in my Head (2007), a book of poems Street on the Hill (2006). Ms. Hasan is the Books Editor, The Caravan.

3. Kalpana Swaminathan, shortlisted for *Venus Crossing*, is a surgeon and writer. Apart from books in her own name, she shares the pseudonym Kalpish Ratna with Ishrat Syed.

4. Palash Krishna Mehrotra is a contributing editor at Rolling Stone and writes a regular column for Mail Today. *Eunuch Park* is his first short story collection and he resides in Dehradun.

5. Upamanyu Chatterjee, shortlisted for *Way to Go*, is an author and an IAS officer. His published works include short stories and the novels English, August: An Indian Story (1988), The Last Burden (1993), The Mammaries of the Welfare State (2000) which won the Sahitya Akademi Award for writing in English, and Weight Loss (2006).

6. Journalist and author Soumya Bhattacharya is shortlisted for *If I could Tell You*. Her first book was a work of narrative non-fiction called You Must Like Cricket.

7. Manjul Bajaj, shortlisted for Come, *Before Evening Falls*, is a part-time consultant on environment and development issues, a mother and homemaker.

8. Among the authors shortlisted for their debut works are Daisy Hasan for *The To-Let House*, which was longlisted for the Man Asian Literary Prize in 2008. She is from Meghalaya, teaches at the University of Cardiff, Wales and is interested in theatre and video films.

9. Manu Joseph is Deputy Editor of Open magazine and *Serious Men* is his debut novel.

10. Tishani Doshi is a poet, novelist, author, journalist and dancer. She worked with dancer and choreographer Chandralekha until the latter's death in 2006. *The Pleasure Seekers* is her shortlisted book.

11. *Saraswati Park* is Anjali Joseph's first novel. The author studied English at Trinity College, Cambridge and has taught English at the Sorbonne, Paris. More recently Ms. Joseph has been a Commissioning Editor for ELLE (India).

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Of the 11 listed above, the Jury chose the item least described, described in a single line above, for the award: Manu Joseph for his *Serious Men.*

Language in India www.languageinindia.com plans to bring out a volume of analysis of these selected novels, considering them to be possibly the best of the crop for the period between June 2009 and June 2010. A competent set of people filtered out the best from the entries and the Jury selected the best from out of final 11 from their perspective. This provides us with some sense of levels of achievement in Indian Writing in English for the above period, even as these may reflect the ongoing maturation progress in the Indian Writing in English field.

1. The Volume will focus only on the above 11 novels. However, you are free to compare and contrast any of these novels with those published earlier, both in India and abroad.

2. You may choose one of the novels for your analysis. Or you may choose a few for a comparative/contrastive study.

3. Let your focus be on the basic features and their functions of the novels focused in this volume. In particular, you may deal with the plot, structure, narrative techniques, language and style, characterization, story relevance, and so on.

4. Literary analysis is a very wide field, but every analysis must adequately focus on what is found specifically in the object of study. Deriving conclusions should be based on the object studied.

5. Kindly note that the volume is intended to be objective analysis of these novels, not a mere narration of their stories. Unfortunately, often we come across articles which present mostly the story of the novels. If one wants to read the story of a novel, he or she should go to that novel straight. Our focus is objective analysis, not reproduction of the story of these novels.

6. Kindly follow the MLA Style Sheet strictly for citation inside the article and for the list of references at the end. No Bibliography is accepted. Only a section of references in which all the items cited in the body of the article will be presented as per the MLA Style Sheet.

7. Excessive, long and frequent quotes from other sources also amount to plagiarism. So, kindly do your best to paraphrase the ideas you've taken from other sources in your words and still cite the sources adequately.

8. In order to meet partially the cost of formatting, uploading, and maintaining the article in the Internet and for doing repairs when necessary, Language in India www.languageinindia.com charges Indian rupees 500 only per article.

9. Along with your article sent to me as an attachment to your e-mail, you also need to send a declaration of original research and a statement of willingness to pay the formatting fee.

10. You are most welcome to submit more than one article for inclusion in this volume.

11. All articles received for publication will be reviewed to assess their publication worthiness and the author will be informed about its acceptance or otherwise. Authors also may be asked to do necessary revision so that their articles could be reconsidered for publication.

12. Your articles must reach me soon. The original last date was December 15th so that the January issue of Language in India www.languageinindia.com could carry the volume for wide distribution. However, for various reasons, the last date is made flexible now, but articles must reach the special volume editor on or before March 15, 2011.

Kindly note that Language in India www.languageinindia.com is an international online monthly journals, published consistently every month for the last 10 years. It is published from Bloomington, MN, USA. Articles and other items published in Language in India www.languageinindia.com are indexed in 3 major databases: EBSCOHost, ProQuest (Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts) and MLA International Bibliography. It is also reproduced in the Directory of Open Access Journals, from Sweden. Language in India www.languageinindia.com receives over 450,000 visits every month and is accessed in 75 countries. Authors who publish their research in Language in India www.languageinindia.com come from many nations including India, USA, UK, Turkey, Bulgaria, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Indonesia, China, Nigeria, Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Jordan, Malaysia, Singapore, etc.

Please do not hesitate to write to me (rgbaskaran@gmail.com) or the Managing Editor of Language in India www.languageinindia.com (Dr. M. S. Thirumalai, languageinindiaUSA@gmail.com) if you need any further help, clarification and/or information.

With best wishes

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Hoping Against Hope: A Discourse on Perumal Murugan's *Koolla Madari* (*Seasons of the Palm*)

Ms Daisy, M.A., M.Phil. (ELT), Ph.D. Candidate

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Perumal Murugan, author of *Seasons of the Palm*

Translation in India

Translation is commonly defined as "expression of the sense (finding the equivalence) of the word or the text in another language" (Vasanthi, 2007). India has a very long tradition of translation. Major epics composed in Sanskrit have been adapted through translation into other Indian languages throughout the recorded history of Indian languages and cultures.

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This format of translation focused on the content and implications of the Sanskrit texts to communicate the same in other Indian languages. Aesthetic function played a very crucial role in such translations. However, literal translation has not been very popular, as this format of translation is heavily utilized in the translation of scientific texts.

Novels of leading creative writers in Indian languages have always been a popular choice among the translators in Indian languages. Such translation activity was noticed during the British India days as well. However, translation from English into Indian languages became the most dominant process of translation. Southern Languages Book Trust, a joint effort of south Indian states, focused on the translation of works from one south Indian language into another with great success. There were also several monthly magazines which brought out translation of creative literature from one Indian language into another language. For example, *Manjari* in Tamil focused on providing short stories translated from other Indian languages in Tamil to a large audience in Tamilnadu. Kerala's magazines always carried translation of stories from other Indian languages.

Often translation is always treated as a necessary appendage to the source text to establish communication with people who do not know that language. Especially in the multi-lingual country like India, the importance of translation from one language to another and from all regional languages to an international language like English is now well recognized by the government, the educationists and the reputed publishers. Due to such recognition, the translators have started feeling a sense of ownership to the translated text and automatically they take pride in the act of translation.

V. Geetha's Translation of Perumal Murugan's Novel in Tamil
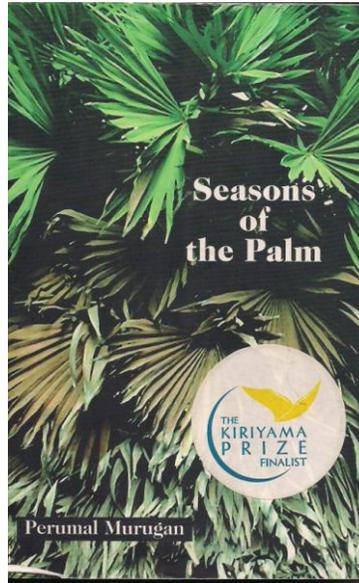
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Among such translators is V. Geetha, whose English translation of Perumal Murugan's *Koolla Madari*, a novel originally written in Tamil, has helped render a not so widely known work of fiction accessible and universal. Titled *Seasons of the Palm* in English, the book is among the top five short listed for the Kiriyama Prize in 2005.

Perumal Murugan's novel projects the relationship between Gounder landlords and their dalit servants. It echoes, as Murugan says in an interview, "the futility, the sadness that follows the inability to escape from *soolal* (circumstances, environment), notwithstanding the many efforts to break free" (Murugan, 2005). Besides portraying the cruelties towards the "untouchable" dalits, the novel projects the dream world of young adolescent boys of the said community who are struggling to hold their existence in a world of brutal injustice.

Perumal Murugan and His Translator V. Geetha

Perumal Murugan is a well known contemporary Tamil writer from Namakkal (Tamilnadu) whose strong work has won great appreciation from critics and readers. A lecturer in Tamil literature, he focuses his writings on life lived in the margins of society, both rural and urban.

Perumal has written 3 novels, a collection of scholarly essays on contemporary Tamil literature, several short stories and poems, and edited a dialect dictionary which won the state award for excellence. Murugan has also bagged the Katha Award for short story.

Seasons of the Palm is his third novel. V. Geetha, the translator of the novel, writes in English and Tamil and translates into and from both languages. Her concerns include Tamil history and culture, caste and gender.

On Defining Dalit Literature

This novel adds another important dimension to the concept of *Dalit literature* in that Dalit literature is not necessarily the compendium of creative works by *Dalit* writers only. Progressive creative literary writing in many Indian languages attracts writers of a variety of communities to focus on the inhuman treatment of the Dalits in Indian society. Some of these writers like Perumal Murugan, however, excel in their narratives by providing authentic descriptions, plots, and stories using the powerful native dialect of Dalit communities. The translator Vimala also becomes an excellent match to the powerful creative writer in her translation.

Seasons of the Palm

Ms Daisy, M.A., M.Phil. (ELT), Ph.D. Candidate
Hoping Against Hope: A Discourse on Perumal Murugan's *Koolla Madari* (*Seasons of the Palm*)

Seasons of the Palm makes a significant contribution to the genre of Dalit literature in Tamil, a literature of protest, resistance and subversion where the author recounts the everyday brutality of caste society in relentless detail. Born into the untouchable class in Southern India, the children work as goat-herds and face heartbreaking hunger and dispossession alongwith the universal difficulties of adolescence.

One of these children is Shortie, a lovingly drawn young-teen protagonist who is in bondage to a paternal yet very strict landlord. Shortie herds his Gounder's goats, works at his home, cleans his cow pen and takes care of all his goats even at night by sleeping at the goat pen amidst the smells of their piss and shit. His life is one of hard physical labour and cruel persecution, and so is his friends'- Belly, Tallfellow, Stonedeaf and Stumpleg.

All these children struggle to keep their fragile happiness when they are together at the palm-dotted pastureland herding the goats of their respective landlords. Their happy moments include sitting together and sharing the 'never enough' stale food given by their masters' families, playing some games together, jumping into the deserted well to wash themselves and the occasional adventures to go in search of something to fill in their empty stomachs.

All this is done keeping an eye on the goats, for God knows which goat trespasses into some other field and which chooses to deliver at that exact moment. If anything happens to a goat, the children get brutal beatings along with some fine from their masters. All these children live a life full of struggle with endless work and never ending abuses.

With lots of physical work and very less to eat, these *chakkili* (untouchable) boys and girls have become experts in finding food from nature. Picking nuts from nearby fields and eggs of some birds in the deserted fields, they somehow fill in their empty stomachs. But, most of the time, it is the palm trees in that pasture land which have something to offer in every season to the poor children like nuts, fruit, root, juice and toddy, etc. What if it is a thorny palm, twin palm or some other, its various offerings in different seasons are a treat for the hungry *chakkili* children who are also experts in climbing trees.

The children of their masters too come and play with the chakkilies but secretly, because nobody from the Gounders' family is allowed to touch any part of these chakkilies.

Selvan, the son of Shortie's landlord not only plays with Shortie but shares his adventures of school with him. He is sent by his father to guard the goat pen at night along with Shortie for a few months. While Selvan tells Shortie about school and movies, Shortie impresses Selvan by his bold demeanor and adventures like picking nuts and toddy from the palm trees. During this period, in spite of all care, they come very close and sleep together in one bed. One night, Selvan even drinks toddy from Shortie's bowl as there is no other cup.

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Instances like this show that the boys have a bond that occasionally cuts across caste inhibitions, but whenever Shortie falls into a trouble because of Selvan, Selvan do not have the guts to save him. The traditional age old gap between the Gounders and Chakkilis does not allow the Gounder's son to come out in support of a Chakkili.

One day Shortie is caught stealing coconuts from the palm of his landlord's enemy. As punishment, Shortie is hanged upside down in the well. The incident has a strong effect on Shortie's mind and he suddenly becomes a quiet person. Everything in the world looks futile to him and he tries to run away from his environment, but ultimately comes back thinking of the fine his parents will have to pay and his little brother who will have to work in his place just as Stonedeaf's little sister Matchbox had to work in her place,

Every dalit (chakkili) child has more or less the same story.

Dalit Intelligence and Wisdom

The word 'dalit' in Sanskrit means 'suppressed' or 'crushed'. The children portrayed in the novel are really so, but it is very interesting to see that their personality changes completely when they are together in the pasture land. They seem very intelligent and sharp when they are away from their masters' grips.

Shortie is a nature lover with such fine sensibilities that he can be called another Wordsworth. Belly's IQ level can be a challenge to so many educated persons. Tallfellow has the guts enough when he refuses to work without payment after his master has beaten him enough. Stonedeaf is beautiful and knows all the work of a gounder household and fulfills the responsibilities better than her mistress. But the same children are helpless against their circumstances.

Due to their caste and their poverty, these boys and girls are doomed to meet the similar drastic fate. Abused every hour, cursed everyday and beaten every second day, they move towards their dark future when they will work in field all day like grown ups. Then, they will not have time enough to get together like this. It's a hopeless world they live in. Still they stay jolly and have the energy to play together and dream the impossible.

The horror and interference in their dreams comes to the fore every second day when something wrong happens and these children prepare themselves to bear the punishment.

The final blow in this hell's image comes in the end when Selvan drowns as a result of his own mischief and Shortie dives into the well and goes deeper and deeper, thinking, "He must go deeper. Further, further than anyone has ever gone. To the end, where there is only thick darkness**"** (319).

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Caste Cruelties

Seasons of the Palm enlightens the reader on many issues. This English translation of a contemporary Tamil classic captures a world that is virtually unknown outside the Tamil village – the layered and complex inner world of dalit 'untouchables', who struggle to hold their own in a context of cruel injustice. Caste, the rigid social system in which a social hierarchy is maintained generation after generation, allows little mobility out of the position to which a person is born.

The Indian caste system is organized into four main groups. There is also a fifth group that is considered to be outside the caste system. The people belonging to this class are literally outcastes. Hinduism, with its central belief in re-birth (or the endless cycle of birth-death-birth, called *samsara*) has scripture that explains how people are born into a certain caste based on the 'karma' they acquired in their previous births. The people born into this strata of society, often into an existence of grinding poverty and limited opportunities, are known by various names including 'untouchables', 'dalits' and chakkilies.

The untouchability feature is one of the cruelest features of the caste system because the persons born in this category of castes have no rights in the larger society outside their caste. One of the vilest social oppressions (it has been recently defined as racist in some International Conferences) in the world, it has been there in the whole Indian society irrespective of the regions. Early South Indian social reformers have passionately recorded and fought against these practices, long before such movements took roots in other regions of the country. The treatment meted out to the untouchables and members of the other lower non-Brahmin Hindu castes included many inhuman acts, such as even the sight of an untouchable or any other lower non-Brahmin caste was sufficient to pollute a member of a higher caste. There, the upper caste person had to pass through some religious ceremonies to purify himself if an untouchable or any other lower non-brahmin caste person touched him or his possessions. Also, they had to wash or clean the places where the untouchable touched and stepped.

Set in the late 1960s, *Seasons of the Palm* is a touching story of the untouchable children in such a village in South India. While things have changed a lot since late 1960s, there are still vestiges of the old practice dominating in areas where the Dalit poverty is extremely pronounced.

The chakkili (untouchable) children depicted in *Seasons of the Palm* are the typical image of untouchables presented above. Quickly forgetting the constant physical and verbal abuse (which is part of their strategy for survival), they suffer poverty, hunger and beatings of their masters believing in the theory of samsara, the cycle of birth-death-rebirth based on their karma. If one of them like Tallfellow, who has to take care of a bed ridden old master, daily emptying his pan of piss and shit, does not want to believe in the

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same, his grandmother is ready to make him believe so, 'Don't feel bad. He's like our god!' (55) Similarly, Belly, the little girl who is very sharp and loves to mimic her mistress when she is with her friends at the pasture land, knows very well about her status in the same mistress's house:

> Belly feels tight and angry inside but knows she cannot, must not talk back. Sometimes though, inside the shed, she buries her face in a calf's downy neck and whispers her anger; or mutters into a buffalo's thick ear. They return her confidences with gentle, calm, sympathetic eyes. (34)

Shortie, a boy with sentiments, loves nature very much. He loves watching the mynahs and they 'remind him of home, in the chakkili quarter – the same loud chatter, the same happiness.' (25) He is generous enough to share his very small tiffin with a stray dog Poochi and does all his jobs very honestly. Like a saint, he lets the credit of (seeing the god Munisami) his dream go to Selvan. Shortie is very small but like an elder in the family, he saves Selvan and the goats when the storm comes. This outcaste is honest enough to hand over his self earned money (by collecting the palm roots) to his master on which the person has no right. But in spite of all these qualities, he meets the same harsh treatment which seems to be the 'be all and end all' of a Chakkili's life.

Beside being Chakkilies, they are *very* poor. And this double trouble makes it a harsh life for these bonded children who have no sympathy from their own drunkard fathers and helpless mothers. Still, these children cultivate among themselves and pluck moments of joyous togetherness while they are out grazing the goats. The innocence and generosity of Shortie, the sauciness of Belly, the boldness of Tallfellow, the leadership of Stumpleg and the beauty of Stonedeaf captures the reader's mind.

Apart from that, the bonds of friendship that occasionally cut across caste inhibitions and the virtue of sharing fostered by sheer instinct, continue to capture the reader's curiosity. The author has expertly piloted the fragile craft of the narrative to safety through the waves of sex and foul-mouthed language that one cannot simply wish away.

Difficult Questions to Answer!

The novel makes the reader once again ponder over the issue of untouchability. For example, how can the cows and goats be touched and looked after by a person while the milk they yield becomes impure by the same person's touch? The lambs are being slaughtered in a ceremony at the grove and the boys who have brought up those lambs are not allowed to enter. How can the lamb who's been brought up by a person be pious and the person an outcaste?

Shortie has brought up Veeran, the sacrificial lamb, even the name Veeran was given by him. Shortie, who is the only human on earth whom Veeran obeys, lets him rest his head

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and sleep on the top of him just before the slaughtering ceremony, is not allowed to see Veeran in his last moments because he is a chakkili and the persons from their community cannot even go near the grove when such a ceremony is going on. No body is worried about the sacredness of the grove when there is no ceremony and 'it was deserted except for the squirrels and the garden lizards that scurred lazily through it. …. Shortie and others loved to play with the bells on the Muni's spears' (222).

And when everybody including the guests have eaten the feast prepared by Veeran's meat, Shortie, for whom meat is the best meal his hungry stomach can have, is human and emotional enough to refuse eating it because he says, 'I don't want to eat Veeran" (234).

Whatever the Hindu scriptures say, the incidents like this should make an upper caste individual hate himself and love this so called 'untouchable' lad. Perhaps the reality is quite different. It is also necessary to do some research as to how the readers from upper caste families view such narratives as Perumal Murugan's *Seasons of the Palm.* Do they derive any aesthetically ennobling feeling from narratives such as *Seasons of the Palm*?

Real Villains of the Story

'Might is right' is an old saying and applies everywhere. Irrespective of the communities, the stronger person punishes the weaker; man tyrannises over woman; but of course the Chakkili being an untouchable caste, they are at the receiving end all the time. This curse of Casteism and the hardy rural life that has too little to give are the real villains depicted in the novel and any sensitive reader can see that. If it is a hard life for the chakkilies, it is definitely not all cream and roses for the rest too. The lives the Gounders lead is also full of hardships.

Some Regional Contrasts and Regional Universals

For a person living in North India, many things of this Tamil novel are new and many are there which he/she can co-relate with his/her region. For example, one may view that the relationship between the landlords and servants in the north is less harsh and the treatment the untouchables get is much less strict. Also the picturesque detail of the palms and their various products in the novel are new and attractive to a North Indian reader. Shortie, the affectionately drawn character, resembles to every Chhotu of roadside 'dhabas' or small restaurants in North India, where no matter what he does, he gets the rebuking from his master. However much the differences are, the people and their attitudes all over India seem to be the same.

The Gounder Master of Shortie is very strict with Shortie when he steals coconuts, because his own father had been very strict with him for the same reason. The Gounder

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tells his wife about the punishment his father gave to him when he had stolen a lime from the market:

> He trussed me up and hung me upside down from the ceiling. And that's not all either. He stood there and burnt dry chilli dust on coals beneath my head. … I yelled and my eyes watered … and all the time I was upside down! My father stood there, feeding the coals with chilli dust and each time I sneezed, he said, 'Will you do it again? Take what is not yours?'. (287)

The incidents like the above and the very strict fathers are common throughout India because they usually punish severely their own children for stealing, just to ensure that they do not lay their hands on things which are not theirs. We need to note that every part of India has the characters like Shortie, his helpless parents, his dominating master and the miser mistress from a variety of castes. And this binds people of India together. Also, the exploitation of the poor and weak untouchables as well as the poor and weak from other castes as well is common throughout the country which makes all the Indians more and more understanding of each other. Surely this bond is strengthened in this country of so many languages and cultures through the translations of the regional texts into English and other languages.

Value of Literary Translation

Literary translation is eminently worthy of celebration. Without it we would be imprisoned in a monocultural world, knowing neither our own heritage nor the heritage of other cultures. Without translation we cannot even understand the cultures of our nearby neighbours let alone the neighbours thousands of miles away.

Ketaki Kushari Dyson firmly believes that "the rich diversity of this human community cannot be appreciated or even understood without the essential tool of translation" (Dyson, 2009). India, which covers a total area of more than three-crore square kilometers and is the seventh largest country in the world, is multilingual and multicultural and thus it is a microcosm of the whole world. Due to this, the role of translation becomes all the more important in the literary life here.

The culture and relationship between the Gounders and Chakkilies of South India becomes recognizable to the rest of the world through *Seasons of the Palm*. It should also be noted that there are poor and weak Gounders as well, who have also been subjected to ill-treatment minus untouchability.

The Writer and the Translator

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According to the translator, the motivation for her to take up this particular work for translation came from the fact that the book was not written by a dalit which conveys something important about the responsibility of the dominant castes in fighting their own proclivity and interest in sustaining untouchability. Both, the author and the translator have proved that it hardly matters whether they themselves are Dalit or not. The author has subsumed the pangs of the marginalised folk in his creative smithy and wrought a sharp, poignant sword.

The novel also touches the heart of every sensitive Indian because chakkilies or not chakkilies, since the poor people as well as the members of the lower castes in Hindu hierarchy are treated in similar ways throughout India. And varying in degrees in various regions, the untouchables have been the subject of worst and vilest abuse and maltreatment all over India.

A Reader's Perspective and Experience

It is the influence of this national aspect that after reading the novel, every small working boy reminds me of Shortie and every group of poor children playing joyously in spite of their torn clothes reminds me of Shortie's group. Not only this, it came as a surprise to even myself when driving through the countryside I saw a herd of goats and I immediately named them as Veeran, Mollachi, Vattalu, Mooli, Vellachi, Soozhiyan and Nedumbi. If the non-speaking animals described in *Seasons of the Palm* can stay in an Indian reader's heart, what to say of the 'touching' untouchables. However, this is where we need a heart large enough to transcend our socio-economic and caste backgrounds and deliberately experience the narrative with sympathy and agony. Unfortunately, the size of the population of readers of this nature is not yet large.

Revisiting Translation and Translators

As for the expanding area of Indian literature in translation, Shortie will not be easily forgotten as he is the very personification of adolescence doubly troubled by untouchability and poverty. Nor Veeran the sacrificial lamb, giving consent to be slaughtered when sprinkled with water for the holy feast.

The *Seasons of the Palm* is neither the first nor the last piece of work in translation. From times immemorial people have retold stories, shifted them from the context of one language and culture to that of another. The age old scriptures like the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* have long back been translated from Sanskrit into other languages of India. If the translator is good enough, he/she becomes a historian, a sociologist, a culture specialist and above all a creative writer. An instinct, which develops through constant use, and a talent, which is initiated through experience serves well in the act of good translation.

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Also, good translation can never be word to word translation. Though there are people who are of the opinion that a source text can be given a faithful reproduction in the new language only when there is word to word translation. It is because they believe that for every word or phrase in the source language there will be an exact equivalent in the target language. To quote Ketaki Kushari Dyson again

> This is an illusion because every language is a world-view, a perspective,
> a way of looking at, classifying and analyzing the world. Each language is
> a window on the world, and no two windows give an identical view.
> (Dyson, 2009)

Superb and Sensible Translation by V. Geetha

That's why V. Geetha has not given word for word translation. She has rendered the novel in the simple present to get over the problem of switching tenses which sounds all right in Tamil but clumsy in English. By turning the past tense of Perumal Murugan to the historical present throughout, she has also made the novel more evocative and dramatic. The agony of the dispossessed children and the ecstasy they pull out from their drab lives have been brought out very well by V. Geetha in her translation that effectively conveys the Tiruchengode dialect peppered with the Telugu of the Chakkilis.

Though it is not a word-for-word translation, Geetha leaves out nothing that is important for the action. To underscore the point how dalit children are not even allowed the dignity of their own names but are called by other cruel names, she translated the names into English. Hence, Shortie, Belly, Tallfellow, Stonedeaf and Stumpleg. Almost immediately we can co-relate them to Chhotu, Petu, Lambu, Behri and Lungra in Hindi. But she has retained the Tamil names for the plants, birds, animals and food wherever commonly English equivalents are not to be found. That's why, corn is there for cholam, but aavaaram (a plant) stays as it is. The palm predominates the landscape of the novel and the writer has lovingly detailed its numerous offerings like nut, fruit, juice and toddy, and hence the English translation is aptly titled *Seasons of the Palm*.

Translators have always played a pivotal role in social and cultural change in society. By translating the Tamil text *Koolla Madari* in English, which presents the relationship between the upper class 'touch me nots' and the 'touching' untouchables, V. Geetha has brought together all the Indians to ponder once again over the age old problem of maltreating the poor community in India because there seems to be no end to it.

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Ghanaian English: Spelling Pronunciation in Focus

Richmond Sadick Ngula, B.A. (Hons), M.Phil.

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Abstract

This paper examines the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation in Ghanaian English and shows that it has become one of the features of pronunciation that have diverged from 'RP' (Received Pronunciation), the standard norm of English language proficiency that is taught to Ghanaians.

The empirical investigation of spelling pronunciation was a selection of 50 words of English based on observation of their use by different groups of educated Ghanaians over the past four years. The selected words were further put to test as readings of the words in sentences by 60 graduate students of the University of Cape Coast were recorded, observed and phonetically transcribed.

The investigation principally shows that the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation has become an unmarked feature in the way educated Ghanaians pronounce words of English. The study further suggests that two important factors account for the vastness of spelling pronunciation in Ghanaian English: the gap between spelling and pronunciation in standard British English, and the influence of L1 languages in Ghana.

The paper concludes that spelling pronunciation has become an innovative feature in Ghanaian English not only because of its widespread nature but also because it satisfies two criteria any New English variety ought to meet – maintains international intelligibility and retains local identities. The study has implications for the description of non-native varieties of English, and the norms to be used in the teaching of English as a second language in Ghana and elsewhere.

Introduction

The growth and spread of English across the world has given recognition to many new varieties of English outside its native environments. Several New Englishes including Ghanaian, Indian, Lankan, Nigerian, Malaysian, just to mention a few are constantly undergoing linguistic change; change that reflects the sociolinguistic and cultural divergences of their respective geographical domains. Kachru (1997: 220/21) establishes that in the contexts of the New Englishes, "the localized norm has a well-established linguistic, literary, and cultural identity."

Thus the new English varieties have evolved into varieties which serve a wide range of purposes, and at the same time, developed their own character (Jenkins, 2003). Hence they differ from the native varieties (typically the two leading standard varieties: British and American).

The main levels on which the differences are encountered are pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary/idiom, and discourse styles. But it seems that the difference is most conspicuous in the area of pronunciation, which according to Jenkins (2000) maintains distinctive features even in educated sub varieties.

The Focus of This Paper

The issue in this paper is to examine the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation in the English of educated Ghanaians, and to describe it as one of the innovative divergent features of pronunciation that are giving Ghanaian English (henceforth, GhE) its own character.

Although spelling pronunciation manifests itself widely among educated Ghanaian users of English, it has received very little attention within the academic community in Ghana and beyond. In fact, studies on the pronunciation of GhE generally are scanty.

The notable research material include Sey's (1973) popular book, *Ghanaian English: An Exploratory Survey*, which treats Ghanaian English pronunciation in the appendix. While Sey identifies features of GhE pronunciation such as RP /ə/ becoming /a/ in GhE; RP/ə:/ being pronounced /ɛ/ in GhE; and RP /i/ being pronounced /i:/ in GhE, he makes mention of the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation very briefly. Sey indicates, for instance, that spelling pronunciation has accounted for pronunciations like

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/abaut/ and /kɔnstabul/ for the words 'about' and 'constable'. Although Sey's (1973) work is recognised as a classic and often cited anytime Ghanaian English is mentioned (Kachru, 1992; Simo Bobda, 2000), his treatment of GhE pronunciation in particular and GhE generally has doubtful validity. He constantly refers to the features of GhE pronunciation, for instance, as errors and deviant usage; meanwhile he begins talking about GhE pronunciation by saying that "the pronunciation of E.G.E. is markedly different from R.P…" (Sey, 1973: 143). It is clear that his work has an error analysis orientation which shows that Sey does not recognise difference and innovativeness in GhE as far his (1973) work is concerned.

Other specific studies on GhE pronunciation like, Gyasi (1991), Owusu-Ansah (1992) Simo Bobda (2000) remain silent on the widespread phenomenon of spelling pronunciation. Adjaye's (2005) book, which is based on her Ph.D. dissertation, however, briefly points out the influence of spelling on GhE pronunciation in an impressive work that describes the pronunciation of English by speakers of Akan (Fante and Twi), Ewe and Ga. While Adjaye's work is admirable for its depth (dealing with not only segmental phonetics and phonology, but also the suprasegmentals of stress and intonation), it only scratches the surface of spelling pronunciation, a very common feature of GhE pronunciation.

We can say therefore that descriptions on GhE pronunciation in general are rare, but even scarcer are studies that describe the very common feature of spelling pronunciation in GhE. Using evidence obtained from educated Ghanaian speakers of English, the present paper argues that spelling pronunciation has become an unmarked and a pervasive feature in GhE. It is argued in this paper that two interlinked factors have promoted spelling pronunciation in GhE: the gap between spelling and pronunciation in standard British English (Henceforth BrE) in which we are confronted with a lack of one to one correspondence between letter and sound, and the existence of L1 languages in Ghana, which invariably exert an influence on the way Ghanaians pronounce English words. We come to the conclusion that spelling pronunciation as an innovative feature in GhE satisfies two important criteria non-native varieties ought to meet: maintaining international intelligibility, and retaining local identities (Bamgbose, 1998).

Spelling Pronunciation

Spelling-pronunciation refers to the pronunciation of a word which is derived from or is influenced by its spelling (Wells, 1982; Matthews, 1997). The converse of spelling-pronunciation is pronunciation spelling, "the creation of a new spelling form on the basis of the pronunciation (Wells, 1982: 109). It is not our purpose to discuss pronunciation spelling in the present paper; hence no more will be said about it here.

An example of spelling pronunciation involves the word 'forehead'; its traditional pronunciation (RP) – [fɒrɪd], has been widely supplanted by the spelling pronunciation [fɔ:hed]. Other interesting examples of this phenomenon are noted by Wells (1982). In a word such as 'tortoise', traditionally articulated with a second syllable /təs/, a new

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pronunciation with […tɔis] (or […tɔiz]) has arisen through the influence of spelling. Similarly, the word 'towards' is experiencing a spelling-based form with /-w-/, which is gradually displacing the older [tɔːdz, tɔrdz].

It is instructive to note that these instances of spelling pronunciation are divergences from Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) by native speakers, an indication that spelling pronunciation is (like in non-native Englishes) characteristic of speakers of standard native varieties of English. Indeed, Wells (1982) observes that there are many words that have undergone this process of spelling pronunciation, and establishes that while in some cases a spelling pronunciation form has replaced a traditional form, in other cases the newer spelling pronunciation is currently in competition with the traditional form.

The fact that spelling pronunciation occurs in the English of both native and non-native speakers raises the issue of the suitability of the native models (RP, GA) as reference points for institutionalised varieties of non-native English. Kachru (1986, 1992) has already argued strongly about the need for non-native speakers of English to avoid aiming at a close approximation of these native varieties, especially RP. He draws our attention to the fact that these documented native models of English "have no authority of codification from a government or a body of scholars as is the case, for example, with Spanish or French" (Kachru, 1992: 49).

Thus since English does not have "an organized agency which undertakes the job of providing direction toward a *standardized* model, and toward controlling *language change"* (Ibid: 49), linguistic etiquette in English should be discussed in culturally specific contexts; thus English in institutionalised contexts, and the changes that occur in such contexts, for example, need to be looked at in terms of their own socio-cultural and linguistic environment.

It is not very much a useful exercise for native models to be the determining factor for "proper" usage by non-native speakers. It is noteworthy that David Abercrombie, a native speaker and an accomplished British phonetician, has shown the confusion RP has caused in England alone. He makes three points that are cited in Kachru (1992: 51); first, that the concept of a standard pronunciation such as RP is "a bad rather than a good thing. It is an anachronism in present day democratic society". Second, it provides an "accent-bar" which does not reflect the social reality of England. And third, RP does not necessarily represent "educated English", for while "those who talk RP can justly consider themselves educated, they are out-numbered these days by the undoubtedly educated people who do not talk RP."

RP and Outer Circle Varieties of English

If we extend Abercrombie's concerns to Outer Circle varieties of English, it would be difficult to justify why RP must continually serve as the norms of correction for these New Englishes. In many cases, it seems that we only pretend to speak RP when, in fact, our natural speech doesn't look anything like it. Owusu-Ansah (1991, 1997), for

instance, has suggested that non-native teachers of English often masquerade as native speakers of English when they are consciously teaching pronunciation to their students, but make a quick switch to their 'normal' localised accent in their day to day use of English outside the classroom.

The innovative features that characterise the pronunciation of non-native Englishes are vast (including, replacement of dental fricatives with stops; substitution of /a/ for /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ʌ/; absence of the schwa /ə/; monophthongization of diphthongs and triphthongs; consonant cluster simplification, to mention only a few) and must be seen as the markers of our sociolinguistic and cultural identities. We must not be quick to condemn them simply because they diverge from a foreign standard, RP. While many prescriptive-minded critics would prefer to see spelling pronunciation in GhE as errors to be eradicated, its presence must be seen within a broader context (Mesthrie, 2004).

The Gap between Letter and Sound in English

Generally speaking, the principle of alphabetic writing is that each letter represents a particular spoken sound (phoneme) of the language. Because of this, many early systems of spelling were based on a one-to-one correspondence between the graphic representation and the spoken language (Crane et al, 1981).

In other words, one and the same sound was always represented by one and the same graphic symbol (letter) and this symbol was invariably pronounced in one way. Crane and others however note that as the pronunciation of many languages underwent important changes over the centuries, the spelling did not always keep the pace with these transformations.

The example of English is most relevant for us here. The gap between the 'standard' pronunciation of words and orthography in modern English is sometimes incredible. Giegerich (1992: 37) observes that "a phoneme may in English spelling be represented by different letters in different words; or a single phoneme may be represented by a sequence of two letters, each of which may elsewhere denote a different phoneme." It may be helpful to give some examples here. The letter *g* is pronounced differently in words like *get* [get], *gem* [ʤem], and *genre* [ʒɑ:n]; in the words *give* [gɪv], *gipsy* [ʤɪpsi] and *gite* [ʒi:t]. Again, the same group of letters – *ch* – is read in three different ways in words like *child* [ʧaɪld], *charade* [ʃərɑ:d] and *character* [kærɪktə]. It is also quite difficult to account for the fact that words like *shy*, *mission*, *friction* and *ocean* use different letters: *sh*, *ss*, *ti*, *ce* to represent one and the same phoneme / ʃ /. Similarly, words like *f*our, *cu**ff**,* lau**gh, ph**armacy and li**eu**tenant use different letters to represent the same phoneme /f/.

Many more examples from English can be found, each one showing that the spelling of English is not suitable for the expression of phonemic distinctions in a clear one-to-one way. This inconsistent relationship between the sounds of words and their spelling has had a great influence on the pronunciation of English words in varieties of

non-native English, especially in institutionalised varieties such as GhE where L1 languages, which learners are first exposed to before coming into contact with English, have quite a different phonological structure.

The L1 Influence

We have seen the vast inconsistency between English orthography and sound. In contrast to this is that most Ghanaian L1 languages, if not all, display a good deal of correspondence between the graphic representation and the spoken language. I provide here some examples from Fante and Hausa for illustration. Most words in these languages are pronounced on the basis of their spelling. The examples from Fante are:

> nsu – water
> papa – father
> ntɛm – haste
> mpa – mat

A similar correspondence is evident, quite clearly, in longer connected speech like the sentence:

> ɔnda – he doesn't sleep.
> yɛnkɔ – let's go.
> miridzidzi – I am eating.

In Hausa, a similar correspondence between letter and sound exists. Consider these examples:

> tafi   – go
> gobe   – tomorrow
> yaro   – child
> kusa   –   near

In these languages and in others like Ewe, Ga, Konkomba, etc., we see that, in general, their words are pronounced the way they are spelt. In Ghana (and in many Outer Circle countries) this situation has influenced the pronunciation of English words. The point must be made that these L1 languages are the languages acquired by the majority of Ghanaians in early childhood from parents, and spoken in the home environment before they come into contact with English. By the time they start learning some English, they would have already acquired the rules and structures of their L1, including those of the phonology, so that it becomes very easy to transfer the acquired rules and structures into English. According to Bamgbose (1971: 47), the influence of the local languages on English as a second language is great because certain "patterns of the local languages – phonological, grammatical and lexical – tend to be transferred into English."

Generally in Ghana, this seems to be the case even though L1 influence may not hold true for all Ghanaian users of English. The point of significance here is that L1 influence plays a significant role in the spelling pronunciation encountered in GhE.

Methodology

Data

The aim of the present paper was to show that spelling pronunciation has become an unmarked feature of the English of educated Ghanaians. To strengthen and confirm this claim, I selected 50 words of English based on observation of their use by government officials, lecturers, media practitioners, clergymen and influential opinion leaders in Ghana over the past four years. My observation of this category of Ghanaians was appropriate because their English characterised samples of English for important communicative purposes rather than samples of a learner language.

The selected words were further put to test, as 60 purposively selected graduate non-English (Mphil, PhD) students of the University of Cape Coast (from different ethnic backgrounds) were asked to read simple sentences, each one containing one of the words of focus, the way they would normally read them. The renditions of the respondents were recorded using a digital voice recorder. For readings that were not audible enough, respondents were asked to re-read the sentences a second or sometimes even a third time.

All the recordings were from male students. This was because while it was intended to keep the gender variable consistent, it was observed that there were invariably many more male students than females on sight, each time the researcher visited the Graduate Residence, where the recordings were done. The recordings were spread over ten days, with 6 informants recorded on each visiting day. It took every informant approximately 10 minutes to read out all 50 sentences. Thus in all, a total data base of about 10 hours of recordings was collected.

Recording sentences which contained the relevant words to the study rather than the words alone was significant as it enhanced the naturalness of the data. The entire recording procedure was in line with Crystal's (1987) observation that a researcher investigating language needs to record each and every sound. This recording practice is essential as more insights can be gleaned from naturalistic data rather than data collected from controlled settings.

Procedure of Analysis
The data were analysed by replaying each informants recordings and transcribing phonetically the words of focus the way they were pronounced. Thus the pronunciations of informants were tested and measured by means of the traditional method of auditory perception. While we are aware of the value and worth of instrumental analysis, which is often thought to be more objective and scientific in the analysis of speech (Roach, 2001), this traditional method proved adequate in determining whether or not the words of focus were characterised by spelling pronunciation.

The transcriptions were then compared with the RP versions of the words obtained from Daniel Jones' (1997) <u>English Pronunciation Dictionary</u>. The table below (Table 1) displays the selected words that served as basis for the study and their standard pronunciations (RP).

Table 1: Words of focus and their standard pronunciation (RP)

Word	Standard Pronunciation	Word	Standard Pronunciation
won	[wʌn]	lower	[ləʊə]
among	[əmʌŋ]	quorum	[kwɔːrəm]
country	[kʌntri]	respond	[rɪspɒnd]
onion	[ʌnjən]	salary	[sæləri]
cohesion	[kəhiːʒn]	modest	[mɒdɪst]
focus	[fəkəs]	laudable	[lɔːdəbl]
tough	[tʌf]	diploma	[dɪpləʊmə]
category	[kætəgri]	pose	[pəʊz]
tomb	[tuːm]	daunting	[dɔːntɪŋ]
courage	[kʌrɪʤ]	pause	[pɔːz]
potato	[pəteɪtə]	kowtow	[kaʊtaʊ]
double	[dʌbl]	ensure	[ɪnʃɔː]
digit	[dɪʤɪt]	follow	[fɒləʊ]
glove	[glʌv]	wonder	[wʌndə]
query	[kwɪəri]	possess	[pəzes]
trouble	[trʌbl]	gaol	[ʤeɪl]
is	[ɪz]	gadget	[gæʤɪt]
push	[pʊʃ]	gold	[gəʊld]
castle	[kɑːsl]	target	[tɑːgɪt]
lettuce	[letɪs]	thorough	[θʌrə]
whistle	[hwɪsl]	encourage	[ɪŋkʌrɪʤ]
intervene	[ɪntəviːn]	young	[jʌŋ]
consult	[kənsʌlt]	position	[pəzɪʃn]
tomato	[təmɑːtə]	method	[meθəd]
low	[ləʊ]	nose	[nəʊz]

Results and Discussion

Based on the analysis done on the words of focus in this study, it came to light that the spelling of the words largely influenced their pronunciation, thereby strengthening the observation made earlier on by the researcher that spelling pronunciation is a typical feature in the English of many educated Ghanaians. 52 (86.7% of all respondents) pronounced all the words of focus in a way that reflected spelling pronunciation.

Four respondents pronounced two of the words (*country* and *courage*) using near RP while the remaining 48 words were rendered in a way that was clearly influenced by their spelling. Two respondents gave only (*country*) a near RP rendition while the 49 words were characterised by spelling pronunciation. Two other respondents pronounced four of the words (*double, digit, country, focus*) using near RP while the rest of the 46 words were characterised by spelling pronunciation. In all, only 6 words (12% of the total number of words) received near RP renditions by only eight respondents (less than 15% of all respondents).

Thus though a few of the respondents pronounced some of the words with a near RP accent, the pronunciation of the overwhelming majority of the respondents demonstrated the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation. The selected words and their spelling pronunciations are shown in the table next (Table 2):

Table displaying the fifty (50) words used for the study and their Spelling Pronunciation rendition in Ghanaian English

Word	Spelling Pronunciation	Word	Spelling Pronunciation
won	[w**on**]	low	[l**ow**]
among	[**amo**ŋ]	lower	[l**owa**]
country	[k**aun**tri]	quorum	[qor**u**m]
onion	[**o**nien]	respond	[r**e**spɔnd]
cohesion	[k**o**heʃin]	salary	[sal**ari**]
focus	[f**o**k**o**s]	modest	[mod**e**st]
tough	[t**o**f]	laudable	[**lau**d**a**bul]
category	[kat**igo**ri]	diploma	[dipl**oma**]
tomb	[tum**b]**	pose	[po**s**]
courage	[k**ou**reidʒ]	daunting	[d**aun**tiŋ]
potato	[p**ota**to]	pause	[pɔ**s**]
double	[d**ou**bul]	kowtow	[k**ow**t**ow**]
digit	[di**g**it]	ensure	[**e**nʃuɔ]
glove	[gl**ov**]	follow	[f**olo**]

query	[kw**e**ri]	wonder	[w**o**nda]
trouble	[tr**ou**bul]	possess	[p**os**es]
is	[i**s**]	gaol	[g**au**l]*
push	[p**u**ʃ]	gadget	[g**a**dz**e**t]
castle	[k**a**s**t**il]	gold	[g**o**ld]
lettuce	[let**u**s]	target	[tag**e**t]
whistle	[**w**is**t**il]	thorough	[**t**ɔrɔ]
intervene	[int**e**v**ei**n]	encourage	[**en**kɔreidz]
consult	[kɔnsɔlt]	young	[**y**ɔnŋ]
tomato	[t**o**mat**o**]	position	[p**o**si**ʃ**in]
method	[me**t**ɔd	nose	[n**os**]

Clearly the data present a trend that suggests that spelling pronunciation is dominant among educated Ghanaian users of English. Spelling pronunciation has become the most comfortable way of pronouncing English words. Again, it does not seem that the few exceptions of words in the data that received RP pronunciation were rendered with a conscious attempt at pronouncing RP since the same respondents failed to pronounce most of the other words using RP.

It is worthy of note that the word "gaol" posed a special problem. Four of the respondents were hesitant in pronouncing it because they claimed they had never heard or encountered its use. They were persuaded to just pronounce the word how they would have pronounced it if they encountered it. When they did, their rendition (like those of the other respondents) reflected spelling pronunciation. The significant point is that the pronunciation of "gaol" (RP [ʤeil]) as [gaul] in GhE has serious implications for intelligibility, and therefore can be regarded as an error in pronunciation. But this is just one exception; the pronunciation of the other words of focus in this paper provides sufficient evidence of spelling pronunciation which can be well understood by speakers of other varieties.

Spelling pronunciation is therefore a nativised feature of Ghanaian English that satisfies international intelligibility and, as well, retains local identities. The phenomenon has already left indelible marks on the English speech of Ghanaians, and this situation will doubtless continue since the process is an unavoidable one.

Lessons from Other New English Varieties

We have tried to demonstrate here that it is the very nature of language to adapt itself to the varying socio-cultural and linguistic needs of its users. This means that for us in Ghana, it is about time we gradually shifted from the use of an exonormative model (a

model that is based on the native variety as the norm) to embrace an endonormative model (one that is based on localised linguistic, cultural and literary norms).

We in Ghana can learn from other L2 countries such as India, Singapore, Nigeria and Kenya, where the push for this change has been more strong and forceful. In these countries, people now fully appreciate that users of English speak and write differently, and as a transplanted language in many countries, it has inevitably undergone local changes that reflect, as expected, the cultural norms of those countries (Cheshire, 1991; Widdowson, 2003). What things therefore can we learn from these other countries?

Some Lessons from Other Countries

First and foremost has to do with attitudinal change. We need to have a positive attitude towards our English, Ghanaian English. Kachru (1986) has indicated that the first enemy of the New Englishes is not the foreign native (purist), but the new nations themselves who are constantly resisting divergence of any sort, and are taking up the purist-minded position so strongly. Kachru (1992: 67) further states that "the acceptance of a model depends on its users: the users must demonstrate a solidarity, identity, and loyalty toward a language variety".

In India, Singapore and Nigeria, for example, this negative attitude has changed drastically. There is now a strong feeling of ownership of the English language in these countries where internal norms are replacing external ones. So in India for instance, Indian English is recognised as one of India's languages.

Secondly, we must engage in vigorous research that aims at describing the features of Ghanaian English, as has been done extensively for Indian English, Nigeria English, Singaporean English, and Kenyan English among others. In these non-native varieties of English, a great deal of research has been undertaken with a view to describing the linguistic norms of the variety of English spoken and written by the citizens (Platt et al, 1984). In India and Singapore, for instance, there has been an adoption of the localised variety of English in the internal activities of these countries. Thus standard Indian English today functions as the language of government, education and the media, having taken over from a previously supposed British standard variety (Kachru et al, 2006).

Thirdly, one of the most important things that can be done to encourage the intensification of research into the features of Ghanaian English is the creation of Corpora to serve as database for linguistic research. The use of corpora has been a major source of development for many varieties of English, native and non-native. For British English, existing corpora such as the Survey of English Usage, the LOB, the Bank of English, the British National Corpus, just to mention four, have led to the accumulation of studies that have shown the features of the variety.

L2 environments (where Ghana is grouped) such as India, Kenya and Nigeria have made admirable progress in this regard. In India, the building of the Kolhapur Corpus of Indian English (KCIE) by Shastri (1988) and his colleagues at Shivaji University, Kolhapur, has eventually become instrumental in creating an urge for generation of corpus research aimed at describing features of Indian English. It has also encouraged the building of other corpora of Indian English and the Indian languages.

In addition, a number of countries have been engaged in the International Corpus of English (ICE) project which was proposed by its principal designer, Sidney Greenbaum. The ICE project began in 1990 with the primary aim of collecting material for comparative studies of English worldwide as well as for studies into the national varieties of the countries involved.

Currently, there are a number of L2 environments whose ICE corpora have been completed and are available for linguistic research. These include ICE – India, ICE – Singapore and ICE – East Africa (Kenya and Tanzania). Although Ghana was originally one of the research teams to be set up for this project, we still have not taken it up. There is the need to get the ICE project started in Ghana so as to enhance systematic investigation into our national variety of English, and comparative studies of Englishes.

Finally, it is necessary that we get an internal reference point for our English. This requires that we begin to codify the norms of usage that are revealed through investigation. Codification means producing reference materials such as dictionaries and books for the variety. Without codification, we would have no choice but to continue to use native models as the yardstick for the teaching and learning of English. Again, we can learn from some New English varieties that are doing well in this respect. For instance in Nigeria, researchers such as Bamgbose (1992), Bamgbose, Banjo and Thomas (1995) and Bokamba (1984) have made great efforts in codifying Nigerian English. Grammar books and dictionaries have been written and compiled so that teachers and other speakers of English in Nigeria may have some points of reference for standard Nigerian English.

Concluding Remarks

The aim of this paper has been to use an aspect of Ghanaian English pronunciation, spelling pronunciation, to demonstrate that it is the very nature of language (in this particular instance, English) to adapt itself to the varying socio-cultural and linguistic needs of its users. Spelling pronunciation is pervasive in the English spoken by educated Ghanaians and this is largely influenced by two inseparable factors: the inconsistent relationship between English orthography and sound, and the converse situation in our L1 languages which the majority of Ghanaians first acquire.

The main point, however, is that spelling pronunciation qualifies as one of the innovative features of pronunciation that are giving Ghanaian English a character that is different from standard native Englishes like British English.

I am of the view that it is not a marker of errors and deficiency because while Ghanaian speakers of English have no intentions of advancing towards the so-called better and prestigious native variety, RP, spelling pronunciation has become the normal and most comfortable way of pronouncing many English words. Besides, the phenomenon satisfies two important criteria non-native varieties of English ought to meet to be recongised. First, to a great extent, it maintains international intelligibility and, second, it retains local and cultural identities (Bamgbose, 1998).

With the evidence derived from this study, it is suggested that Ghana should intensify efforts to identify the features that characterise Ghanaian English in all aspects of English language, so that we can eventually have our own codified variety of English to serve as the model for teaching and learning of English in Ghana. Although this would require a lot of time, effort and commitment, it is necessary because the British norms and models of English currently being used as reference points for proficiency do not just seem to fit into the Ghanaian context, especially as English expands its range of uses and further deepens its roots in the country. However, in an effort to develop a local model of English, there should be checks to avoid unintelligibility both at the national and international levels.

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The Relationship between Gaining Mastery on 'Content' (School Subject Matters) and 'Linguistic Competence Level in Second Language' through Immersion Program

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Abstract

One of the main concerns for the immersion students' parents has always been about their children's lag in academic courses and the school subjects. They thought their children would lag behind in matters such as math in comparison to the non-immersion students.

In this study it was attempted to find the proportionate relationship between the level of linguistic competence in second language and mastery on content (subject matters) among the Indian students. Two homogeneous groups of students from two immersion schools from Mysore, Karnataka participated in the study. They were given two different tests on proficiency and content. The obtained data were analyzed through Pearson product moment correlation by SPSS version 17 with alpha 0.05. The result (Sig. = .000) statistically confirmed that the relationship is quite significant.

Keywords: Immersion program, content, linguistic, competence

Introduction

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One of the recent innovative approaches and a very interesting innovation in second language education is 'immersion program', a specific type of integrated language teaching with the instruction of the regular school curriculum. In fact, in this method the school subject matters or contents are taught through the medium of a second language. In their early childhood education, the students are provided with an opportunity to learn the elementary academic subjects along with developing competence in a second language. In immersion schools, the students experience a cooperative learning where they can acquire a second language while they master the school subject matters or contents. In this method the target language is not the subject of instruction but a vehicle for acquiring knowledge from different subject areas, content instruction, as well as the object of instruction. Language is not taught in isolation, it is integrated with teaching content-subject matters.

Statement of the problem

Naturally at the initial stages and at the beginning of immersion program implementation, the learners may have problems in comprehending the target language as the medium of instruction. However, this problem has emerged as one of the main concerns for the immersion students' parents. They think that their children may lag behind in the academic subjects in comparison to the non immersion students. Of course, such a concern is not that irrelevant since the studies done by researchers such as Holobow et al (1987), Swain & Lapkin (1991), and Jon Reyhner (1992) justify the presence of such concerns. They tried to determine the rate of the students' achievement of the contents and subject matters taught through the medium of the target language.

If the importance of this problem is not properly taken into consideration by the teachers and the immersion program staff, it can potentially cause various problems. One of its greatest manifestations would be a high rate of student drop-out from the program. Keen (1993), for example, reported that in the province of Alberta between 1983-84 and 1990-91, attrition rates from immersion program ranged from 43% to 68% by grade 6, 58% to 83% by grade 9, and 88% to 97% by grade 12. Definitely, not all drop-out from the program reflects academic difficulties. At a high extent it happens because of improper meaning transmission. So, the first weeks and days may seem intolerable to the students and their parents. This period is called the adaptation period by the theorists.

In this study, it was attempted to determine the proportionate relationship between gaining mastery on content and level of linguistic competence in second (medium of instruction) language.

Methodology

Research Strategy and Design

In terms of research method, this study falls into the category of "quantitative" one as it involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analyzed by statistical methods.

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Based on the obtained information through the demography form, two groups of the subjects were found as outliers. To avoid any contamination in the results, they were excluded from the process. These were:

1. Those who hadn't passed the kindergarten period namely Lower Kindergarten (LKG) and Upper Kindergarten (UKG) in English medium.

2. Those whose home language was English.

Having selected the participants for the study, the researcher administered a pre-test to secure their homogeneity and to eliminate their pre-existing differences. For this purpose, he applied the '*YEL*' series produced by Cambridge University for *Young English Learners*. The *YEL* series is at three different levels of difficulty namely *Starters*, *Movers*, and *Flyers*. Each of them is composed of two distinctive sections: 'Listening' and 'Reading and Writing'. In this study the '*Movers*' was used to homogenize the participants.

Participants

In this study, in order to provide a logical and data-based answer to the question, two homogenous groups of students at the level of second standard from two immersion schools named St. Joseph's Primary and St. Joseph's Central schools in Mysore, India were selected. Each group was composed of 40 students, 80 students in total. The participants were both male and female. Both groups were studying at schools with the same medium of instruction. The students were taught all subject matters in English. In fact, being educated through immersion program, learning English was a by-product for them.

Instrument

To find out whether *a higher linguistic proficiency corresponds to a proportionately higher content mastery,* the researcher needed two different paper and pencil tests: One to measure the students' mastery on the covered contents at school and another to measure the participants' level of proficiency. For the former purpose, the researcher made a test himself called 'Content Test', and for the latter, he used the *FLYERS* from the YEL series produced by Cambridge University. Each of these two tests is elaborated separately as follows:

Content Test

By 'content test' the researcher means the test of those subject matters such as math, science, and social studies which were taught in target language (English) at school. The available teacher-made tests to measure the students' overall mastery on the covered contents weren't comprehensive enough to be applied. Further, the tests available in the market were not adequate either. In addition, their validity and reliability were under question. So the only remaining option for the researcher was to construct a new test himself. So he did. Based on the drawn table of specification, he devised a test contained 30 items on three subjects: math, science, and social studies.

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This was a Criterion–Referenced Test (CRT) because it was to measure the students' performance against the instructional objectives. The main purpose of this test was to measure the students' mastery on the content of the above-mentioned courses. Like any other newly developed test, this test also required to be validated and its reliability to be established. Being a CRT test, it had to be validated in terms of 'content' and 'construct'. As the most authentic source for determining such types of validity is the experts, the researcher had the teachers who are directly involved in teaching those materials opine on the validity of the test. In terms of observing the principles of test construction, the researcher consulted his colleagues and co-scholars.

This test was administered in one of the parallel classes with the same level to the target group as pilot study. Having scored the papers, the researcher analyzed each item in terms of item facility, item difficulty, and item discrimination. Based on the outcomes of the item analysis, the researcher had to modify some of the items.

The next very important stage was to establish the reliability of the test. Since all the items were in multiple choice type, the reliability of the test could be calculated through the KR 21 formula. According to this formula, the obtained reliability of the test is (r =0.75) which is quite acceptable for a test to be regarded as a reliable one.

Flyers

This test was applied to measure the participants' level of proficiency. It was composed of seven parts as follows:

Part one: This part included ten short definitions and written in a box around which fifteen words were seen. Students read the definitions and chose the correct word which matched each definition and wrote it on the line in front of each definition.

Part two: There was a picture followed by seven sentences in this part. Students read the sentences and by looking carefully at the picture, they decided if the sentences were right or wrong. They gave their answers by writing 'Yes' or 'No' for each one.

Part three: In this part there were five multiple-choice questions which were based on grammar. Students read the questions and chose the best alternative considering the grammatical points.

Part four: Students read a story with five blanks, and then they chose the correct words from a word box or thought about the correct words based on the pictures provided, they wrote the answers in the blanks. At the end of this part, there was an item which asked students to choose the best title/name for the story from the provided alternatives.

Part five: It included a picture and a story related to it. Students first read the story and then the seven questions or incomplete sentences which

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followed the text. Then they provided a correct but short answer for each question or completed the sentences about the story.

Part six: The students were given a text with ten blanks similar to a cloze test. They read the text and chose the best answer for each item from the three alternatives.

Part seven: In this part students read an incomplete letter with five blanks. They had to write a correct word of their own in each blank to complete the letter.

Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of this study, the following procedures were followed. First, two groups of second standard students (for whom English is only a second language) from two schools were selected randomly considering that all have passed Lower Kindergarten (LKG) and Upper Kindergarten (UKG) in English medium centers. As the participants were from two different educational centers, they were definitely required to become homogenized. Therefore they were given a standard proficiency test –Movers-of YEL series produced by Cambridge University as a pre–test to determine their homogeneity.

To test the homogeneity of the two groups, the researcher went through a *t–test* analysis; the results are given in the following table.

Table 1. *t* – test for Pre-test Scores for homogeneity of group two

Groups	N	M	S	df	*t*- observed
St.Joseph Central school	40	45.075	6.054		
St.Joseph Primary School	40	44.90	8.198	78	0.9139
P< 0.05				*t*-critical = 2.000	

According to the table above, the obtained *t*- value (*t.* observed) is 0.9139 with concern of the degree of freedom of 78 and the level of significance of 0.05, is smaller than the *t*-critical (2.000). So it can be concluded that the two groups of students of the two schools, Primary and Central, are homogeneous.

When the groups were proved to be homogenous, the test of content to measure their mastery on the content and the proficiency test to determine their level of linguistic proficiency were given in two different administrations.

Result

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To find the proportionate relationship between mastery on content and the level of linguistic competence in the second language, the obtained data were put in proper statistical process. Since the total scores of the tests were 30 and 50 respectively, they were converted to the scale of 100 to facilitate the computation and statistical process. All statistical procedures were carried out using the SPSS version 17 with alpha set as 0.05. Since the main goal was to determine the relationship between two variables, the researcher applied Carl Pearson Moment correlation through SPSS software.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of content & proficiency test scores

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Content	80	20.00	77.00	50.5125	12.20292
Proficiency	80	20.00	80.00	52.7500	18.35618
Valid N (list wise)	80				

Table 3. Correlation between mastery on content and level of proficiency

Correlations

		Content	Proficiency
Content	Pearson Correlation	1	.409[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	80	80
Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.409[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	80	80

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the above table, the significance of (.000) confirms that the relationship between mastery on content and level of linguistic proficiency is significant. So any null hypothesis in this regard is quite rejected. On the other hand, a positive directional hypothesis can be statistically confirmed.

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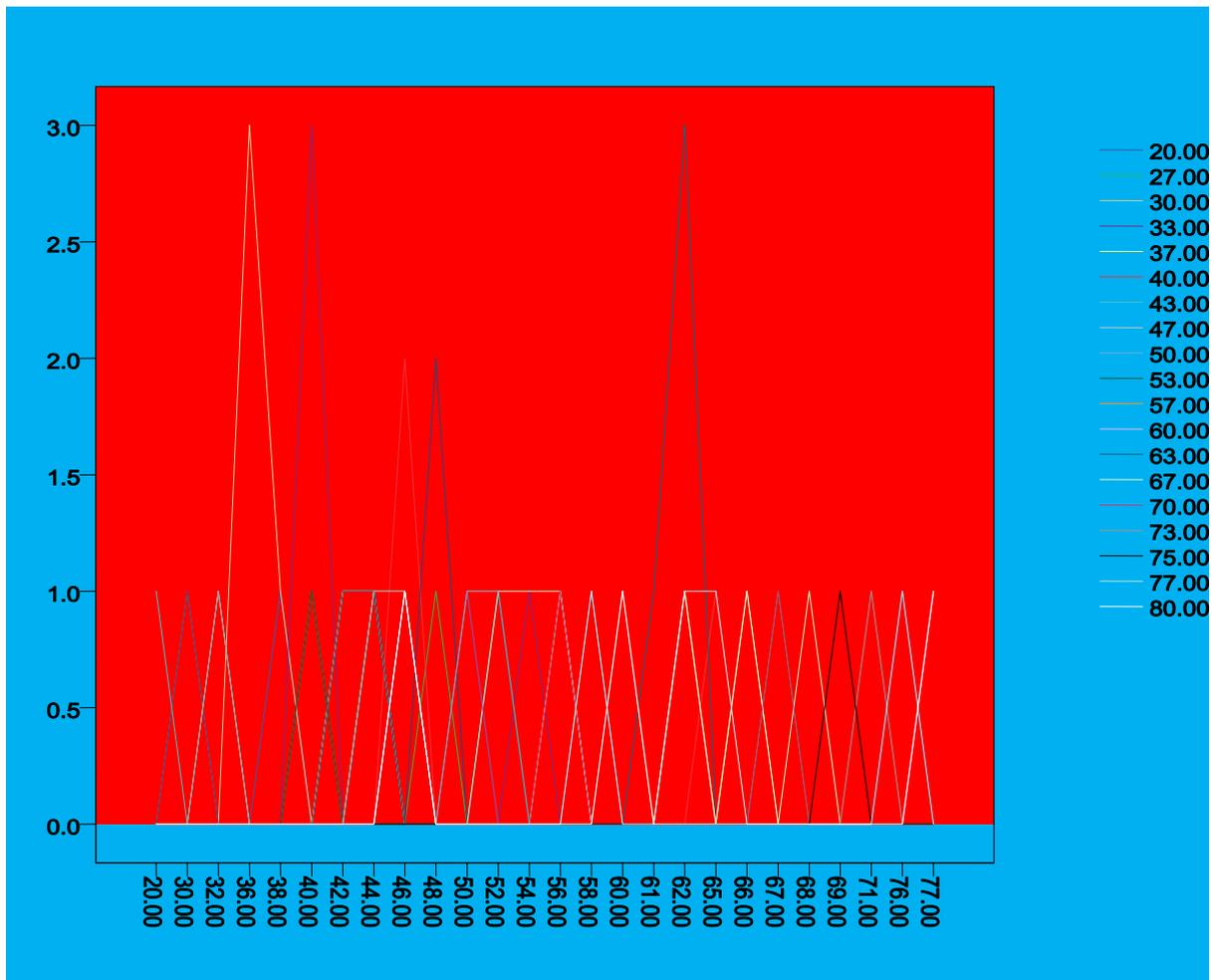
Correlation between mastery on content and level of proficiency

Discussion

The main goal of this study was to explore the relationship between gaining mastery on content (the school subject matters which are instructed in the target language) and the linguistic competence in the second language which is acquired through the implementation of the immersion program. With this objective in mind, the researcher posed his question as "*Is there any proportionate relationship between gaining mastery on content and level of proficiency in second language?*"

The relationship between linguistic mastery in second language (as the medium of instruction) and mastery on content was measured through Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The result (Sig = .000) revealed that there is a positive relationship between these two variables. It is exactly in line with the expectation that wants the students to have the same high levels of achievement in all academic domains as the students in regular programs.

This finding supports the studies such as Holobow et.al., (1987); Swain and Lapkin, (1991) which have consistently shown that immersion program students do as well as, and

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even surpass, comparable non-immersion students on measures of verbal and mathematics skills.

The outcome of this study supports Jon Reyhner's (1992) idea about the content enhancement by the immersion students. He (1992) states 'test scores show that immersion students can learn the same academic content as students in English-Only classrooms along with a second language without losing fluency in English'.

A growing body of research on immersion education has shown that immersion students consistently meet or exceed academic expectations in the following areas:

1. **Second language skills:** Immersion students by far outperform students in traditional foreign/second language classes. Although students usually do not become functionally proficient in the immersion language and are able to communicate according to their age and grade level.

2. **First language skills:** in the early years of first language instruction, there may be a lag in first language reading and writing skills. By the end of the elementary school, however, immersion students do as well or better than students in first language-only classes.

3. **Cultural sensitivity:** Immersion students are more aware of and show positive attitudes towards other cultures.

The above discussion can be a relief for the parents who are concerned about their children's lag in content learning through immersion education. It can terminate any concern in this regard.

Conclusion

There is a close relationship between linguistic competence in second language (medium of instruction) and learning the contents. The higher the level of linguistic competence in target language, the better mastery on subject matters would be obtained. Especially, at the higher levels, and in the mastery of complicated contents, this relation gets even closer. One of the greatest threats to the program is the improper meaning delivery which may lead to the students' drop out from the program. So it is important for the instructors to have a balance between the content and the level of the students' linguistic competence. If content is delivered above their head in terms of linguistic proficiency, no intake occurs.

Strategies and Recommendations to Make Content Comprehensible in L2

One of the main problems in immersion program especially at the elementary and primary levels is the delivery of content in the target language to the learners. So the immersion teachers can apply some or all of the following strategies and recommendations to cope with the problem.

❖ using gestures, visual displays, and interactive activities
❖ using simplified, high-frequency vocabulary and sentence patterns

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- ❖ speaking slowly to reinforce meaning
- ❖ modeling new useful vocabulary and phrases
- ❖ repeating language during routine activities (e.g., greetings, weather/ calendar/ birthday activities)
- ❖ engaging the students in physical activity as they learn so that they easily associate new language with what they are doing
- ❖ allowing the students to ask or answer questions in L1 at the early stages

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Reader-centric and Text-centric Approaches to Novel – A Study of Intertextuality in Salman Rushdie's *The Enchantress of Florence*

Pratap Kumar Dash, Ph.D.
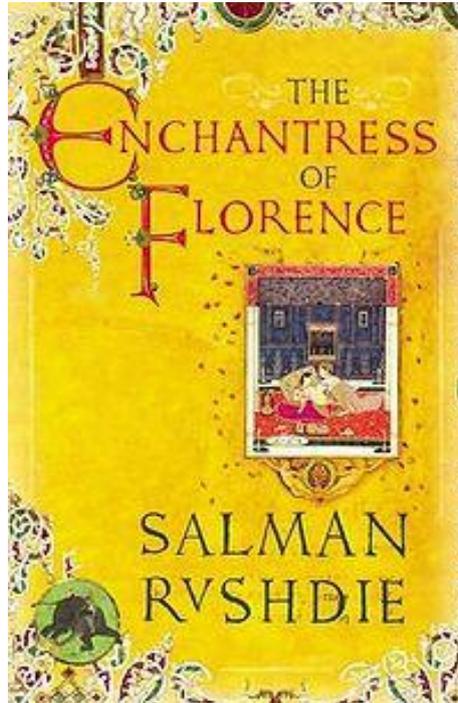
Abstract

Intertextuality has been the unfailing tool for the recent literary and linguistic critics to yield complete and critical value of works of art these days. In this light, the critic enjoys examining cross-textual references and derives the aesthetics of both criticality

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and creativity. Worth saying, the postmodern as well as postcolonial novels are the best and enriched texts for this purpose.

One such novel is Salman Rushdie's *The Enchantress of Florence* (2008). It narrates the visit of a mysterious stranger Mogor from Italy to the imperial capital of Akbar named Sikri. The trickster-traveler is fluent in many tongues yet apparently homeless. However, he could put Akbar into disillusionment in different ways.

Rushdie succeeds in recreating a New World by assimilating history of the East and the West. The fantasy, romantic and artistic notions, the narrative technique, the magic and realistic elements and linguistic carnival in the novel can be better analyzed by bringing forth a study through reader-centric and text-centric approaches.

Introduction: Intertextuality in Works of Art

The article presents an evaluation of Salman Rushdie's the Best of Booker prize winning novel *The Enchantress of Florence* (2008).We take intertextuality as the supportive parameter for the evaluation of the text.

The term *intertextuality* is popularized by Julia Kristeva in 1960s. It is used to signify the number of ways in which one literary citation and allusion is linked to the other in natural and creative cross-textual ways both at factual, formal and functional levels. Thus, it results in interweaving solidity of multiple meanings by interpretation of texts as potential relatively interconnected signs (Kristeva, 1980 and Culler, 1981).

A Brief Sketch of Rushdie and His Writings

The Anglo-Indian novelist was born in Mumbai on 19 June 1947. His paternal grandfather is an Urdu poet, and father is a Cambridge-educated businessman. He completed his schooling both in Bombay and at Rugby in England. He studied History at King's College, Cambridge, where he joined the Cambridge footlights theatre company. After graduating, he lived with his family who had moved to Pakistan in 1964 and worked for some time in television before returning to England and beginning to work as a copywriter for an advertising agency. He was greatly burdened by experiencing war between India and Pakistan and political and social tensions between Hindus and Muslims. These events also influenced him a lot.

Gradually, he emerged as one of the most efficient and widely read writers of our time. His writings include novels like **Grimus** (1975), **Midnight's Children** (1981), **Shame** (1983), **The Jaguar Smile** (1987), **The Satanic Verses** (1988), **The Moor's Last Sigh** (1995), **The Ground Beneath Her Feet** (1999), **Fury** (2001) **Shalimar the Clown** (2005), and **The Enchantress of Florence (2008)** . He has collection of stories entitled **Haroun and the Sea of Stories** (1990), Critical writings like **Imaginary Homelands: Essays and Criticism** (1981-1991) and non-fictional collection like **Step across This Line: (1992-2002).** He is not only a novelist or storywriter but also a travel writer, who has written **The Jaguar Smile: A**

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Nicaraguan Journey (1987). He is a screenwriter and has thus written **The Wizard of Oz (1992).**

Reader-centric Approach to *The Enchantress of Florence*

The Enchantress of Florence reveals Rushdie's excellent creativity and narrative engineering. It represents a turn from present to past, from politics to poetics.

The novel gives us an account of the visit of a stranger to the Mughal emperor Akbar's court and his claim that that he is a long relative of Akbar, born of an exiled princess and Italian from Florence. It is a historical romance reflecting the mutual suspicion and mistrust between the East and the West.

The reader-centric approach gives us a critical idea about the theme and its ethical, mythical, social, neohistorical, religious, cultural, psychoanalytical aspects. In this light, it is found that the novel in fact refers to an imaginary time when both Queen Elizabeth and Emperor were ruling over in their respective kingdoms. It starts with an impressive description of the setting sun. The stranger comes all the way to Surat, an old city of India and rides a bullock-cart to reach Fatehpur Sikri to meet Akbar. As the cart goes on, he keeps himself standing on it. The cart-driver takes him to be a fool. But, later on, he admires his courage. He then gets down the cart and enjoys his stay in Caravanserai. He recollects his memory how he managed to land at Surat escaping from a Scottish pirate ship. Then, he crosses Burhanpur, Handia, Sironj, Narwar, Gwalior, and Agra to reach this new capital. The moment he rests, he dreams of many impossible and fanciful things.

He is on his mission to 'Hindostan' to make his fortune. Arriving at Fatehpur, he declares that he is a secret guest and he has a secret which he would disclose before Akbar only. A provision was made for him to meet Emperor Akbar. Before him, he mentions about one lady named Angelica. Hearing the name, the lord becomes disturbed and loses his sense. The traveler realizes how "a man under the enchantment of love… is a man easily distracted and led" (Florence: 26). He says that he has escaped all the way to meet him only. He has also "the letter in Elizabeth Tudor's own hand and under her personal seal, the message from the queen of England to the Emperor of India . . . He was England's ambassador now" (Florence: 29).

The haunting sandstone palaces of Sikri are fantastic. The emperor has many queens. Still then, the visitor makes Akbar think of an imaginary wife. He says that, ". . . it was the real queens who were the phantoms and the non-existent beloved who was real" (Florence: 33). He gives her name Jodha. Tansen writes songs for her and Master Abdus Samad, the Persian portrays her himself from memory. The nine Stars, that is, the nine great countries under Akbar's regime, acknowledge her existence, her beauty, and her wisdom, the grace of her movements and the softness of her voice. Gradually, that becomes a love story of the age. When Akbar comes back to the palace from his tour outside, he feels as if the queen in picture inspires him saying different things about the subjects and about himself. People believe that Jodhabai, the

mother of his first son Prince Salim may be in the mind of Akbar as he reflects over the imaginary queen. However, she happens to be a creation of imagination entirely.

Mogor dell' Amore performs another duty of a messenger of Her Majesty. In the mean time, he reads the letter of the queen in which she welcomes the emperor and calls for business and diplomatic alliance. The Emperor is appreciative of the contents of the letter. The messenger gives a locket to him in which the photo of the Queen is pasted. His dream of forming a joint global empire by uniting the eastern and the western hemispheres remains unfulfilled. Gradually, his love for her disappears and remains as a nostalgic memory only.

Akbar takes the messenger to the temple of argument, where learned people sit and debate over different ideas. He says beautifully there, "Ideas were like tides of the sea or the phases of the moon; they came into being, rose and grew in their proper time, and then ebbed. Darkened and vanished when the great wheel turned" (Florence: 98). The other day Akbar takes Mogor on a boating in his favorite boat Asayish. But it so happened that Abul Fazl and his crew was present in another boat spying Mogor because they got some shocking news about him. They circled him. At that time, he was describing a story of a prince named Angelica to the emperor. Then, the soldiers gripped his throat and he lost his sense. Then he was sent to prison. The guard informed him that the next day would be the day of his trial for murder.

The next day he was made present in the court. Akbar being irritated by his answers ordered to throw him before the wild elephant. By that time, he had revealed three identities of himself in the names of Uccello or Mogor or Vespucci. His second trial took place in the garden of Hiran, named after emperor's favorite elephant, which was kept carefully although he is mad and blind. Then, the man was sent before the elephant so that it would kill him. But strangely, when the man stretched his hands towards the elephant, it stood calm and quiet and allowed Mogor to caress him. The yellow-haired foreigner went up the back of the elephant and sat like a prince.

Then, while talking to the emperor that he gave surprising information that he happened to be his blood relation. The foreigner went on narrating that he had heard that his mother was a princess of the true Chaghatai blood, a direct descent of Genghis Khan, a member of the house of Timur, and the sister of the first Mughal Emperor of India, whom she called ' the Bearer'. Her mother's name was Angelica and she was a Mughal Princess, and the most beautiful one. She was tortured by one Uzbeg warlord named Lord Wormwood, after defeating her brother. The Persian king Ishmael defeated Lord Wormwood and Ottoman defeated Ishmael.

The two mothers of Akbar, Hamida Bano and Bibi Fatima could not control themselves. They agreed with the story and also claimed that there was a hidden story in their family. The women also went on describing the genealogy of women and the foreigner was encouraged to continue the story. Bibi Fatima interfered and told that really the Princess of mirror that you tell was in love with a foreigner. This Princess was an enchantress beyond compare. The foreigner added that her name was Angelica, and with Ottoman, she went to Italy and she was supposed to be the mother of the foreigner.

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The Emperor wanted Dashwant, his talented painter to paint the details of the story of that enchanted Princess and his forefathers in his private rooms. Dashwant painted the princess as a four year-old girl with bright eyes and extraordinary beauty. She was then believed to possess super human powers. Then Dashwant draws her as an adolescent girl, which even attracts Birbal. Dashwant paints her as "the rediscovered protagonist and her new lover – the hidden Princess Lady Black Eyes or Qara Kooz or Angelica, and the Shah of Persia – standing face to face" (Florence: 160).

In Chapter 10, the setting shifts to Florence. Mogor says that Simonetta Cattaneo is a beautiful lady. She marries Ago's cousin, Marco Vespucci. This Marco dies of consumption and the Simonetta becomes a powerful enchantress. She can put people in utter misery if they look at her with bad eyes or try to harm in anyway.

The story of Qora Kooz continues to dominate the later part of the novel. From an enchantress to witch, she leads her journey. Hearing all these stories, Abul Fazl concludes that the messenger has many experiences, many contacts, and many resources. So he is extraordinary. The Emperor is still in the midst of his association of his imaginary queen. She somehow resembles Jodha, but even then, she resembles Qora Kooz. "Yet she was the one who came, more and more often and there were things she understood that Jodha had grasped. She understood, for example, silence" (Florence: 389).

After coming across Mogor, Akbar happens to develop many and varied feelings. He experiences "amusement, interest, disappointment, disillusion, surprise, amazement, fascination, irritation, pleasure, perplexity, suspicion, affection, boredom, and increasingly . . . fondness and admiration" (Florence: 393). He finds the young man has athletics and military skills. He has a strong memory. He speaks very well. He remembers *mansobdar*, plays all the indoor games of the court. People gradually come to know that the foreigner has become the "Mughal of love" (Florence: 396).

In the meantime, both the stalwart supporters of Akbar, Birbal and Abul Fazl die. Akbar becomes helpless and sad for many days. Then, one day, one fakir comes and foretells that his dynasty's rule will finally end after him. Then again, Mogor goes on telling him the story of the creation of the New World. He claims that he is the son of that enchantress Qara Kooz, but Akbar is still not ready to accept that. Akbar even plans to adopt him as his honorary son. But that never happens in reality.

One midnight, when he sits at the top of the Panch Mahal, he finds a blaze of fire in the house of Skanda. Mogor burns and dies in the fire. Commenting on his death the author writes:

> He had crossed over into the empty page after the last page,
> beyond the   illuminated borders of the existing world, and has
> entered their universe of the undead, those poor souls whose
> lives terminate before they stop breathing. The emperor at the
> lakeside wished the Mughal of Love a gentle afterlife and a

painless ending; and turned away." (Florence: 435)

Next day, the emperor finds that the water of the Sikri Lake is drying up. His best engineers cannot even tell the cause for the drying up of water. Then Akbar recognizes the death of Sikri too. Then, immediately, he orders the evacuation of the city. Price Salim's wife, Lady Man Bai also dies of the shock and depression. That night, the hidden Princess comes to him. Her beauty is like a flame. She says that, like her, Mogor is the mirror's child. The city is ruined because of the mistreatment of her child. She is 'as if life was a river . . . She had crossed the liquid years and returned to command his dreams, usurping another woman's place in his Khayal, his godlike omnipotent fancy' . . . ' I have come home after all', she told him. 'You have allowed me to return, and so here I am, at my journey's end. And now, shelter of the world, I am yours.' (Florence: 441-42).

The novel thus comes to an end with yet another unexpected ending that transcends a historic fiction. The novel moves from history to mystery and achieves artistry. According to Dersiewicz, the novel is, "…the purest expression of his fabulating impulse set in a faraway time, the 1500s, and dividing its pages between two storied lands…Rushdie is working here with the twinned powers of erotic charm and artistic imagination. Men enslave women and are enslaved by in turn." (Dersiewicz: 2). Rushdie's architectural paradigm is found to reflect the fictionalization of cross-continental renaissance coupled with the two prototypes cum archetypes like polyglot Mogor and imaginable Kara Koz in a Rushdiean style further paving the way to unveil bewitching stories in digression and become prevalent bridge between two cultures.

Magic Realism in the Novel

The novelist has, in fact, brought about a reformation in the ideas and ideologies associated with the art of writing a novel. This novel is, among other things, an effort to re-enchant the world fancifully in the wake of scientific rationalism and global exploration, to recover the premodern mindset in which giants and witches and magic hats were real possibilities. But, like a colonial subject, he strongly maintains his traditional practices in an imperial space.   He has consistently sought to insert magical elements into narratives of the present, flourishing the marvelous in the face of modernity (Dersiewicz: 4).

In asserting the rights of magic, Rushdie also tests the power of the imagination to affect reality by compressing the already known heterogeneous facts and fictions in the frame story model. As discussed by Dersiewicz, this is his highest theme, and his persistent obsession in the novel. Imagination has the power to affect reality at personal, social, political levels. Rushdie has proved this in his writings. In **The Enchantress of Florence,** he imagines a fantastic life and seems to go out and live it.

The story of Lady of Black Eyes drives a whole city mad. Lines are drawn on a map, and a nation conjectures itself into being. The novel is set in a remote time and decorated with the language and properties of legend. We accept and even expect a

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certain quantum of the marvelous instances like Niccolò's magic cloak, for example, passes without trouble. However, Jodha is a different matter. She is central to Rushdie's thematic conception that men create women to fall in love with but he leaves her stranded between imagination and reality. She is more than an idea for Akbar but remains less than a full person. She has interiority, but she has no agency, no force in the world. As a result, she has little force in the novel, little hold on our imaginations, remaining nothing more than a nice idea that never fully comes to life (Dersiewicz:5-6).

Romantic and Critical Feeling

The Enchantress of Florence is an example of scholarly, historical, artistic and fantastic piece of writing. Here the author wants to make the reader to bring about extraordinarily romantic and critical feeling. When, at the end of the novel, Niccolò Vespucci having ended his story, disappears, Mughal emperor Akbar has a feeling of deep disappointment, considering: "Vespucci's story was concluded. He had crossed over into the empty page after the last page, beyond the illuminated borders of the existing world, . . ." (Florence: 1)

Two Levels of Meaning

By the way, even in this sentence of the story, as everywhere in the novel, there seems to be at least two levels or a double sense of meaning, that is "the illuminated borders may be read as well as the borders of the painted Mughals' world in its miniatures." (Jorissen: 2)

Rushdie adds a "Bibliography" of "Books" and "Web Sites" at the end of the novel to make it authentic about the resources.

The novel is an intertext of Rushdie's earlier novels, history of India, and the art of Florence. In the novel, the motifs of travel, departing and coming home are present everywhere. Rushdie's novel is, indeed, so full of details and literary citations that it is sometimes not so easy to follow. Rushdie's narrator describes, for example, Argalia's "parti-colored greatcoat", a coat of marvelous abilities as he says:

> He had won the coat at cards in a hand of scarabocion played against an astonished Venetian diamond merchant who could not believe that a mere Florentine could come to the Rialto and beat the locals at their own game. The merchant, a bearded and ringleted Jew named Shalakh Cormorano, had had the coat specially made at the most famous tailor's shop in Venice, known as Il Moro Invidioso because of the picture of a green-eyed Arab on the shingle over its door, and it was an occultist marvel of a greatcoat, its lining a catacomb of secret pockets and hidden folds within which a diamond merchant could stash his valuable wares, and a chancer such as "Uccello di Firenze" [i.e. Arcalia] could conceal all manner of tricks. (Florence: 19–20)

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This fine 'miniature' of description reminds the reader of the important role of Shakespeare's **Othello** ("Il Moro Invidioso") and **The Merchant of Venice** ("The merchant, a bearded and ringleted Jew named Shalakh Cormorano") as referred to in Rushdie's novel **The Moor's Last Sigh** too.

The structure of the novel comprises at least four stories, which are quite independent, and are, nonetheless, intertwined. The stories develop in most different historical times and places. For India, the time is the Mughal emperor's grandfather Babur and Akbar's own time. For Europe, mainly Italy, and for the "New World", this is the time of Machiavelli, and the parallel time to that of Akbar's reign, when three Jesuits were sent to Akbar's court in 1580. This is yet another example of timelessness, or mixing up various periods.

Niccolò Vespucci himself has been deceived by time and believes to be what he is not, Akbar's uncle. But this belief enables him to tell Akbar his fantastic story, which brings together, among other things, Machiavelli's and Akbar's time. The novel reflects a special kind of comparative culture and cultural history, by mirroring places and times, which in history lay so much afar from themselves, but are made, humanly, so similar in the novel.

Rushdie himself seems to say that with all historical (colonial), social, religious etc. problems it is still worth to write a story to invite the reader into something transcending these, not by making them forget , but to put them into a place on which light falls from astonishing angles.

It is said at the very beginning of the novel (by Mogore dell'Amore): "Without water we are nothing . . . Even an emperor, denied water, would swiftly turn to dust. Water is the real monarch and we are all its slaves." (Florence: 8). This is echoed from Akbar's view at the end of the novel: "Even an emperor, denied water, and would swiftly turn to dust. Water is the real monarch and we are all its slaves." (Florence: 345). The story telling reveals style of the novel, and in this context, storytelling transcends cultural, temporal and spatial borders. The story here moves between Florence and Fatehpur Sikri. The historico-political statements are entangling and enticing text, provocating us to brood over the creative fantasy that Rushdie presents, using heterogeneous ideas and events.

Contents and Processes of Text-centric Approach

Now, coming over to the text-centric approach, we aim at linguistic, stylistic, rhetorical, structural, formal and functional aspects that design the inner construction or framework of both the process and product of the work of art.

In terms of linguistic analysis, we find that the text intervenes in cultural systems in many ways through an interesting presentation of cultural signs of Mughal Empire in India and the then flourishing artistic and diplomatic Western nations. Thus, reading takes us into a network of textual relations. The first is the intertextual relationship becomes interesting in the novel only when the connection can be clearly verified fancifully and this textual relationship usually takes the form of allusions,

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quotations, annexations, etc .The second is the deconstructive view which says that intertextuality is the basis and requirement of all communications among all the fanciful notions of the novel. The histriographic metafiction of fantasizing Akbar, Her Majesty, the enchantress of Florence and the mock-heroic tradition of the life and manners of Mogor arouses curiosity to find the spontaneity and blend of centuries and spaces across the world together to give shape to magic realism.

Structural Composition

As a text, ***The Enchantress of Florence*** is divided into three parts: the first third concerns Mogor dell'Amore and his travels to reach Akbar; the second relates the story of three friends in Florence, Italy; and the third tells the tale of Qara Kooz, a forgotten Mughal princess whose beauty enchants all who see her. As the story progresses, imaginary fiction meets the factual and real-life personages such as Amerigo Vespucci, Niccolo Machiavelli, and Botticelli. They appear side by side with their literary counterparts. The characters and their various situations form the backdrop against which Rushdie formulates his ideas regarding beauty, power, art, and even the nature of humanity.

At times, the novel seems little more than a mish-mash of these ideas, but Rushdie powerfully brings both India and Italy to life, and the sumptuousness of the prose is the best aspect of the work. The stylistic aspects of the novel are immense. The textual, ideational, and interpersonal functions of language are visible in the narrative technique.

The novel has a flying start as it writes, "In the day's last light, the glowing lake looked like a molten gold. A traveler, coming this way at sunset - this traveler, coming this way, now, along the lakeshore road - might believe himself to be approaching the throne of a monarch so fabulously wealthy that he could allow a portion of his treasure to be poured into a giant hollow in the earth to dazzle and awe his guests." (Florence: 5)

The Poetic Fluidity of the Novel

The poetic fluidity and deliberate linguistic sport in the entire novel adds to the interest. It is evident that the text-centric approach of the novel makes it more interesting. The novelist says about the stranger, "He could dream in seven languages… He had picked up languages the way most sailors pick up diseases; languages were his gonorrhea, his syphilis, his scurvy, his age, his plague." (Florence: 12)

This symbolically represents the linguistic competence of the author too. The sounds, lexis, and syntactic patterns are affluent in the novel. For example," … Akbar, meaning 'the great'…the great great one, great in his greatness, doubly great, … the Grand Mughal, the dusty, battle-weary, victorious, pensive, incipiently overweight, disenchanted, mustachioed, poetic, over-sexed, and absolute emperor…the first person singular-the 'I'." (Florence: 38)

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A Full Circle

In the end, when the author writes reflecting the hallucinated character's the enchantress's voice," …and so here I am, at journey's end" (Florence: 443), a sort of loss of textual narrative miracle is felt abruptly. To bring about a synthesis between both the vital aspects of text-centric and reader-centric approaches in the novel, we would say that the novel is rich in textual elements and experiments which support the readerly aspects very much. But for the grandeur of varieties of narratology of textual and linguistic elements befitting the typical Rushdian jargon of magic-realist pattern, the novel is an account of nightmare of history shrouded very much in mystery.

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Which One Speaks Better?
The Field-Dependent or the Field-Independent?

On the Effects of Field-Dependent/Field-Independent Cognitive Styles and Gender on Iranian EFL Learners' Speaking Performance

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Abstract

This study investigates the relationship between the field-dependence/independence (FD/I) cognitive styles and the speaking performance of Iranian EFL learners. It also examines the effects of gender and FD/I cognitive styles on the students' speaking performance.

Through Oxford Placement Test, 53 students (10 male and 43 female students) of English at Shiraz University were selected out of 72 initial participants. To measure the students' FD/I level the GEFT was administered. The means of the students' scores on the two courses of Oral Reproduction 1 & 2 taken in the second year were used to represent their speaking test performance. The results of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation revealed a negatively insignificant correlation between the FD/I cognitive styles and the speaking scores ($r = -.083$, $p > .05$). The two-way ANOVA analysis confirmed this insignificance;

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i.e. the FD/I cognitive style, the gender, and the interaction of them did not have a significant effect on the speaking performance.

This study suggests some pedagogical implications that there may be no need for EFL teachers, advisers, test developers, and test users to consider test takers' cognitive styles and gender as sources of systematic variance in their speaking performance, and therefore, as sources of test bias.

Keywords: cognitive styles, field-dependence/independence, gender, speaking.

Introduction

The ability to speak a second/foreign language is widely assumed to be a distinct advantage for the speakers of that language. Particularly in an EFL context where there is no contact with native speakers, this skill has obtained higher prestige among the other skills. That is why there is a considerable amount of interest in the development of students' speaking proficiency. The oral skill has always been problematic for second language learners and this has been revealed in their speaking test performance. One of the potential sources of these problems in speaking test performance refers to differences in the cognitive characteristics of test takers.

Field dependence/independence

One of these cognitive characteristics is *field dependence/independence.* Brown (2000) defines field independence as the ability to perceive a particular relevant item in a field of distracting items. He defines field dependence as "the tendency to be 'dependent' on the total field so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, although that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole" (Brown, 2000, p. 115).

Field independence (FI) addresses the degree to which an individual focuses on some aspects of experience and separates it from its background (The word ''field' or ''ground'' is used for this kind of background; the term ''figure'' is sometimes used to indicate what receives focus and is thus pulled into the foreground.). Some extend the concept to refer to the ability to conduct abstract cognitive operations on the material that receives focus (Witkin et al., 1977).

Morgan (1997) describes findings that when the field is not clearly organized, individuals who tend to be field independent are relatively likely to impose their own structure on the material, whereas field dependent persons (FD) often accept it as it is.

Ehrman (1997) indicates that a field independent learner is adept at focusing a spotlight on data, distinguishing and focusing deeply on some specific aspect of the material being learned. Such a learner can look at the forest and pick out exactly the kind of tree in which she or he is interested. A field independent learner is likely to be relatively skilled at chunking information and working further with it.

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The term ''field dependence'' is used in two ways in the literature: absence of the kind of discrimination referred to as field independent and awareness of the entire field. Since field dependence is always measured by tests of field independence, it can safely be defined only as absence of field independence. However, because learners need to be able to be aware of background activity as well as bring information into focus and reorganize it, there is a positive aspect to what is traditionally called ''field dependence,'' which can enhance functioning in complex social situations. Complex social situations are in turn often involved in real language use, so this kind of 'field dependence'' is likely to play a constructive role (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

The oral skill has always been problematic for second language learners and this has been revealed in their speaking test performance. One of the potential sources of these problems in speaking test performance refers to differences in cognitive characteristics of the test takers. One of these cognitive characteristics is *field dependence/independence.*

The general hypothesis is that persons with a high degree of field independence would perform well on discrete-point tests, in which the items are unrelated to each other and to the overall context in which they occur. On the other hand, persons with low field independence might be expected to perform well on integrative tests such as speaking test, in which they are required to process the test in a global manner (Bachman, 1990). Therefore, this dimension of cognitive styles needs to be examined in order to see whether or not it has any effect on learners' speaking performance.

Objective of the Study

This study investigates the effects of students' degree of field dependence/independence (FD/I) and gender on their speaking performance. Particularly, the following research questions will be explored in this study:

1. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' degree of field dependence/independence and their speaking performance?

2. Do FD/I cognitive styles, gender, or the interaction of them affect Iranian EFL learners' speaking performance?

Significance of the Study

Today there is a considerable amount of interest in the development of students' speaking proficiency. This is because the ability to speak a second/foreign language is widely assumed to be a distinct advantage for the speakers of that language. Particularly in an EFL context where there is no contact with native speakers, this skill has obtained higher prestige among the other skills.

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The oral skill has always been problematic for second language learners and this has been revealed in their speaking test performance. One of the potential sources of these problems in speaking test performance refers to differences in cognitive characteristics of test takers.

One of these cognitive characteristics is *field dependence/independence.* So, since it is considered as one of the sources of problems in speaking performance, it needs to be examined carefully in order to find some remedies, both preventing test bias that would lessen the validity of speaking test as a measure of second language proficiency and also helping learners improve their speaking performance in the target language.

Literature Review

The concepts and methods derived from work on cognitive style over the past two-and-a-half decades are being applied at an ever increasing rate to research on problems of education. Among the cognitive styles identified to date, the field-dependence-independence dimension has been most extensively studied and has had the widest application to educational problems. While research on educational applications is still in its early stages, the evidence that research has already produced suggests that a cognitive style approach may be applied with profit to a variety of educational issues (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006).

The first studies in field independence/dependence were conducted by Witkin (Witkin, 1969; Witkin and Goodenough, 1981 cited in Ehrman & Leaver, 2003). It has been among the most commonly used language learning style dimensions (e.g., Chapelle & Green, 1992; Ehrman, 1997; Jamieson, 1992). Early studies that applied this concept to foreign language learning, e.g., Stansfield and Hansen (1983) found that field independent learners were better at classroom learning, as tested by discrete item instruments. However, the construct has been little tested with communicative outcomes.

Field-independence, in particular, has been found to correlate positively and significantly with L2 learning in school settings where the target language is taught formally. Genesee and Hamayan (1980), in their study of first grade English-speaking students in a French immersion program in Canada, reported significant and positive correlations between FI and both general achievement in French and French listening comprehension skills.

In the USA, Hansen and Stanfield (1981) found that field independence played a major role in the acquisition of linguistic competence for American college students enrolled in a Spanish course. The same researchers also found a positive but rather modest link between field independence and satisfactory scores on cloze tests, with a similar group of adult learners.

Likewise, Hansen-Strain (1984) found a significant positive relationship between field-independence and scores on L2 tests, which was particularly noticeable in the case of the cloze test and dependent to a certain degree on the learners' cultural background and

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gender. Finally, both Chapelle and Roberts (1986) and Carter (1988) found support for the correlation of field-independence with L2 learning in the case of college students.

Given the interesting relationship between field-independence and tutored L2 learning, Brown (1987) suggests that field-independence may be an advantage in classroom L2 learning. Conversely, he implies, field-dependence may be suitable in untutored naturalistic L2 acquisition from the environments in which language is being spoken around the subject. This may be because of the fact that naturalistic language acquisition involves natural communication in which field-dependent people may be more successful by virtue of their empathy, social outreach, and perception of other people.

In the same vein, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) indicate that more analytical field-independent characteristics are related to the conscious learning of metalinguistic skills, while field-dependence seems to serve the development of communication skills through subconscious acquisition. Thus, it is no wonder that Abraham (1983) discovered a significant positive relationship between Krashen's (1981) strategy of monitoring, which is part of conscious tutored learning and field-independence.

The study done by Alptekin and Atakan (1990) was designed to explore the relationship between L2 achievement and field-dependence versus field- independence and hemisphericity. The researchers reported that, as expected, the results of their study answered the first question (i.e. whether there was any relationship between L2 achievement and the field dependence/independence dimension of cognitive style) affirmatively.

A preliminary report on the relationship of field dependent/independent cognitive style to Spanish language achievement and proficiency has been provided by Carter (1988). A corollary question, according to Carter, concerns whether cognitive style and course orientation affects learners' perception of the process of learning a foreign language. Such perception may logically be assumed to influence choice of learning strategies, and thereby, perhaps the learners' degree of success. Carter found that field-dependent individuals were more advantageous for language learning.

Brown (1987) and Bialystok and Fröhlich (1978) postulated that field-independent learners may have the advantage in classroom foreign language learning because of the formal, or structure-oriented, nature of the classroom task, as opposed to a more natural or functional use of language for communication of meaning. The implication is that the supposed superiority of a field-independent cognitive style in classroom learning may be related to a distinction between the usual formal linguistic achievement orientation of classrooms and tests and functional language proficiency.

In their study, Naiman *et al.* (1978) also obtained significant correlations between field-independence and L2 learning for English speaking 12th grade Canadian learners of French. They concluded that field-independence is more important as a predictor of success in the higher stages of language learning than in the early stages. However, both in Carter's (1988) and in Hansen-Strain's (1984) studies field dependence/independence

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was found to have a significant effect even at the very early stages of language learning. Most field-dependent subjects in Carter's study received an ACTFL rating of novice-mid or novice-high, indicating that they were still largely dependent on memorized words and phrases for whatever communication they found possible.

In brief, Carter's study has a good number of implications and conclusions.

First, field-independent cognitive skills were found advantageous in this study for both formal linguistic achievement and functional communicative proficiency. These findings make us question the hypothesis that field-dependence and field-independence may be differentially related to formal-linguistic and functional communicative foreign language tasks or situations.

Second, we must ask whether the apparent advantage of a field-independent cognitive style at an early level of proficiency holds true for other proficiency levels or not.

Third, if a field-independent cognitive style really affects both achievement and proficiency, educators should implement ways of drawing on this factor in formal language education.

Finally, field-dependence and field-independence should be in the focus of attention of testing specialists who claim to be striving for the development of objective measures of language proficiency (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006).

In yet another study of the importance of field-(in) dependence, Abraham (1983) delved into the possible relationship between field-dependence/independence and the teaching of grammar. She claimed that her study provided insights into how students along one continuum of individual differences (i.e. that of cognitive style) internalize knowledge about one grammatical item in a second language.

Chapelle (1992) relates field dependence/independence to language testing by considering this issue as a source of variance in language tests. For the justification of her study, she claims that recent language testing research investigates factors other than language proficiency that may be responsible for variance in language test performance. There is some evidence indicating field-independence may be one variable, responsible for introducing systematic error into language test scores. In her study, Chapelle reports research investigating the relationship between field-independence and language measures. The results of her study indicate differential relationships of field-independence with cloze, dictation, and multiple-choice language tests. The relative strengths of these relationships also differed for native speakers in regular English classes, native speakers in remedial English classes, and nonnative speakers.

Other studies (Hansen-Strain, 1984; Hansen & Stanfield, 1981; Stanfield & Hansen, 1983) found relatively strong evidence in groups of adult second language learners of a relationship between FI and cloze test performance, which in some respects requires analytical abilities.

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However, recently, Yang (2006) found that learning style is not the effective factor in influencing student achievement. Field-independent students do not differ significantly from field-dependent students in their achievements. He concluded that students with different learning styles and backgrounds learn equally well and do not differ much in their use of learning strategies.

Regarding all the above-mentioned studies on this dimension of cognitive styles, i.e. field dependence/independence, no specific study has been done on the relationship between this cognitive style and speaking performance. Therefore, the basic consideration in this study is whether success on a speaking test is solely a function of L2 competence in speaking skill, or other nonlinguistic factors affect the ability to speak appropriately.

Theoretically, in a speaking test a person needs to employ a large number of interrelated skills that comprise a language system (e.g., lexical, grammatical, phonological, contextual) in order to be able to speak accurately, fluently, and appropriately. This speaking performance is said to happen through some strategies based on one's internalized language competence (Stansfield & Hansen, 1983). If so, it could be related to the cognitive restructuring abilities fostered by a field-independent cognitive style. As a result, speaking performance may make cognitive demands which allow the field-independent person to speak more easily or accurately regardless of second language proficiency.

On the other hand, field-dependent persons may be at a disadvantage when taking this type of test, since they are not as likely to use the strategies helpful to the solution of L2 speaking problems. In this case, a cognitive style bias would be operating in speaking performance; a bias that would lessen the validity of speaking test as a measure of second language proficiency (Stansfield & Hansen, 1983).

Method

Participants

A convenient sample of both female and male students from English Department of Shiraz University has been chosen to participate in the study. The participants of the study were initially 72 (50 junior and 22 senior) students who studied English Literature in English Languages and Linguistics Department at Shiraz University College of Literature and Humanities. The age of the participants ranged from 21 to 27. After the scores of Oxford Placement Test were obtained, those students whose scores were within one SD minus and one SD plus the mean were selected (N=53) and the rest were excluded.

Instruments

- *Oxford Placement Test by Allen (1985) has been used for proficiency level.*

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This test consists of 50 items, each with three alternative choices of which the testees have to choose the correct response. The first 20 items are meaning-wise independent of one another, the remaining 30 items, however, are sequential.

- *Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) has been used for FD/I cognitive styles determination.*

The GEFT (Oltman, Raskin, & Witkin, 1971 cited in Bosacki, Innerd, & Towson, 1997) is a group administered test that requires the subject to outline a simple geometric shape within a complex design. The subject must locate or separate the relevant information from the contextual field and restructure it to design the correct shape. In theory, this task discriminates the extent to which the person perceives analytically and is able to identify the relevant information within the organized field.

The GEFT includes three sections of increasingly complex geometric figures with the first or practice section containing seven figures, and the second and third sections, each containing nine figures. For each figure, students are requested to locate and trace a simple form embedded within the complex figure. Students were requested to trace as many of the simple forms as they can within a time limit of two minutes for the practice section and five minutes each for the second and third sections. Students received a score of 1 for each correct tracing of the simple form; the total test score was the number of simple forms correctly traced in the second and third sections combined, ranging from 0 (field dependent) to 18 (field independent).

Oltman et al. (1971 cited in Bosacki, Innerd, & Towson, 1997) obtained a test-retest reliability on the GEFT of .82 for both males (N=80) and females (N=97). Furthermore, the standardization of the GEFT had criterion validity coefficients of .82 (N=73) and .63 (N=63) for males and females, respectively (Bosacki, Innerd, & Towson, 1997).

- *Oral reproduction scores have been used for speaking performance.*
As for the participants' speaking, the mean of their scores on the two courses of Oral Reproduction 1 & 2 taken during two semesters in the second year has been used.

Procedures

a. Data Collection
In order to determine those students who are nearly at the same level of proficiency, Oxford Placement Test by Allen (1985) has been administered. Then the students' degree of field dependence/independence has been determined by the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), based on which the students have been divided into two groups of field dependent and field independent styles. As for the participants' speaking performance, the mean of their scores on the two courses of Oral Reproduction 1 & 2 taken during two semesters in the second year has been used.

b. Data Analysis

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First, the degree of the relationship between the FD/I cognitive styles and the speaking performance has been measured using simple Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. Then, to determine whether the students' degree of field dependence/independence and their gender affect the learners' speaking performance, a two-way ANOVA has been run.

Results and Discussions

Pearson Correlation and ANOVA were the main statistical analyses used in this study. Pearson Correlation is a statistical procedure in which scores on two or more variables are used to see whether or not there is any relationship between them. Moreover, ANOVA is a statistical procedure in which scores on one or more variables (i.e. independent variables) are used to show their effects on another variable (i.e. dependent variable). The scores of the speaking course are the dependent variable in this study, and the gender and FI/D (GEFT) scores are taken as the independent variables.

TABLE I presents the means and the standard deviations of the scores on the two variables.

TABLE I

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE TWO TESTS

Gender	Tests	Mean	SD
Male			
Speaking	17.25	1.21	
Style (FD/I)	10.75	3.20	
Female			
Speaking	17.80	1.17	
Style (FD/I)	10.20	3.22	

Speaking test scores are out of 20 and FD/I (GEFT) out of 18.

As TABLE I presents, the mean of the speaking test in males is 17.25 and in females 17.80. The standard deviations in the male and female scores are 1.21 and 1.17, respectively. Moreover, the mean of the style scores in males is 10.75 and in females equals 10.20; also, the standard deviations equal 3.20 and 3.22, respectively. So, on the one hand, the speaking mean score of the females are higher than that of the males, but on the other hand, the style mean score of the males is higher than that of the females. Therefore, it seems that the female learners are to some extent more FI-oriented than the male learners.

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TABLE II presents the means and standard deviations of the speaking scores based on the style variables.

TABLE II

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE SPEAKING TEST BASED ON THE STYLES

Gender	Style	Mean	SD
Male			
FD	17.37	.88	
FI	17.21	1.44	
Female			
FD	17.80	.86	
FI	17.80	1.26	

Speaking test scores are out of 20.

TABLE II reveals that the speaking mean score of the FD males is 17.37 and that of the FI males equals 17.21. Furthermore, it shows that the speaking mean score of the FD and FI female students are the same, i.e. 17.80. Therefore, looking at this table carefully, one can take some hints that there is little difference between the FD and FI speaking mean scores, and even between the males and the females; the discrepancies lie in some decimal fractions, so that they may be ignorable. This can be better revealed through the following table.

TABLE III presents the relationship between the learners' speaking performance and their cognitive style through Pearson Correlation analysis, which is the first focus of the present study.

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TABLE III

CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

	Style (FD/I)	Speaking	
Pearson Correlation			
Style (FD/I)		- .083	
Speaking Performance	- .083		
Sig. (two-tailed)			
Style (FD/I)		.554	.554
Speaking Performance	.554		
N	53	53	53

Level of Sig. is at .05.

As TABLE III illustrates, the correlation coefficient between the speaking test and the cognitive style (FD/I) is - .083 and the p-value is .554 and it is not significant (r = - .083, p>.05). Although the result of Pearson Correlation revealed that the students' scores on the GEFT correlated negatively with speaking grades, there is no significant relationship between these two variables; therefore, as far as the lack of significance is concerned, this negative correlation between the speaking scores and the cognitive styles (FD/I) is not meaningful.

Consequently, this lack of a meaningful relationship between these two variables, i.e. the speaking performance and the style (FD/I), will become more conspicuous through calculating ANOVA, assessing the effects of learners' FD/I styles along with their gender on their speaking performance, which is presented in TABLE IV.

TABLE IV

ANOVA: EFFECTS OF GENDER AND STYLE ON SPEAKING

Independent Variables	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cognitive Style (FD/I)	.031	.020	.887
Gender	1.36	.90	.347
Interaction of Style & Gender	.033	.02	.883

Dependent Variable: Speaking Test. (Level of Sig. at .05).

Looking at the ANOVA table (TABLE IV), one can make sure that the independent variables (the cognitive style (FD/I) and the gender) have not significantly affect the variance in the dependent variable (the speaking performance) because on the basis of the significance level, that is, p =.05, the effect is not significant, i.e. F = .020, p >.05 for the cognitive style (FD/I) and F = .90, p >.05 for the gender.

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Therefore, according to the results of this study, the insignificance of the cognitive style effect along with that of the gender on the learners' speaking performance, which is the answer to the second research question, confirms the answer to the first question of the study, i.e. the lack of significance in the relationship between the cognitive style (FD/I) and the speaking performance. In other words, there is no difference between the speaking performance of the field dependent and the field independent, male or female, Iranian EFL students.

Discussion

The insignificant effect of the learners' cognitive style (FD/I) as well as their gender on their speaking performance, which has been proved in Iranian EFL context and illustrated in ANOVA table (TABLE IV) in this study, reveals that, at least for this sample of Iranian collegians, the cognitive learning style (FD/I) may not be a strong factor in interpreting the learners' speaking performance. Besides, the learner's gender is also not a determining variable in their speaking performance. Furthermore, since the correlation between the GEFT scores and the speaking performance is not significant, one can conclude that not only do the cognitive style (FD/I) and the gender have insignificant effects on the speaking performance, but also there is no significant relationship among them at all.

Therefore, as far as the speaking test bias is concerned, it seems that the cognitive style and gender bias may not be operational in speaking solutions.

That is, the evidence in this study, which is in contrast with the results of almost all of the studies reviewed in the literature, assessing FD/I cognitive styles such as that of Witkin's (1969) in language learning, Bialystok's and Fröhlich's (1978) and Brown's (1987) in classroom foreign language learning, Dulay's, Burt's, and Krashen's (1982) in the conscious learning of metalinguistic skills, Stansfield's and Hansen's (1983) in classroom learning, Chapelle's and Roberts' (1986) and Carter's (1988) in L2 learning in the case of college students, Chapelle's (1992) in cloze, dictation, and multiple-choice language tests, and so on, indicates that field independent individuals do not perform better in their speaking test than do field dependent ones; or vice versa.

Based on this data, it appears that FD/I cognitive style does not explain L2 speaking performance.

However, the present finding is consistent with the findings of the most recent study done in this area by Yang (2006), who has found that learning style is not the effective factor influencing student achievement, and maintained that field-independent students do not differ significantly from field-dependent students in their achievements. He concluded that students with different learning styles and backgrounds learn equally well and do not differ much in their use of learning strategies.

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With respect to the findings of this study, and the fact that it was found out that there is not a significant relationship between field-independence/dependence and second language speaking performance, it can be suggested that field-independence may not be an advantage in classroom L2 learning in contrast to Brown's (1987) findings. We can also conclude that in contrast to Carter (1988) who had found that field-dependent individuals were more advantageous for language learning, this might not be always true.

According to the findings of this study, we might be able to conclude that in contrast to what Chapelle (1992) concluded in her study that field dependence/independence is related to language testing and the fact that this issue is a source of variance in language tests, may not always hold true. And factors other than the FD/I cognitive style and gender may be responsible for variance in language test performance. Field-independence alone may not be the most influential variable, responsible for introducing systematic error into language test scores.

The differential performances of field dependent/independent students on language tests may have not been because of FD/I cognitive style. Other factors may be involved in this process which indicates much more research is needed to shed light on this issue and to show exactly whether or not FD/I cognitive style can be a source of systematic variance in second language speaking performance in other contexts, and therefore, whether or not to be considered as a source of test bias.

Conclusion

With regard to the obtained results and findings, the following conclusions can be drawn in relation to the research questions. With respect to the first question, whether there is a relationship between the FD/I cognitive style and the speaking performance of the Iranian EFL learners, it was found that there is no significant correlation between the students' cognitive style (FD/I) and their speaking performance. Regarding the second research question, i.e. the effect of the FD/I cognitive style, gender, and the interaction of them on speaking performance, results suggested that none of them had a significant effect on the students' speaking performance.

However, it is believed that the results of different research around the world are generally context-specific and contextually determined. Therefore, the findings of the current study refers to the Iranian EFL learners and Iran context, and may not be fully generalizable to all contexts around the world due to the social, cultural, and even political and economic discrepancies, which may easily lead to differences in biological, cognitive, and affective states or styles. For this reason, there is a great need for much more research in this area in order to cover different contexts throughout the world and show exactly whether or not FD/I cognitive style can be a source of systematic variance in second language speaking performance, so that it may be, then, generalized as a proved issue.

Pedagogical Implications

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The lack of a significant correlation between FD/I cognitive styles and the speaking performance of the EFL learners, and also the insignificant effect of the two variables of the FD/I style and the gender on the speaking performance reveal some pedagogical implications for Iranian EFL teachers, test users, and test developers.

There is no need for teachers, at least in Iran context, to classify their students based on their FD/I cognitive styles and gender in order to teach the speaking skill to them more efficiently or systematically. In fact, the Iranian EFL teachers should take this into account that the learners' cognitive styles (FD/I) and gender are not considered as determining factors in the process of teaching and learning the speaking skill.

Therefore, it is recommended that the Iranian EFL teachers not focus on these two variables in teaching the speaking skill. Instead, they may search for the elements influencing EFL speaking performance other than FD/I cognitive styles and gender. They may do so either by going over some previously-done research on factors affecting speaking performance or by doing "action research" by themselves and mediating between the existing theories in terms of speaking and their own practices in the classrooms. This would help them to specify and recognize, through experience, those major factors which either help or interfere the learners' speaking performance.

Moreover, as far as the insignificance of the effect of these two variables (FD/I style and gender) is concerned, the EFL test developers and test users should know that FD/I cognitive styles and gender may not be considered as the influential variables, responsible for introducing systematic errors into EFL speaking test scores. The variance and the discrepancies in the scores of the field-dependent and field-independent, male or female, test takers on EFL speaking tests are not due to the type of cognitive style (FD/I) or gender they possess. Other factors may be involved in this process. This indicates that much more research is needed in order to show exactly what these factors are, and to what extent they can be considered as sources of the speaking test bias.

Limitations of the Study

This study, like many other studies, has a number of limitations. The number of the participants was relatively small (Nt = 53), especially the number of male ones (Nm = 10). This limitation may be due to the current economic condition of Iran, leading the males to join the working class of the society before getting admitted at universities, or may be due to the difficulty of the university entrance examinations in Iran. These factors will limit the generalizability of the results of this study to the other contexts and other populations. Therefore, the results of this study may be generalizable only to its immediate population; that is, those students who are studying English Literature at Shiraz University and not else where.

The other problem lies in the fact that this sample was a convenient sample and there was not any random selection. This will also limit the generalizability of the results of the study to other contexts.

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Another limitation can be the effect of students' motivation on the results of this study because those who participated in this study were reluctant to take part in it as it did not have any advantages for them. In fact, they had to take part in this study because their professor had made them participate. As a result, they had low motivation to take the tests or to answer the questionnaire. Perhaps, this can be the cause of the relatively odd results of this study which seems to be in contrast to the results of many previous studies.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research is needed in which all of the above-mentioned limitations would be taken into account. For example, future research can use a larger and random sample of students, with more male participants, to shed more light on the issue of test bias in general, and the factors that lead to the speaking test bias, in particular.

Moreover, one can take into account the possible effects of other factors that might be involved in creating such a result. For instance, another essential aspect that has been ignored in the past research efforts is the possible influence of other variables on the observed relationship between cognitive style and language learning. For example, the prevalence of field dependence differs between girls and boys; girls, on average, exhibiting greater field independence than boys (Cairns, Malone, Johnston, & Cammock, 1985; Witkin, 1979). Much more studies which take into consideration the students' gender seem to be needed in this area.

Furthermore, intelligence can also be taken into account in research on cognitive styles. Intelligence as a variable is of particular interest, since the superior performance of field-independent subjects in certain intellectual tasks has led some authors to suggest that cognitive style is nothing more than an alternative way of looking at dimensions of ability.

In this study, intelligence was not taken into account although numerous studies have reported a correlation between measures of FD/I and various types of ability; specifically general intelligence and spatial aptitudes (Bloom-Feshbach, 1980; Laosa, 1980; McKenna, 1983, 1984; McKenna, Duncan, & Brown, 1986). It seems increasingly clear that consideration of the possibility of overlap between these two variables, namely, intelligence and cognitive style, is essential in any study of field dependence-independence and intellectual variables. Further research can be conducted in which the effect of intelligence will be investigated along cognitive styles.

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A Critical Look into Basic Assumptions of Teaching English as an International Language (EIL)

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Abstract

The present paper is intended to explore some controversies that prevail in Basic Assumptions in Teaching English as an International Language (EIL). It focuses on the assumptions supposed to underlie the new approach to the English language teaching referred to as EIL. Assumptions are evaluated from different perspectives and the problems are highlighted. It is attempted to show that the new position for the English Language cannot lead us to any secure place, supposed to be characteristically distinct from its predecessors.

Keywords: English language; English as an international language (EIL); Basic assumptions.

Introduction

Drawing on the ideas of Smith (1978, 1981), and Nunan (1999), Talibinezhad and Aliakbari (2001), among others, have attempted to support a so-called new position for

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the English language teaching and learning across the globe. The main point is that the new conditions in the world require a new orientation towards the English language teaching, and thus the proper candidate is English as an International Language (EIL) as a viable substitute for the old EFL/ESL models.

To defend their stance, different authors enumerate and explain a number of assumptions, which are largely inconsistent, self-explanatory, and contradictory. This article is intended to shed light on some inherent problems existing in the assumptions provided to substantiate the proposed orientation. The assumptions are first reviewed and then the relevant problems are explored.

Points of Controversy

The following part presents the assumptions first and then they are reviewed. Attempts are made to show that the assumptions are not clearly formulated.

Assumption 1: EIL is universal

First, the assumption, as stated above, explains the global prevalence of English language. Therefore, the assumption is tautological and must be avoided. Moreover, the assumption is no more than the repetition of the statement to be made as the desired prospective position. As far as the function of an assumption is concerned, it should provide a ground on which to place the purpose. For example in the statement, "I think, therefore I am", thinking is the assumption for the second part to be realized. That EIL can serve as an assumption for EIL is simply a problem of circularity in the justification of that position. To make it clear, there is just one *single* proposition in the claim, namely, 'English as an International/universal Language', which is expected to serve both as the assumption and result.

Also, the description of the assumption cannot help much with the EIL as the substitute for the EFL/ESL. That English is widely used for a wide variety of purposes and by a larger number of non-native speakers is not debatable at all, but the point is EFL/ESL view has no claim to limit the use of the language so that the substitution, namely, the counter claim is justified.

Assumption 2: EIL is descriptive

This is meant to show the functional character of EIL. EIL characterized as focusing on the functions rather than on the form of the language can be welcomed as the easing of the tight native speaker-based norms for learning English. This fact does not have anything to do with the proposed substitution. The EFL/ESL notion is supposed to explain the kind of the environment in which the English language is to be learned , and

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as far as it is known, the same notion (EFL/ESL) has already embraced the communicative paradigm where the use (descriptive character) of language outweighs the usage or prescription thereof (Richards, 1983; Maley, 1983). Therefore, there is no need to make such a claim as to reject one in favor of another.

As regards this assumption, the proponents must note that the learners' equal right is not limited just to maintaining their relationship but to achieve transactional purposes as well. Thus, the emphasis on the function cannot be achieved by not giving any attention to some prescription for the form.

Assumption 3: Interactors in EIL are Unpredictable

This justification is also built on some self-created assumption. As discussed above, EFL/ESL explains particular situations where English is taught or learned; the former refers to the context of language learning without the actual social use of the language whereas the latter represents the conditions with the widespread use of the language in the society (Richards et al., 1992).

Though in both conditions (EFL/ESL) the frame of reference is native speaker, the authors do not specify the target *interactors* as the native or non-native speakers whatsoever. Therefore, it seems unlikely that any approach to language learning makes a strong claim as to the nature, terms and conditions of upcoming interactions.

It is noteworthy that the setting of goals, specifying of situations, and determining of the prospective interactors for the sake of teaching and learning should remain part and parcel of any organized syllabus, no matter it is called EFL/ESL or EIL. The determination of the pedagogic purposes (native speaker standard) surely is not supposed to block the situational/interactional changes when it comes to the real use of the language. If EIL maintains that this is not the case, then what criterion is suggested to serve the pedagogical purposes?

Assumption 4: EIL is Intervariatal

No doubt English is intervariatal, but the problem is that there is nothing new in this assumption at all. Before we had the idea of EIL, native speaker standard as the ultimate model had failed to acquire a uniform status/acceptance, and there had appeared some degrees of tolerance for dialectal/phonological variations. Therefore, this nomenclature (EIL) has nothing more to offer than what we may call a kind of 'a posteriori labeling'. The authors have not actually shown us a new way, but figuratively speaking, they have stuck new labels on the old bottles.

Assumption 5: EIL is Functional

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It is stressed that EIL refers to functions, *not to the form of the language*. Clearly it is ignored that the proponents of EIL already claimed it to be *intervariatal*, the point that has a distinct relation to the *form* rather than the priority of the *functions*. Therefore, one cannot disregard the importance of the *form* (emphasis intentional), though by form they seem to restrict themselves to the phonological form (Jankins, 2000) in the realization of the functions and at the same time wish for an intervariatal model of language.

Assumption 6: EIL is Non-artificial

Once again, the proponents have resorted to an irrelevant assumption for the consolidation of their position. Though the main point is to compare and contrast the old approaches (ESL/EFL) with the new one (EIL) to prove the superiority of latter, the proponents unexpectedly turn to an artificial language to get their idea through. EIL as the substitute for the old approaches has nothing to do with an artificial language, for example Esperanto.

Moreover, if the comparison is to show the significance of language parentage and background, EFL/ESL can make a better candidate than EIL which is assumed to be an amalgamation of different and variable sources.

One may also ask why EIL advocates should not choose an artificial language that could do away with all those problems in case they are looking for a language that is supposed to be universal, intercultural, functional and international.

In the way the advocates are trying to define EIL, i. e., an approach devoid of any sort of cultural or phonological bias, artificiality seems a strong rather than a weak point. The point 'being non-artificial' seems self contradictory because they wish to have something non-artificial and at the same time try to have a language divorced from historical and cultural background.

Assumption 7: EIL is Cross-cultural/Multicultural/Intercultural

Again, this part reveals the problem of tautology and verbosity. The apparently three distinct assumptions all revolve around the same axis, that is, they contend that EIL does not borrow the cultural norms for communication from native speakers but from all those speakers using English. In this way, these assumptions have no clear different purposes to convey.

More than this, EIL does not make it clear how the idea of culture is to be treated. Smith (1983) is reported to propose 'a value free or cosmopolitan English' and Stern (1992) is quoted as subscribing to 'the no-particular-culture-based language program'.

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Overall, it is not known which position will be recommended to have: (1) no culture at all; (2) all the cultures altogether or (3) just one specific culture at a time. The picture presented is absolutely distorted, that is, the advocates seem to admit all the above-mentioned options simultaneously. On the whole, they tend to say that EFL/ESL reliance on the native speaker culture is a disadvantage (hence EIL is preferred), but I believe it can be an advantage since in this case language learners can find their own standing in the world of cultures much better than if they are not exposed to the native culture of the language they are learning. As a result, they will be able to handle the cross-cultural conflicts more conveniently.

Assumption 8: Both Native and Non-native Speakers Need Training in EIL

The EIL proponents already based their positions on the criticism that the EFL/ESL models are sticking to the native speaker as the ultimate goal which is not desirable. As a result, they recommended EIL as the model which could relax the standards for the learners to benefit more from the language programs.

Ironically, if ESL/EFL models are not suitable and their goals are not achievable, then how we can justify the second position that native speakers can successfully get the training for something (non-native standards) which is not quite clear (Campbel et al., 1982). If we agree that native models are not achievable in EFL/ESL models, the implication we get is that non-natives have their own standards while learning the language, not paying attention to the goals set by EFL/ESL. Therefore, there is no further need to include EIL as a new approach. The only claim that can be made is that EFL/ESL model is already EIL.

Conclusion

In order to draw up a new orientation, one needs to base his explanations on some solid rigid ground to avoid further ambiguity. Though the proponents of EIL have tried to highlight the importance of the new approach, unfortunately they have deviated from the principles of comparison and contrast and have not added much to the already existing subject. The assumptions they have offered are in one way or another contradicting each other, and straying from the point of discussion.

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Digital Storytelling:
A Case Study on the Teaching of Speaking
To Indonesian EFL Students

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Abstract

Multimedia has become more appealing in the teaching and learning process, as it is interactive and encouraging. New advancement in technology usually arouses students' curiosity and, in turn, increases their motivation. This study investigates the implementation of digital storytelling in teaching speaking EFL students. The results show that students could easily produce communicative and understandable story using digital storytelling. They could understand other friends' story easily, so that they contributed actively and supportively in speaking class activities.

Key words: digital storytelling, teaching speaking, EFL students.

Recent advancements in digital technology have brought about some changes in educational sphere. Pertinent to this situation, previous research projects on the use of digital storytelling have tended to concentrate on classes of nonnative English speakers. The projects have shown that digital storytelling can be implemented and used well in teaching; digital storytelling can deepen students' educational experiences. De Craene (2006:1) rightly points

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out that digital storytelling can assist teachers to manage their classes: digital storytelling is helpful not only as a teaching technique but also for classroom management.

A confident opinion on digital storytelling has been expressed by Porter (2008:7). He says storytelling builds 21st century communication skills: creativity and inventive thinking, multiple intelligences, higher-order thinking (lessons learned), information literacy, visual literacy, sound literacy, technical literacy, effective communication (oral, written and digital), teamwork and collaboration, project managements, and enduring understandings. Digital storytelling helps develop a range of digital communication styles necessary to function in a knowledge society.

Building on previous research which has paid attention to the use of digital storytelling as a technique in teaching in general (e.g., Neal, 2004; Andrasik, 2001), conventional techniques for the teaching of speaking can be imbued with digital storytelling, for digital storytelling can be safely thought of as encouraging students' engagement in the speaking class activities. Brice (2009) shrewdly explains that kids tend to learn best through multi-modalities teaching. Since multimedia digital gadgets bear multimodal properties, digital storytelling can be safely believed to be able to help learners of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students to learn speaking.

Based on "ICTs" (2008), digital storytelling helps students to develop story literacy, media literacy, and visual literacy. Digital storytelling becomes effective in enhancing students' story literacy because it actually reflects students' habit in their daily lives, in which they grow up surrounded by stories told with pictures, words, and music particularly on television and in movies. It is, therefore, hypothesized that it will be a good idea to take advantage of this familiarity and the power to encourage students to create stories based on students' families and memories.

Bull and Kejder (2004) explain that an effective digital story can pursue, find out, and communicate new understanding that is rooted in who we are as humans. In addition, Doyle (1999), in his article "Language and Teaching Tolerance in ESL Classes" states that some research in bilingualism shows that students learn more actively when they are encouraged to transfer what they already know to their learning of English. This means that by empowering students to tell and share their own experience and story through digital storytelling, students will be more motivated in English teaching and learning process. Thus, it can be safely believed that, through digital storytelling as a teaching speaking technique, students may have materials to talk about in their speaking class because the topics are about themselves. An active and responsive class can also be anticipated.

Neal's research (2004) entitled "Storytelling at a Distance" studied about the movement of conventional storytelling to digital storytelling. The research has demonstrated that digital storytelling is effective for conveying informal information because of stories' capacities for subtlety, their attention-arresting nature, and their ability to convey layers of meaning. All these factors contribute to learners' tendency to remember and further ponder over stories' meanings.

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Another piece of research on digital storytelling is Andrasik's (2001) project entitled "FEI STU Bratislava Experience with Digital Story-Telling in Social Sciences Education." This research studied the use of digital storytelling in learning economics for Slovakian students. The project shows that digital storytelling is efficient in helping the students learn economics because the presentation of system dynamics approach using storytelling allows the students to understand a huge number of complex behaviors arising in contemporary economy. After successfully conducting the research on digital storytelling in helping the learning process of economic science, Andrasik (2001) believes that, naturally, such a mode of digital story-telling can be beneficially used for a lot of other complex subjects.

In short, previous studies have confirmed that digital storytelling can be implemented and used well in teaching. In this line, the objectives of the present project are as follows:

(1) to describe students' opinions on digital storytelling production,
(2) to describe the quality of students' digital storytelling,
(3) to describe the influence of digital storytelling on students' speaking skill.

Method

A case study was employed, which took a small sample—five students of grade VIII of *MTs Surya Buana*, Malang, East Java, Indonesia. As such, this project is preliminary in nature. Preliminary observations were carried out in order to render the students' speaking skill, identify the students' interest in learning English, and make decision on which students to work with. In conjunction with the observations, the researcher also sought for recommendations from the school principal and the English teacher for the selection of the students.

The above attempts resulted in the selection of five students: those who were good in English and had a sound ability in operating computer as the prerequisite in the production of digital storytelling. Since the students were not really familiar with digital storytelling, they were given some explanation about the step-by-step guide in the production of digital storytelling.

The observations of the students' speaking skill and interest also gave an overview of the speaking activities to devise. The implementation of digital storytelling was conducted outside the class period in the form of extra lessons, which took seven meetings. This was executed so, for it was the only way permitted by the school principal. In addition to observations conducted through total participation, the data collection was also carried out by distributing questionnaires to the students and also the viewer-students (those not involved directly in the project) dealing with the implementation of digital storytelling.

In short, the data were those gained from the results of observations of the students' participation and presentations, subject-students' questionnaire, and viewer-students' questionnaire. Additional data were in the form of documents, which included photographs and lesson plan. These additional data were used for verification.

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Results

Students' Opinion on the Digital Storytelling Production

To answer the first research question about digital storytelling production, five students' opinions on the production process were collected. The results indicate that four students liked immensely the implementation of digital storytelling, whereas, one student liked the implementation of digital storytelling. The digital storytelling production was considered not difficult by the students. It is apparent as three students had stated that the production process was neither difficult nor easy.

Furthermore, one student thought that it was not difficult and another student felt it was really simple. The easy process of digital storytelling production was also shown on the questionnaire and it discussed about the time needed for the digital storytelling production. The result shows that one student considered the production process to be really fast, while two students regarded the production process as fast, and another student said that it was neither fast nor slow.

Students' opinions about storyboarding process were also listed: storyboarding process was considered really helpful for digital storytelling production. Three students deemed that storyboard they made before the digital storytelling production really assisted them in the production process and two students stated that it was helpful without any adverbial emphasis. Storyboarding was also considered able to quicken the digital storytelling production; a student said it really accelerated the process, three sais it accelerated the process, and another neither felt it quickened nor decelerated the process.

In contrast to the above positive points, observations show that the students experienced difficulties in the narrating process when they had to match their pictures with their voices. Interestingly, however, they also said that narrating process was the most interesting process. This implies that they did not consider the narrating process as a problem.

To summarize, all the findings on digital storytelling production above confirm that students enjoyed the implementation of digital storytelling in English teaching-learning process and the production process was not difficult. A summary of the findings is shown in Table 4.1.

The Quality of Students' Story in their Digital Storytelling

The second research question is about the story in the digital storytelling. The data about students' story were obtained from students' scores on their presentation. The scores ranged from 1 to 4. There were four categories in scoring students' storyboard presentation. The first category was clarity of purpose. The result shows that all of five students earned score 3. The second category was image. For this category, three students obtained the highest score, one received 3, and another one obtained 2. The third category was the grammar used in telling story. Three students earned the perfect score, one students 3, and another one 2. In the fourth category, vocabulary, two students earned the highest score, two obtained score 3, and one obtained 2.

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Other findings about students' story were derived from the students' scores on the sharing occasion when they showed their digital storytelling to the viewers. There were five categories on scoring the students' digital storytelling presentation. The first category was voice consistency. In general, the students' voice consistency in telling their story could be deemed good. Three students obtained score 3 and two obtained score 2. Subsequently, the second category was the students' fluency in presenting their story. In this regard, one student earned 4, indicating that she spoke very fluently and without any doubt in answering questions. Two students obtained score 3, which means that the students were fluent but were sometimes rather doubtful in answering questions. Another two students scored 2, which means that they were often doubtful in answering questions.

For the third category, pronunciation, two students scored the best, two pronounced well, whereas one pronounced just alright. From the data obtained, it can be assumed that students had already had good pronunciation. The fourth category was the students' conversational style. Four students scored 3, and one scored 2. The last category was students' voice pacing. All of the five students scored 3. Score 3 shows that all students occasionally spoke too fast or too slowly for the story line, which means that the pacing (rhythm and voice punctuation) was relatively engaging for the audience.

Table 4.1 The Findings on The Digital Storytelling Production

INSTRUMENTS		RESULTS	OVERALL FINDINGS
1. Subject students' questionnaire after the implementation of digital storytelling	- Digitalizing process	- Students liked the implementation of digital storytelling they experienced - Students said that the production process was not difficult - Students stated that the time needed for digital storytelling production was short.	Students found that digital storytelling production was not difficult, especially because of the storyboarding process. In addition, the production did not consume much time.
	- Storyboard	- Students agreed that storyboard was helpful in digital storytelling production - Storyboard accelerated the digital storytelling production	
2. Researcher's journal		- Students found difficulty in the narrating process when they had to match their pictures with their voice. However, they mentioned that narrating process was the most interesting process.	Students did not find any problem in digital storytelling production

Based on the data from the viewers' scoring on the subject students' plot of story, generally, most of the subject students could produce a story with coherent plot. In terms of the diction, the story was considered to have correct good choice of words. With regard to stress and intonation, the subject students had average ability in using stress and intonation. As regards pronunciation, the subject students were able to produce clear pronunciation.

In conclusion, all the data obtained from the students' storyboard presentation, the students' digital storytelling scoring, and the results of viewers' questionnaire, the students could produce a communicative and understandable story. In addition, the students were able to produce a good story as indicated by coherent plot, correct diction, and accurate stress and intonation. The findings on the subject students' story within their digital storytelling are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2   The Findings on the Students' Story within Their Digital Storytelling

INSTRUMENTS		RESULTS	OVERALL FINDINGS
1. Students' presentation scores	- Storyboard presentation	Students could produce story with early planned of view purpose, communicative and logical images, correct structure of sentences, and correct variety of words	Students were able to produce a communicative story
	- Digital storytelling	Students' story already has articulate fluency, clear voice consistency and conversational style, and understandable pronunciation.	
2. Viewers' questionnaire		Students were already able to produce a good story that is indicated by coherence plot, correct dictions, stresses and intonations.	Students' were able to produce an understandable story

The Influence of Digital Storytelling on Students' Speaking Skill

The last research purpose was to investigate the influence of digital storytelling on students' speaking skill. In this regard, it was documented that all students could participate actively and supportively. Students' active responses were obvious in their active involvement in the speaking activities. In addition, students' supportive responses were evidenced in their ability to provide support or reasons for their statements.

In addition, the story board presentations also indicated that there was awareness of audience as well as emotive content. Two students could clearly explain why their selection of vocabulary, pictures, graphics and music suited the target audience. The other two students had some awareness of the audience in the design and could partially explain to what extent

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the vocabulary, pictures, graphics and music went well with the target audience. One student, however, had some awareness of audience in the design but found it hard to explain why the vocabulary, pictures, graphics and music that were selected fit the target audience.

In terms of emotive content, there was only one student deserving the highest score of 4, indicating that she could engage the audiences deeply and emotionally. The rest scored 3. Additionally, responses to the questionnaire shows that four students said that digital storytelling was really helpful in communicating their stories and one of them said it was just helpful. Asked about their opinions, all the five subjects conceded that digital storytelling helped them to learn speaking skill.

In addition, observations also indicate that narrating process allowed the students to speak a lot. The students' repetitions in telling their story could train their pronunciation. Also, by listening to their recorded voices in digital storytelling, students could assess their own fluency**.** The summary for the findings on the influences of digital storytelling on students' speaking skill can be seen in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3   The Findings on the Influences of Digital Storytelling on Students' Speaking Skill

INSTRUMENTS	RESULTS	OVERALL FINDINGS
Records of students' participations	- Students showed an improving progress in giving contributions by responding supportively, responding very actively, introducing a new (relevant) point, and digressing from the topic - Students started to be brave in asking questions, responding to the discussions and introducing new (relevant) points.	Digital storytelling made students contribute actively and supportively in the speaking activities
Students' storyboard presentation scores	- Students could explain why vocabulary, pictures, graphics and music that are chosen fit the target audience. - Students could engage audiences deeply and emotionally	Students already had ability in using speaking for communicative purpose.
Subject students' questionnaire	Digital storytelling was really helpful for students in learning speaking and communicating their story.	Using digital storytelling students already had ability in using speaking for communicative purpose.

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Researcher's journal	- Narrating process forced students to speak a lot. In the narrating process, students had to repeat pronouncing their story until they obtained the correct form so that it contributed positively for their pronunciation. - By listening to their recorded voice in digital storytelling, students could measure their fluency.	Narrating process in the digital storytelling production made students to speak a lot and practice their pronunciation and fluency

Discussion

Students' Opinion on the Digital Storytelling Production

As stated in the findings on the digital storytelling production, students liked the implementation of digital storytelling they experienced. The five subject students said that the production process was not difficult and they did not find any problem. One of the factors for the easy production process is the fact that they were facilitated through storyboarding phase. This phase provided the students with step-by-step scaffolding consisting of the constructing, arranging, and illustrating processes similar to that proposed by Orech (2007). Orech is right in saying that storyboarding allows students to structure their story and illustrate images using words. Additionally, storyboarding makes students work easily because it gives them time to design and assemble components that will be needed.

Besides, the researcher's guidance in the phase of storyboarding by projecting the students to write their own recount also made it easy to construct their story. The researcher's instruction is identical to Banaszewski's (2002) statement, i.e., if at the first writing process students come up with no idea to write, teachers could ask students to write about places where they felt comfortable, safe, or happy—places where they could just be themselves.

Moreover, in the storyboarding phase, by asking the students to tell and share their own experience and story, they become more motivated in English teaching and learning process. It is so because they usually have something in their mind; they know what they will talk and they are usually eager to share what they have experienced. Projecting students to transmit what they already know can encourage them to learn more actively. As pointed out by Doyle (1999), some research in bilingualism shows that students learn more actively when they are encouraged to transfer what they already know to their learning of English.

The data also show that storyboard accelerated the digital storytelling production. In the storyboard, students already had and prepared all the elements in digital storytelling so that their work on digitalizing their story would be easy. In this regard, McGrath and Patetl (2007) rightly believe that storyboard as a plan of the digital story has the function of showing the co-ordination of the key elements of the voice, the archives and images, and the music soundtrack.

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Therefore, in the digitalizing process, students just need to transfer all the elements they already had in their storyboard. That was why the five subject students found that storyboard made their digital storytelling production faster. We should note however, that in the narrating process, students found difficulties when they had to match their pictures with their voices. Yet, surprisingly, the students said that narrating process was the most interesting process.

The Quality of Students' Story in their Digital Storytelling

As noted above, up to the storyboarding process, the students were already able to communicate their story. By having purpose right from the outset, the students could lead their viewers to track their story. Additionally, the students' story indicated articulate fluency, clear voice consistency and conversational style, and understandable pronunciation of the students. The fact that, right from the start until the end of the process, the students had many opportunities to speak in English might help explain the students' success. This is in line with Cahyono's (1997:85) explanation, i.e., learning English should be an active process in which the learners should actively create conscious efforts to practice the language and look for many opportunities to use the target language they have learned.

An interesting point is that, in addition to the understandable story produced by the students, the students' choice of words also showed emotive contents, allowing the viewers to be glued to the story. This means that the students could communicate new understanding to their viewers. This also means that the students could come up with effective digital story allowing them to pursue, find out, and communicate new understanding that is rooted in who we are as humans (Bull & Kejder, 2004).

The Influence of Digital Storytelling on Students' Speaking Skill

Through the implementation of digital storytelling, the students were identified to quite active in giving contributions to the activities: they started to be brave in asking questions, responding to the discussions and introducing new (relevant) points. The positive progress in the students' speaking ability was also indicated by the students' storyboard presentation scores. The students could explain why vocabulary, pictures, graphics and music that were chosen suited the target audience. They could engage the audience deeply and emotionally. All these findings show that technology gains in importance of these following competencies: critical thinking, decision-making, ability to handle dynamic situations, teamwork, and effective communication. The findings show that digital storytelling contributes to help students communicate their own story effectively (Anderson & Weert, 2002:9).

It is interesting to note that narrating process forced the students to speak a lot. In the narrating process, the students had to repeat the pronunciation of some words for the purpose of telling their story until they obtained the correct form. This has contributed positively to their pronunciation. By listening to their recorded voice in digital storytelling, the students could measure their fluency. Also, the digital storytelling has trained the students to have effective communication and creativity. All this is in line with Porter's (2008) proposition that digital storytelling builds 21st century communication skills: creativity and inventive thinking, multiple intelligences, higher-order thinking (lessons learned), information literacy,

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visual literacy, sound literacy, technical literacy, effective communication (oral, written and digital), teamwork and collaboration, project management, and enduring understanding.

Conclusions

In light of the results of the present study, it can be concluded that the activities involved in digital storytelling production potentially encourage students to actively speak up, improve their vocabulary, and train their pronunciation and fluency. In short, digital storytelling allows the student to communicate well using a foreign language they are learning. It should be noted that this present case study was carried out as an extracurricular activity. Relevant to this situation, we also need to note that the production of digital storytelling does not consume much time. Therefore, we can assume that digital storytelling can be easily implemented in the class—it will not disrupt other language teaching techniques as shrewdly pointed out by De Craene (2006: 1), that is, digital storytelling could be used as classroom management for the teacher by keeping the time for the digital storytelling production.

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The Reasons behind Writing Problems for Jordanian Secondary Students 2010-2011

Rula Tahsin Tarawneh, M.A. Applied Linguistics

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Abstract

Jordanian students in the secondary schools face difficulties while writing English language. These problems arise because the students are not adequately familiar with English language and they do not have enough practice of it. This article highlights the main reasons behind the problems of writing and recommends some solutions to overcome them in the Jordanian classrooms. The skill of writing is one of the four skills of English language which must be taken into consideration and not neglected.

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Introduction

Writing in a foreign or second language is a courageous experience especially for students whose native language is not of the same origin as the target language. Arabic–speaking students learning English is a good example here. These students are faced with the school curriculum that includes the four main skills of English language. Among these skills, they find writing skill the most difficult one and face many problems while composing simple short paragraphs.

Writing in general is the least lovable skill to Arabic-speaking students and this can be contributed to the fact that successful learning of the writing skill depends on the success learners have with the learning of other skills. Normal teaching programs adopt the natural order of listening, speaking, reading and writing in their teaching schedule. Even though writing comes as the last skill, it can't be neglected and needs a lot of attention from the teacher and the student because it is necessary in daily academic life. Students are expected to learn how to be good writers. If they can't write correctly and logically using appropriate language and style, life will be difficult for them not only at school but in adult life, too (Neville, 1988).

The Objective of This Study

The objective of this study is to show that the roles of the teachers and the students go side by side when it comes to mastering writing problems which many high school students face in the public schools in Jordan. The problems they face could be as a result of the lack of knowledge in English language such as not being able build up adequate vocabulary. It is also due to the reason that the students do not know how to write words,   phrases, and sentences. They may also not be good at all in all the skills of the language. They may face a lot of native language interference or they may lack motivation.

Writing gives the opportunity to the students to be adventurous with the language, to take the risk and to go further of what is learned to talk about (Shouman, 2002, p.1). The teachers of English language who teach in high schools are aware of the difficulties involved in the process of learning how to master the different types of writing tasks and how to produce fairly coherent, accurate, meaningful and proper composition by high school students.

Problems Spring from the Inadequate Training and Skills of the Teachers

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The problem springs from the teachers themselves because they are second language learners of English and face and have faced similar conditions toward writing as students do. So, some teachers will only focus on errors and ignore the strategies of how to compose simple short paragraphs as a result of the lack of knowledge of the second language.

Writing skill offers a way of communicating one's thought and feelings on paper. So the message must be loud and clear between the teacher and the students. According to (Clifford, 1991, p.42), "The teacher has to encourage learners to write for communication. They should focus on the ideas and meanings they wish to convey rather than on mechanics of writing, such as spelling, and handwriting." The teachers play an important role in teaching writing and they are the only ones who could help prevent problems of writing that could slow the process of learning English, specifically writing. It can be done by encouraging students to write to communicate student to student, student to teacher, or student to foreigner.

I hope that this short paper will benefit many English teachers to identify the problems that should be avoided while teaching. This may give teachers the chance to help and lead the students to be better writers in the future using the foreign language with the least possible obstacles and to develop a deepened understanding of the delightful skill of writing.

Related Literature

Writing is a form of communication where the writer has normally someone other than himself or herself to whom he or she intends to communicate. If the writers cannot convey the message, then there will be no communication. According to (Reid, 1994), "shared knowledge" (p.2) helps communication. Arabic-speaking students should develop an understanding of this basic requirement (the knowledge that there must be common understanding between the writer and the reader) when they attempt writing in English. The awareness of who the audience is and for what purpose the task is being done can help writing and help become successful writers. Arabic- speaking intermediate students lack the control over their writing in English because they are in the process of gaining data as much as possible from the teacher in the early stages of learning a foreign language. Even the teachers of English need guidance while writing.

Freedom and Control

According to Brumfit (1984), free writing gives the students the chance to express their own thoughts and construct accurate forms with the direction from the teacher. I definitely have the same opinion because with supervision from the teachers, students will produce accurate forms despite the problems of spelling, punctuation and organization which give the students the chance to express freely and obviously what they aim to state. It is also indicated by Brumfit & Johnson (1991, p.136) that "Students can express themselves in a natural way in response to a real need." The students' need to communicate in English second language situation will help them to accomplish a combination of many incongruent grammatical and lexical elements in a form of coherent masterpiece of their own. The problem with combination is to find the right

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grouping of "freedom and control" (Brumfit & Johnson, 1991, p.136). Enough control to guarantee that the students' writing does not collapse into a bunch of mistakes, and enough freedom for the students to work out their own decision and learn something as an alternative of simply copying. The Arabic-speaking students need that freedom and control by the teacher in order to be certain that the written form is proper and acceptable English.

Teachers' Role

According to (Shouman, 2002), the teacher's role is to persuade the students to think how best to convey what he or she wants to say and to feel responsible. Encouragement gives students the feeling that they could be trusted for what they put on papers. Also encouragement gives students the confidence that they can learn to monitor and self-correct own errors to improve their overall accuracy. Teachers feel unsure of themselves when confronted with giving suggestion on students' writing (Digest, 1996, p.3). This supports the idea that teachers who do not get enough practice for writing approaches will not be able to give any advice to students to improve the styles of writing. Pinsent (1992, p.99) asks that we "Encourage students to write and look at what they produce." This will help students to talk about what they have written since speaking precedes writing.

The role of the teacher is to encourage the students' work and let them keep on writing, no matter how the output is. "What the student needs is to be able to write correctly so that he or she is not afraid to put words on paper because of apprehension that the text may be couched in non-literary language," (Neville, 1988, p.43). The teachers should backup students for whatever is presented. But this does not always work when students present unacceptable English. What teachers can do is to politely not accept the work with some comments on the weakness. They should not express 100% total dissatisfaction but, in an indirect way, point to the problems to be prevented in the future so that no hard feelings toward students expressed, making them depressed.

A knowledgeable teacher always finds ways to keep the students eager to write by providing topics of interest and yet related to the school curriculum. "Topics to be given to the students to write about are pre-selected by the teacher and should have some relationship to their English curriculum. Students will be able to write more, and more effectively, on topics that relate to their linguistic and social background and are within their semantic repertoire," (Smadi, 1986, p.35). The topics that are brought live to students will always give results that have never been expected. Teachers need to allow students to take a different role each time composing a written form. The role that is practiced by students will give them a chance of creativity and countless more ideas for writing (Runkle, 1988, p.55).

Student Preparation

If students know that real people will read what they are writing, then writing often comes much easier. The students must understand that interested people other than the teacher will read their

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works. So, it will not be only just a matter of completing the assignment. This will make students committed to what they have to present in the most appropriate way to decide what to say and how to say it (Leki, 1991). Knowing that real people will be reading their text for the purpose of cooperating in an act of communication will lead them to write in a responsible way. The real people could be from the same class, other sections of the same class or English teachers in the same school. "Parents or other adults speaking children's first language can also be invited into the class to work with groups of children," (Pinsent, 1992, p.99). Students will, then, recognize the writing act as a purposeful performance.

There are two conditions which contribute to better writing skills (Mallett & Newsome, 1977, p.166):

> 1. The writer must come to see that what he writes is seriously received by the reader. This happens if the writing is a genuine communication. 2. Each act of writing should enable the writer to know more about what he thinks, feels, or supposes. If these two conditions are to be met, the writing task offers an invitation to tell, explore or state, and suggest a real purpose, rather than an exercise or mere practice.

The aim of writing is to communicate the thoughts and actions on paper. "Writing is basically a process of communicating something on paper to an audience. If the writer has nothing to say, writing will not occur," (Oluwadiya, 1992, p. 12).

Prewriting

Prewriting activities offer students with something to say. It can create ideas, promote a free run of thought and help students to find out both what they want to say and how to say it on paper. Such activities can be done in pairs, groups or individuals effort. Some examples of prewriting activities: brainstorming, debating, interviewing, use of pictures, outlining, lecturing or oral reading.

Most of these prewriting activities can be successfully taught from the elementary to graduate-school levels. It can be done efficiently by guiding the students through each activity in the

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classroom. Students should also understand that prewriting activities are not only for starting writing but they will be used over and over again when the actual writing is done.

According to (Spack, 1984, p.656), "Prewriting techniques teach students to write down their ideas quickly in raw form, without undue concern about surface errors and form. This practice helps their fluency, as they are able to think and write at the same time, rather than think and then write." The job of the teacher again is to take their students through the prewriting stage of writing procedure if they are to improve students' writing aptitude in schools.

Other Difficulties Faced by Foreign Language Learners

Second or foreign language learners of English will face a lot of obstacles. They will be able to produce sentences which may be grammatically correct but will not sound English because of mother tongue interference. According to (Walters, 1983, p.18), "A student's writing may be grammatically correct, but unacceptable because of interference from the native language in style, usage, or arrangement of ideas."

Teacher and Student Involvement
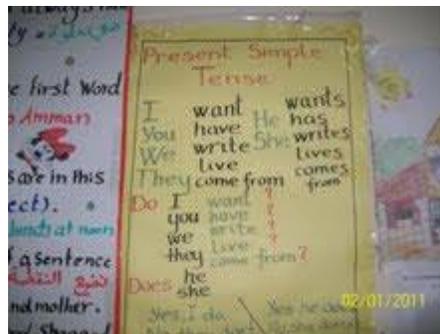
Since there are differences between the native language and the foreign language, the teacher who teaches writing should find ways to overcome these differences. These differences in grammatical structure, lexical items, and metaphorical patterns cause students numerous problems as they impose themselves their own language structure and conventions usage on the target language. The teacher role is to be familiar with the different techniques and try to use the one that will help students to avoid transferring the structure of their native language to the target language.

It is natural when teachers ask their students to write a composition without any previous ideas about the target language, the students have no choice but to do their writing according to similar concepts of the native language. It is a difficult task for the teacher who is also a second language learner too, but he or she must learn to teach how to write in an appropriate and acceptable way. According to (Walters, 1983, p.18), "There is a no win-win situation for both teacher and student. The teacher can avoid it, to some extent, by taking care not to put his students in situations where they have no recourse except to use their native language." As a

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teacher of writing, he or she needs to be extra careful to lead the task of writing in a smooth and acceptable way in order for students to be enthusiastic for going on with the process of writing.

Description of the Field Work

Writing is a way of communicating between the writer and the reader for the message to go through. The writer is always the student and the reader is the English teacher. Writing is not an easy task and requires a lot of practice and training to produce a well accepted written form in a foreign or second language. Being an English teacher for about fifteen years, it gave me the honor to work with Jordanian students in Al-Mazar District. Through my experience, I discovered that students do not feel happy when the writing lesson comes by. They rather take and use any language skill but not writing. I am an admirer of writing and that's why I encourage my students to write, no matter what the result will be especially for beginners. Since writing is a difficult skill and problems occur while writing, most students do not feel excited to write. I decided to search and find the main problems behind weak writing.

My fieldwork concerns all the students in seventh grade in our public high schools but, especially the seventh graders in Al- Jafariah Comprehensive School for Girls. This is the first time I teach the seventh grade. When I gave them the writing lesson after going through the procedure of writing and the different techniques, I asked them to go on and write on the given topic which was "MY IDEAL ROOM".

When I went through the assignments submitted to correct them, I was astonished to read what was on their papers, which reflected a very weak way of composing English writing. From that moment I decided to do research to find out why the students of public schools face many problems while writing a simple short paragraph in English class. Problems they faced included the following: lack of knowledge of the language where students did not have enough build up of vocabulary to their level, inability to construct simple short sentences using the simple tense, inability to decide where to start and when to end, lack of any idea about the organization of a paragraph and lack of any interest in the topics they were asked to write about.

How Field Work was Conducted

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The field work lasted for about two and a half months. Each time I entered the seventh grade class the lesson for the particular class period would be writing. I would go through the different techniques and styles in order for my students to appreciate writing and to make it part of their lives for so many years to come.

The first step that I followed for the field work was: I asked my seventh graders on October 20th, 2010 the first period, to write on one of the suggested topics, after asking them what topics they would be interested in. Students suggested many topics and some were like favorite animal, how to make the favorite sandwich, the closest person to your heart, and the favorite subject in school. They wrote the topics on the board and I asked them to choose one and to write individually for about 20 minutes with no helping ideas for the chosen topics.

After gathering the papers and grading them, I concluded from the students' writings that without any helping ideas for the suggested topics or any prewriting activities, most of the average students had nothing to say and gave me the paper with only the title of the topic. I also noticed that the good students wrote on the topics but with no appropriate development of the ideas. Then, I concluded that the students who were not given any prewriting activities for developing their thoughts would not be able to give the teacher any writing.

In the next step (second step) I wanted to test my conclusion that having some ideas would help students to write. I gave the same topics that were suggested by the students earlier and brainstormed some helping ideas, asking questions about who, where, when, why and so on and wrote all the details on the board for all the students to write on.

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Working in Groups

Then I asked the students to work in groups of three of different levels for 15 minutes on October 24th, 2010, the fifth period. While the students were writing in groups, I watched and observed carefully by taking notes on how they are dealing with the topics. I noticed that my students were getting really involved with the topics. No group was staring and not doing anything. Everyone was busy with the required assignment. Clearly, this response was different the reaction I noticed earlier. They were now getting involved in writing. After finishing the assignments, I collected and graded the papers with some mistakes ignoring errors of spelling, and punctuation. As for the organization of the written product, I found that the main idea was developed based on what was given on the board but the major problem that kept recurring was the transfer of the mother tongue Arabic structure into the foreign language, which is English.

Some Sample Writing from Students

Some examples from students in Al- Jafariah School writing which reflect the transfer of Arabic include the repetition of the conjunction ***and*** between words, phrases, and sentences whether the position requires the conjunction or not. This idea was mentioned by Al- Jarrah (1999) where he talks about the use of logical connectives in Arab students' writing in English, using the Arabic order: "the girl beautiful," rather than "the beautiful girl" to show the influence of Arabic in students' writing. Finally, students write as they pronounce words in Arabic, "juis" not "juice;," "nif" not "knife" and "sandwish" not "sandwich."

Meeting with Each Group to Discuss Their Problems

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Then, I met with each group of students and discussed with them their problems. Pinsent (1992, p.99) suggests: "Talking to children individually about their work is time consuming but very necessary." I listened to why students think their writing is so weak. I was surprised by the response I got. This was the first time in the students' period of learning that they were confronted with assignments of writing a short simple paragraph which consisted of about five sentences.

Also, the groups mentioned that previous teachers did not focus on writing short paragraphs but gave exercises, which required a word or two to complete or answer the required questions. Some also indicated that English is not easy to understand, so how will it be enjoyable to write paragraphs? Others said that writing even in Arabic is difficult, how will it then be in the foreign language, and English is not the student's favorite subject? Some students also mentioned that whenever they write in English or even think to write, the Arabic language gets in their ways. I took their viewpoints and tried to see if what they said were based on real facts.

Continuous Work in Class

I kept on giving my students each week two periods of writing. One period would be for introducing the procedure and the techniques to follow while students write any short and simple paragraph. The second period would be to give lots of care and attention to the whole class to see that the message in their writing is clear and try to give them some freedom while writing: Freedom in the sense that they can choose a topic of their own, develop own supporting ideas within the main topic and choose their own ways to start and end.

Excessive Dependence on Teacher

I wanted the student to be in control but what happened was that they always insisted on my guidance for the steps to follow. If I gave students lots of freedom without me intervening when necessary, students would face many difficulties. Students could not be in control of their own writing because it was the students' first year to face writing tasks. Even though earlier grades insisted on the writing skill, my students were beginners in writing. I also discovered that students' weakness in English stems from the way the teachers taught: they simply treated the class period as passing time. If students were taught English the way the curriculum is designed, then the problems students faced in mastering English language and writing would be minimized. Students end up with knowing nothing even though they have been learning English from first grade.

Week after week I noticed that the whole class was learning something new because I was encouraging students' effort to improve their level of performance in English and this happened with lots of patience, confidence, and trust. I got satisfying results because I was enjoying what I was doing. The students were improving in the way they wrote. They developed a passion and interest in writing because of the encouragement I kept on providing them with.

Recognition and Rewards for the Best Writers

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I assigned a super-writer chart for the ones whose writing was acceptable, gave extra marks, stickers, small gifts like a pencil, pen, ruler or candy. I let these students to take class attendance for three days (and this is an act of recognition), and be the leaders of the class for one period by choosing any lovable activity she would like to take on. No matter how these things are small, they worked well with my students and each one put all her effort to give the best that could be given. As time passed I got better results than the first time and this was due to the way the writing tasks were introduced and explained to follow while composing a written forms. All the time the students needed help, guidance, support, and to trust themselves that they have special abilities to give something worth reading which gave results that were wonderful after hard work and the continuation of writing on the desired topics by the students.

Preparation of Surveys

At the same time I prepared surveys: one for teachers and another for students in seventh grade asking them about the problems of writing in public high schools in Al-Mazar District. This was distributed in ten schools, five for girls and five for boys. I gave the teachers' survey to the teachers who are teaching seventh grade (2009-2010) and also to the teachers who have taught seventh grade in previous years.

Administration of the Surveys in Schools

The survey elicited responses under five categories: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. The survey had the following questions for teachers:

1. What is your gender?
2. What is your education?
3. How old are you?
4. How many years have you been teaching English?
5. What grades are you teaching?
6. I encourage students to use aids when writing.
7. My students can not write English.
8. I correct all assignments for writing.
9. I do not give ideas about the raised topics.
10. Writing activities are a waste of time and effort.
11. I follow the fixed procedure for writing activities.
12. I force students to use the dictionary.
13. I discuss students' assignments in class.
14. My students can express themselves in writing.
15. I go step by step with students during the writing activity.
16. I do not let my students feel comfortable before doing an writing activity.
17. I assign all writing activities at home.
18. I always let students choose their favorite topic to write on.
19. I neglect the writing skill.

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20. I discuss the topics before students begin writing.
21. The environment does not help to apply writing activities.
22. I use a **_Super-chart_** for excellent work in English writing.
23. I read all writing activities for students after correction.
24. I use topics from outside the curriculum.
25. I do not use the Teacher Book.
26. I follow the curriculum topics and I am bond to them.
27. I have lots of time to do the writing activity.
28. I do not return paper to students after correction.
29. I place students in pairs and groups to do special writing activity.
30. the English syllabus is not very long.
31. Students think in Arabic and write in English.
32. I do not have time to do all writing activities.
33. I do not use topics out of the curriculum.
34. I listen to students carefully when they raise any question.
35. I follow all the procedures for writing from Teacher's Book.
36. My students use any style they like while writing.
37. I encourage my students' writing.

The number of teachers who were requested to fill in the surveys was about thirty-five who had to answer thirty-two questions with reference to general information like gender, education, age, and years of experience. I also gave the same teachers of seventh grade three surveys. They were asked to give one to the excellent student, another to an average student and the third one for the low-achieving student. This was done to see if the students in the schools that got surveys faced the same problems as my students, or my students were the only ones who were weak in writing English in Al-Mazar District.

Administation of the Surveys to Students

After correcting the sample writings, I found out that the students of seventh grade in the public high schools were not at all good in writing composition. All the seventh graders were weak and had the same common problems as my seventh graders, such as lack of knowledge of the

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language, mother tongue interference, and lack of motivation. The students' survey consisted of thirty questions and two for the English marks for earlier grades. The survey's questions for the students are:

1. What is your mark for 5th grade?
2. What is your mark for 6th grade?
3. I write all activities for all units in class.
4. I know how to write words.
5. I want to write but I can not.
6. I have problems in writing English.
7. I am not praised by my teacher when I write.
8. I want to learn to write.
9. I do not have a build-up of English vocabulary.
10. I translate from Arabic the words that I need for writing.
11. I know how to write short simple sentences.
12. I can not write at all.
13. I like to write at home.
14. I do not like the writing topics that are given to me.
15. I never use the **_COURSE_** when I write.
16. In English class, we do not take writing activities.
17. My teacher does not like my writings.
18. I do not write at all in English class.
19. I did not k now how to write English from earlier grades.
20. I am not good at English.
21. I do not write because I do not know the English language.
22. I use a **_COURSE_** when I write.
23. I get help when I write.
24. I get extra-points when I write an excellent work.
25. I can not write without anyone's help.
26. I do not know how to form short simple sentences.
27. I write but I do not know my mistakes.
28. I make mistakes, I get punished.
29. I do my writing assignments but I never get them back.
30. I hate English lessons.
31. I like to write in classroom.
32. I like to use computer, dictionary, or other helping aids when I write.

The above questions are answered based on the range from strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, or to strongly disagree in English and was given to sixty-two students of seventh grade in all the ten schools including my own students in Al-Jafariah Comprehensive School for Girls.

The questions were read to students one by one carefully so that students could answer the questions without any hesitation. I made sure that all the questions were understood to get the truth out of the answers and I gave the students' time in order to think and then decide on the most appropriate answer. Also I asked the chosen students to write four to six sentences on the

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topic they preferred and to indicate their marks they obtained in their fifth and sixth grades in English language. This was done to have an idea of where the chosen samples stood in English in order to see if they faced problems or not in writing English. But three-fourth of the samples did not get any marks. So, I did not count the marks for any evaluation. I followed the procedure in all the schools that were chosen for the sample study. It took five days for about four to five hours a day for the distribution and the gathering of the surveys.

Evaluation of the Responses

After gathering the surveys, I placed the questions into variables giving each one a number for both surveys. The categories of strongly agree got two, the agree one, the undecided zero, the disagree category got minus one and the strongly disagree minus two for the students' and the teachers' surveys. Those numbers were entered and evaluated using the SPSS program. The results of students' survey were quite believable in the way it was answered with lots of care by the students. There were only two questions that received the standard deviation of lower than one and they were variables eight and ten. Those variables are found in the descriptive statistics in the appendices.

Generalizations

(Variable 8) indicates that students want to learn to write which received a standard deviation of (0.98). I imagine that this question got a lower than one because of the way students felt toward English learning. It may be also due to the fact that they did not get enough support. Or, they were not encouraged to try to take any risk. It is also possible that they thought writing was not important or had other things to worry about. This kind of question will need more study in order to get to the real reasons for that result. This question will support my proposition, which goes for lack of motivation. If students were provided with enough encouragement I think they would have wanted to learn all the skills of English language and especially the writing skill.

(Variable 10) does not support my hypothesis, which is the transferring of the mother tongue into the second language. The standard deviation was (0.95) where the students claimed that they did not use their Arabic language while writing English. I think this question needs more study because I am not satisfied with the result. But result presented here is based on the students' answers. The variables that got above one are also useful to defend my hypothesis. (Variable 19) indicates that students in earlier grades did not learn how to write from words to short paragraphs and the result was (1.50) which shows that teachers are to be blamed for what results we have of students of not being able to write well. It could be that teachers themselves are not motivated to teach in the most acceptable way, or they are not confident when it came to writing and that's why it is neglected and this will be proven in the analysis of the teachers' survey.

The problem could have started from the teachers and ended with students and it will go on if the problem is not tackled soon by those who are in authority.

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(Variable 5) also attracts my attention. Students want to write but they do not know how to do it. This question resulted in (1.60), which indicates that they are willing to write but the problems lie on the way to do it and those who are responsible for the mess are the teachers. If students were shown ways how to write, I think the future will be full of great writers, and they would be able to translate and transfer our voices as far as possible.

Another important variable is (variable 28) where the teacher punishes students when they commit mistake(s), which got (1.51) to give a clue about the encouragement those students should get no matter how weak the writing they present. Their writing must not be dealt with sarcasm or with punishment for the mistakes. Students can be shown where they committed the mistakes and teachers could try to help them to prevent such mistakes in the future. The feeling that students get when they are punished is not helpful at all because it will decrease their enthusiasm to learn how to write. Teachers definitely do not want that behavior.

(Variable 7) also supports this point through the result of (1.25). The result indicates that teachers do not make their students feel proud. Also, students show that they do not like the topics that are suggested by the teacher or in the textbook. Response got (1.43) for (variable 14). This shows that students want to be in control of what topic to choose but the problem is that teachers are forced to follow the textbook. What teachers can do is to give similar conditions but change the topic and let students' choose the topic if the results are satisfying.

According to students, they think they can write better if it is done at home where they can get help in addition to the help from the teacher. This is proved by (variable 13) which got (1.36), (variable 25) which got (1.51), (variable 31) which got (1.56), and (variable 32) which got (1.33). These variables indicate that students are always eager to get help either in classroom or outside classroom to be able to write English properly, accurately and meaningfully. The most important (variable 21) got (1.27) which really supports my proposition of lack of knowledge of the language which leads the teacher to ignore the writing skill because the teacher is a second language learner like the students. (Variable 20) got (1.40), which indicates that if students are not good in English and lack the knowledge of the language, they cannot write English.

Teachers' Survey

As for the teachers' survey, most of the questions were lower than 1.00 which indicates that teachers should be taken into more consideration for next study. This also shows that teachers are the primary reason for existing problems in mastering writing. The most important (variable 7) got (0.61), which shows teachers were not convinced that their students faced problems in writing the answer. If what the teachers indicate is true, then writing English is easy to the students. But yearly results of the Twejhi exam prove the opposite where English always received the lowest percentage. Another proof which shows that this result is not acceptable is that students themselves admit that they do not know how to write English. Teachers are not sure about writing. They focus on other skills, which they find somehow easier such as grammar and reading. (Variable 19) got (1.24) and the result defends my proposition. (Variable 16), which deals with students not feeling sure of themselves while writing, got (1.01).

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The teacher's survey included two questions (variables 26 and 33) which focus on the same idea but in two different styles. The results should be the same but were different where (variable 26) got (1.11) and (variable 33) got (1.22). This shows that teachers answered randomly without any care to understand the purpose behind such questions. As for (variable 36), it shows that students were not allowed to write in own styles which got (0.75). This question supports the idea of lack of motivation from teachers and was influenced on students. Also, (variable 37) presents the lack of encouragement by teachers on students work which got (0.74).

Another important (variable 35) shows that teachers who went step by step in any writing task got the result of (0.85). This indicates that students were not introduced to prewriting activities. Finally, the responses for (variable 24) received (1.29). This revealed that students showed high interest in topics from outside the curriculum. (Variable 9) received only (0.83). This shows that teachers did not give background ideas for the topics. The standard deviation is under one because the question was in the negative form. This question proves that my hypothesis that teachers lacked the knowledge of not using prewriting activities is not accurate. I notice after going through the results of data that writing poses the greatest problem to students.

Conclusion

Writing helps us to express our thoughts and feelings on paper in order for the reader to see through the writer. However, schools in Al-Mazar District have students that face real problems in writing mainly because they lack the knowledge of the language. Their teachers are also in the same boat. Teachers lack motivation to teach writing since their skill writing English is equally not impressive. Teachers are not adequately motivated to teach writing by those who are in charge of the program. Surprising, it seems that the interference of the mother tongue is not seen as a problem by the students as seen in their answers to the questions raised in their survey.

I conclude that through practice one could learn no matter what the conditions are and if the learner is willing to learn he or she will develop better skills and make a difference. Also, the sorrowful thing is that writing is neglected in schools by most of the teachers because they find it difficult. If writing is taken seriously by both the teachers and students, writing will be seen easier and full of excitement than any other skill. Writing skill allows one to think and express how he or she feels and gives the learner a privilege to be a king or queen in his or her writing.

I recommend for the one who is in authority to take these suggestions for real purposes.

Teachers should monitor students and give diagnostic tests at the beginning of each year of study to see where students have any problems. Decisions can be taken as to what to do next, in order to help individuals or groups of students. Also all attempts by students are praised and encouragement is given endlessly to the students. The teachers of English should provide students with a relaxing atmosphere and make them feel free to have a go at writing in order to display their skills and to work and share with other students from inside or outside the class. To help students to improve their writing, we need to give them extra periods for writing and provisions for this should be made in the weekly schedule. Another recommendation is to

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provide students with CDs that teach them various methods of writing. Better competence and performance may be achieved in the foreign language by providing opportunities to use all the skills which lead the student to understand and use words, phrases, sentences, and then short paragraphs. Students should show responsibility and patience toward writing even though the progress is slow. But one day they will get good results and be good writers.

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Appendices

Teacher's Survey Results:

Variables	Results
1	**-----**
2	**-----**
3	-----
4	-----
5	------
6	1.07
7	0.61
8	1.21
9	0.83
10	1.05
11	0.73
12	0.93
13	0.89
14	0.53
15	0.75
16	1.01
17	0.89
18	0.64
19	1.24
20	0.91
21	1.08
22	0.61
23	0.84
24	1.29
25	0.76
26	1.11
27	1.07
28	0.93
29	1.21
30	0.86
31	0.59
32	1.18

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33	1.22
34	0.90
35	0.85
36	0.75
37	0.74

Students Survey Results:

Variables	Results
1	------
2	------
3	1.21
4	1.02
5	1.60
6	1.57
7	1.25
8	0.98
9	1.60
10	0.95
11	1.34
12	1.05
13	1.36
14	1.43
15	1.09
16	1.37
17	1.66
18	1.87
19	1.50
20	1.40
21	1.27
22	1.79
23	1.01
24	1.09
25	1.51
26	1.78
27	1.86
28	1.51
29	1.83
30	1.34
31	1.56
32	1.33

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The Reasons behind Writing Problems for Jordanian Secondary Students 2010-2011

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A Multidimensional Approach to Cross-Cultural Communication

Jaspreet Kaur, M. Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

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Abstract

The study of languages other than one's own can not only serve to help us comprehend what we as human beings have in common but also assist us in understanding the multiplicity which underlines not only our language but also our ways of constructing and organizing knowledge and the many different realities in which we all live and react.

This paper on Cross-Cultural Communication, also referred as Intercultural Communication, will focus on how people from differing cultural backgrounds communicate in similar and different ways among themselves and how they endeavour to communicate across cultures.

Now is the time to break the old cultural barriers which can be a hindrance to Global Capitalism as we want our students to be well-equipped for overseas work in a globalizing market.

This paper also focuses on the programme that should be developed to train students to understand how to act when they are abroad and how languages open many more opportunities for them and lead to a dream job.

Even with all the goodwill in the world, miscommunication is likely to happen, especially when there are significant cultural differences between communicators. Miscommunication may lead to conflict. Though English is considered the most important medium of communication, there is still need for having knowledge of other languages when communicating with people of other countries.

All communication is cultural. It draws on ways we have learned to speak and give non-verbal messages.

Introduction

We live in a global village which is closely connected with the Internet. A person can find out what is happening in another country thousands of miles away, by going online. Travelling has become uncomplicated. Almost anyone can get on a plane and visit a foreign country for a quick visit or a long stay.

Even with all the access, Indian students in general, are not known for their cross-cultural competence.

Culture studies focus on comparing and contrasting two different cultures. This paper examines the aspects of cross-cultural communication and presents strategies that can be used by teachers of English in India. Apart from this, it will further suggest means to improve communication and present the importance of non-verbal communication.

> Cultures provide our students ways of thinking, ways of seeing, hearing and interpreting the world. Thus the same words can mean different things to people from different cultures, even when they talk the same language. When the languages are different, and translation has to be used to communicate, the potential for misunderstanding increases. (http;//en.wikipedia.org/wiki/cross-cultural communication)

We all live in a culturally diverse world. So, it is obvious that our students will encounter individuals from different races, religions and nations in their day to-day encounters. Effective Communication with people of different cultures is especially challenging.

> The challenge is that with all the goodwill in the world, miscommunication is likely to happen, especially when there are significant cultural differences between communicators. Miscommunication may lead to conflicts or aggravate conflicts that already exist. (Le Baron, 2003)

Therefore, it is incumbent upon us to educate the students of today about cross-cultural communication and make them understand how people from different cultures communicate with each other.

There has become an increasing demand for universities across the world to integrate intercultural and international understanding and knowledge into the education of their students. International literacy and cross-cultural understanding have become critical for a country's development in all fields. It has become essential for universities to educate or, more importantly, transform to function successfully and contentedly in a world characterised by close complex relationships and overlapping borders. Students must possess certain level of global competence to understand the world they live in and how they fit into this world.

Origin and Development of Cross-cultural Communication

Before delving deep into the strategies which a teacher in India should take into consideration, it is essential to know from where the study of cross cultural-communication initiated and developed. As we know man is a social animal and it's his nature to progress. So the study of cross culture communication is a result of the insatiable desire of man's progress. With the desire for growth every business wanted to expand. Therefore,

> The study of cross-cultural communication was originally found within businesses and the government both seeking to expand globally. Businesses began to offer language training to their employees. Businesses also found that their employees were ill-equipped for overseas work in a globalizing market. Therefore programmes were developed to train employees to understand how to act when they are abroad. (http://en.wikipedia.org)

Suggestions to Enhance Cross-cultural Communication Skills

To have a smooth pace with the globalized world, we as teachers must be master communicators who can influence young minds in positive ways. In a diverse society, there is a pressing need to communicate cross-culturally to educate students in the art of cross-cultural communication.

Communicating one's ideas is the key to knowledge. As such, it is extremely important for educators to elicit academic performance from students that is based on communication skills.

Fundamental Elements and Some Methods to Impart These Elements

There are three fundamental elements which embody the spirit of cross-cultural communication:

1. Intercultural awareness
2. Intercultural sensitivity
3. Intercultural communication competence.

Intercultural Awareness

For a student, intercultural awareness and learning is a must. It can be possible only when such learning is integrated in the curriculum along with language learning. Through the development of intercultural awareness, the students will learn to identify and accept similarities and differences. Teachers need to plan lessons on cultural awareness. They can also improve intercultural awareness by methods of instruction like - field trips, reading assignments and watching drama.

Intercultural Sensitivity

> You are culturally sensitive if you are able to look at different cultures from their cultural frame-of reference, rather than from yours. You have

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cultural empathy. Not only in your thoughts, but you know your limits, you are able to move between multiple frames-of-reference, without losing your identity, with great cultural flexibility and respect. (IS: FDTIC, pg 69)

Students must learn to respect and tolerate cultural differences of their peers and also have an understanding to gain access to people of the other cultures. Being able to walk in another person's shoes is an acquired ability that takes training and practice. Teachers should adopt methods of instruction that enhance intercultural sensitivity like role playing, group discussion and paired exercise.

Intercultural Communication Competence

The components of intercultural competence are knowledge, skills and attitudes, complemented by the values one holds because of one's belonging to a number of social groups, values which are a part of one's belonging to a given society. (DICIP, p. 5)

If a student inculcates these values, it will not only improve his tolerance level but also develop his intercultural awareness and sensitivity. Communication competence reflects having the ability to negotiate and interact well across cultures. Methods of instruction that can be implemented by teachers for this purpose are reading, writing and speaking. Apart from this, by increasing the level of discussions and brainstorms in the classroom, a teacher can expect students to make cultural connection that may last forever.

Preparing the Curriculum and the Syllabus and Their Implementation

As an educator, it is our responsibility to ensure that our classroom supports intercultural awareness, sensitivity and communication competence. Without an understanding of cultural diversity, it is possible for teachers to neglect the different needs of every student. Developing curriculum that addresses cross-cultural communication is one solution to this ever present problem.

Designing the right lesson plan is not enough. Teachers must use the plans consistently and make sure that students understand learner objective/s. If such a thing is done, it will ensure that students are focused on academic success as they gradually develop the capacity to tolerate other's differences. This can be done by using cultural contexts for class activities and testing the students on their comprehension of other cultures.

A teacher who wishes to raise cross-cultural awareness should teach the students the basic tenets of acquiring culture and the problems of miscommunication that can happen when people from different cultures interact. Teachers should play the role of informants in guiding the students about other cultures by providing them such study material and motivate their interest in the comparative study of cultures. They can use international projects that promote language learning as well as cross-cultural competence. These projects often involve writing to students in a different country. They can also have video presentations and photo reviews. They can use self made material to explore a particular cultural focus in depth and also learn with and from others.

Communication Skills Needed for Academic Success

A major responsibility of teachers at all grade levels is to teach the language and communication skills needed for academic success, and for career and social mobility. It's rightly said that by the great German poet Johann Wolf Gang Von Goethe in1827: "Whoever is not acquainted with foreign language knows nothing of his own". The study of languages, other than one's own can not only serve to help the students understand what they as human beings have in common, but also assist them in understanding the diversity which underlines their language and knowledge.

What Should the Teachers Do?

We as teachers can train the students to explore the cultures and communication conventions of those whom they propose to meet. They will curtail the risk of making the elementary mistakes. It is also prudent to set a clear agenda so that everyone understands the nature and purpose of the interaction.

When language skills are unequal, clarifying one's meaning in five ways will improve communication.

1. **Choosing words carefully**: At times words spoken can be misinterpreted. Therefore, students should avoid using slang and idioms, and choose words that will convey only the most denotative meaning.
2. **Listening skills**: Poor listening skills can disrupt a student's communication. They should listen carefully and if in doubt, ask for confirmation of understanding. Listening skills will also help the student to read the body language of the other.
3. **Accent and Tone**: Keeping the tone into consideration is equally important. Students should recognize the accenting and intonation carefully. It may cause meaning to vary significantly.
4. **Behaviour and Body language**: Customs and culture should be respected and the students should also be aware of the local communication formalities and styles, and watch for any changes in behaviour and body language.
5. **Knowledge of literature**: Students should have a thorough knowledge about the other cultures before entering into any kind of a communication with them. This can be possible when they examine also the other's culture perception to their own culture by reading literature about cultures through their eyes before entering into communication with them.

Impact of Kinesics and Non-verbal Communication

Hence, as our planet ages and communities become more multicultural, it is the classrooms that have to reflect a global society where students must gain knowledge to interact and generate harmony.
Students are coming to class with an increasing diversity of cultural communication styles, multicultural values and non-verbal communication behaviour that may be unfamiliar to teachers.

It is a daunting task for teachers to improve cross-cultural communication competence and to teach students from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Teachers need to raise their awareness of important differences in non-verbal communication which includes kinesics, between cultures especially those that have a direct impact on teaching and learning in the multicultural classroom.

Non-verbal communication can be very challenging. If the message is not translated correctly, it might lead to serious misunderstanding. Communicating efficiently is essential as it will also influence our relationship with others.

> Communication is interactive, so an important influence on its effectiveness is our relationship with others.
>
> Do they hear and understand what we are trying to say? Are they listening well? Are we listening well in response? Is their mood positive and receptive? Not only these, there are a hundred questions that come in our mind. The answers to all such questions will give us some clues about the effectiveness of our communication and the ease with which we may be able to move through any kind of conflict. (Le Baron, 2003)

Non-verbal communication is hugely important in any interaction because we tend to look for non-verbal cues when verbal messages are vague or ambiguous.

Non-verbal communication is defined by anything consisting of eye contacts, facial expressions, and patterns of touch, gestures, spatial arrangements, and tones of voice, expressive movements, head nodding, and even hand shaking.

When a student first learns to speak a second language, he may be deterred from fluency by his non-verbal signs. "Changing with each culture", is the translated definition of body language. When at first exposed to a new environment where attitudes, language and behaviour are all unfamiliar, students may often suffer from cultural shock.

As with varying meanings from country to country, it is easy for misunderstandings to occur. Thus culture influences every aspect of non-verbal communication. Equally as vital to convey a message or an image, it is important to understand how performing smooth interaction requires eloquence and articulacy with not only spoken language but with visual as well.

Conclusion

Therefore we see that the study of cross-cultural communication, verbal and non-verbal, is fast becoming a global research area. With the increasing pressures and opportunities of globalisation, many universities from around the world are taking great strides in intercultural understanding through process of organizational change and innovations. They are taking immense pains to incorporate such understanding and knowledge in the education of their students.

Thus, to keep in pace with time, universities need to make sure that they are open and responsive to changes in the outside environment. They need to be in progress with cultural changes and be prepared to adapt to these changes. If our students will not have understanding of different cultures then how will they communicate effectively? Cross Cultural Communication will definitely enhance the personality of a student; make him more confident and competent enough in today's globalised world.

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A Study to Identify Problems Faced by the Heads of Secondary Schools in Kohat in North-Western Frontier Province, Pakistan

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Abstract

This study was designed to make a survey of the difficulties faced by the heads of Secondary Schools in Kohat district in North-Western Frontier Province in Pakistan, with an objective to explore the factors leading to various difficulties.

The population of the study included all the Secondary Schools in Kohat district. The sample of the study was 32 secondary schools, 16 Rural and 16 Urban. Out of the 16 rural schools, 8 schools were Boys' and 8 Girls' schools. A questionnaire was developed for the heads of Secondary Schools for the collection of data. The questionnaires were personally given to the heads of Secondary Schools. The percentages of respondents were good for the purpose of the study.

The major conclusions of the study were as follows: The higher authorities did not co-operate with the heads in solving various problems of the schools. There was shortage of teaching staff and menial staff. Majority of the heads of secondary schools did not offer proper guidance and counseling services.

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The major recommendations of the study are as follows: Immediate attention should be given to solve the serious problems faced by the heads of secondary schools. The funds are not sufficient to provide adequate facilities for the students. Hence it is recommended that funds should be raised from the public.

Keywords: Heads, Teachers, Secondary Education, Secondary Schools, Social Economic

Introduction: Importance of Secondary Education

Secondary education is an important sub-sector of the entire education system. On the one hand, it provides middle level work for the economy and, on the other hand, it acts as a feeder for the higher levels of education. The quality of higher education, which is expected to produce high quality professionals in different fields of social, economic, and political life of the country, hinges on the quality of secondary education. This level of education, therefore, needs to be organized in such a way that it prepares young men and women for the pursuit of higher education as well as prepares them to adjust to their practical lives meaningfully and productively (Govt. of Pakistan, 1959).

Headmasters of Secondary Schools must be given effective control over the affairs of their schools and should have the responsibility similar to the authority of headmaster elsewhere in the world. They must be the type of persons who can handle their staff and public, individuals whose ideas carry weight and whose character is an example for their students (Govt. of Pakistan, 1959).

The leader of a school can be successful only when the leader secures the willing cooperation from his or her co-workers and make them realize that they also have the responsibility to solve the problems the schools face (Morphet, 1960).

The relations of the headmaster and teachers must be characterized by reciprocity and not by rivalry. Both must share whether the enterprise fails or succeed because one cannot without others cooperation (Reavis, 1942).

Education System in Pakistan

The education system in Pakistan consists of a number of stages: primary, middle, secondary, higher secondary/intermediate, and college and university levels. These categories overlap and so does the administration of institutions overlap in each category. For example, there are schools/colleges offering education from nursery to degree level (class XIV), even to masters' level. Principals of such colleges are responsible for the overall administration of the colleges. But the staff of that college/school may be under the directorate of schools or colleges for the purpose of transfers, promotions and posting, etc.

The structure of formal education system in Pakistan can be summarized as follows.

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Table: 1: EDUCATION SYSTEM IN PAKISTAN			
S.No	Level	Schooling	Age
1	Primary	Five years	5-9 years
2	Middle	Three	10-13
3	Secondary	Two	14-15
4	Higher Secondary/Intermediate	Two	16-17
5	Higher (College)	Two	18-19
6	Higher (University)	Two to Five	20 and above

Source: (Rasul, 1998)

There was a proposal in the National Education Policy 1979 to make education a 3-tier system as: Elementary (I-VIII); Secondary (IX-XII); and Higher (XIII-above). The three-tier system could not be implemented effectively. But as a result of this exercise we have higher secondary schools with XI and XII classes in the secondary schools with very large enrolment.

Presently, the education system in Pakistan comprises the following tiers: Primary (I-V); Secondary (VI-X); College Education (XI-XIV); and Higher Education (XV and onward).

Apart from these regular tiers there are institutions for Engineering, Technical and Vocational Education; Medicine, Teacher Education, Agriculture; Business and Commerce and Law (Farooq, 1993).

Importance of Secondary Education in the Life of Students

Secondary education is a stage where a student enters adolescence. This is the most crucial stage of life. The basic perceptions and modes of behaviour start taking shape and problems of adjustment with the new roles in life assume critical significance. Four years of secondary education, therefore, provide an excellent opportunity for the educationists to conceive and launch programs that initiate the learners into proper forms of behaviour and attitudes (Baloch and Khalid, 1990).

In the past, secondary education could not attract attention in terms of efforts and investment. The perennial problem of illiteracy and the legacy of backwardness in the field of science and technology have forced the governments to give greater priority to these two areas. Now, we have reached a stage, where the number of universities in the public and private sectors has raised to 110 including degree-awarding institutes, the number of primary schools has crossed the mark of 2,60,000. It is, therefore, most appropriate to address the problems of secondary education seriously. With increased emphasis on quality of primary education and renewed efforts to check the high drop-out rate at primary level, the secondary level of education now needs to be prepared for comparatively heavier influx of aspirants to this level (Iqbal, 1993).

Aspects of Secondary Education in Pakistan

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Compared to primary and elementary education, the base of secondary education is very narrow. The enrolment of girls is particularly low. Due to lack of planning in identifying the schools, the areas of highest concentration are overlooked. On the other hand, there are also large areas, which are not covered by adequate facilities. Expansion of schools in an unplanned manner, therefore, needs to be discouraged and we need to proceed very cautiously and in a planned manner (Govt. of Pakistan, 1979).

There are two sectors working side by side in the field of secondary education, i.e. private sector and government sector in Pakistan. The National Education Policy (1979) states that private sector plays an important role in the development of education in the country. It helps both in the qualitative improvement and the qualitative expansion. Private sector bears a good deal of burden of the expenditures on this important social cause even in the most advanced countries. In a country like Pakistan where the population growth rate is about 3 percent, annually and only about 20 percent of the existing children are in the secondary schools, the support of the private sector is needed to share this huge burden (Quddus, 1990).

Regulating the Secondary Education in Pakistan

The nation also needs assurance that the private institutions would maintain high quality and provide the required physical facilities (Govt. of Pakistan, 1979). In pursuance of the National Education Policy of 1979, the Punjab Private Education Institutions (Promotion and regulation), Ordinance No. 11 was passed in 1984. The governments of NWFP and Sindh adopted similar Ordinances. These Ordinances demand the registration of all private institutions with a Registration Authority, the constitution of a managing body for each institution, and spell out the conditions for registration. Under these conditions, the government approval was considered mandatory for the adoption of a fee structure by each private institution.

The Need for a Re-orientation of Secondary Education

The secondary education is the most defective stage in our entire educational organization and it needs urgently a thorough examination and complete reorientation. During the vital period of secondary education, the objective should be more inclusive, embracing the needs and problems of adolescent life, which is the most critical period of the individual development. The allied problem of the determination of the impact of society upon the individual and the reaction of the individual to society should be carefully resolved (Mohiyuddin. 1956).

The fact cannot be overlooked that during the period of secondary education, individuals exploit the young boys and girls of the country. The energies of students, instead of being channeled into worthy social purposes, are harnessed to destructive activities. We need to recognize that the large body of youthful students provide raw material for the future leaders of every wall of life. Education of the youth constitutes the biggest challenge to the nation and the salvation of the nation depends on facing and successfully meeting this challenge (Spears, 1950).

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Another point, which may be mentioned in connection with the secondary education, is the great importance of programs of educational and vocational guidance and of the provision of variety of curricula to suit different talent and aptitude (Louis, 1987).

It is a fact that the destiny of every nation is shaped in the classrooms. This implies that education is the main source of progress and development. It can be said without hesitation that education is mostly responsible for the future of Pakistan. Through education, nation building process for the future citizens of the country takes place. From this point of view, a lot of responsibilities lie with the educationists to improve the quality of education and make it relevant. Therefore, the education must be so organized that the students would develop necessary knowledge, skills, and attitude to perform their duties effectively. It is in this context that quality education becomes the most important ingredient to enhance the quality of life in any country. It is so worthwhile to raise some issues in this regard and think of their solution (Spain, 1956).

Statement of the Problem

The main purpose of this research paper is to find out the problems faced by the Heads of secondary schools in district Kohat.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To identify the problems faced by the Heads of secondary schools in district Kohat.
2. To investigate the qualification of teachers, the enrolment of students as well as student-teacher ratio in secondary schools.

Method and Procedure of the Study

The study was designed to make a survey of problems faced by the heads of Secondary Schools in Kohat district with an objective to explore the factors leading to various problems.

Population

All heads of the Secondary Schools in Kohat District were included in the population of the study.

Sample

The sample of the study consisted of 32 heads of secondary schools: 16 Rural and 16 Urban. Furthermore out of 16 rural schools 8 schools were Boys' schools and 8 were Girls' school. Similarly, out of 16 urban schools, 8 schools were Boys' schools and 8 were Girls' schools. Random sampling techniques were used for selecting sample of the study,

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Research Instruments

A questionnaire was developed for the heads of Secondary Schools for collection of data. The questionnaires were personally given to the heads of Secondary Schools. The percentages of respondents were good for the purpose of the study.

Data Collection

Questionnaire was got validated from the five heads of Secondary Schools. Their suggestions were incorporated in the questionnaire. Questionnaire was distributed by the researchers and to some place through mail. In this way the data were collected from the entire sample Schools.

Data Analysis

Data collected through questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed by using percentages. Then interpretations were made. Recommendations were made in the light of the conclusions and objectives of the study.

Results

1.   Analysis of academic and professional qualification

Table 1:   Distribution of respondents according to academic and professional Qualification

S.No	Academic & Professional Qualification	No. of Teachers	Percentage
1	B.A., B.Ed	8	25.00%
2	B.Sc., BEd	7	21.88%
3	M.A., BEd	4	12.50%
4	M.Sc., BEd	1	3.13%
5	M.A., M.Ed	4	12.50%
6	B.Sc., MA, B.Ed	2	6.25%
7	B.S.Ed	2	6.25%
8	M.A. Edu	2	6.25%
9	B.A., B.Ed., M.Ed	1	3.13%
10	B.Sc., B.Ed., M.Ed	1	3.13%
	TOTAL	**32**	**100%**

Table 1 show that 25% percent of the teachers were B.A., B.Ed. The second largest group was with 21.88 percent of the teacher were M.A., B.Ed. The other group of teachers at Sr. No. 4, 9,10 were just 3.13% each having the qualification of M.Sc., B.Ed, BS, B.Ed., M.A. Education, B.A., B.Ed, M.Ed, and B.Sc, Bed., M.Ed., respectively.

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2.   Analysis of Questionnaire of Heads

Table 2: Overall Problems Related to Teachers

S.No	Statements	Yes Percent	No Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Cooperation of Staff	66.7	33.3	100%
2	Obedience of Teacher	58.3	41.7	100%
3	Time Table adjustment	45.8	54.2	100%
4	Teachers transferred with permission.	58.3	41.7	100%
5	Teachers work regularly.	41.7	58.3	100%
6	Teachers take part in co-curricular activities	32.5	62.5	100%
7	Teachers conduct class outside school	25.0	75.0	100%
8	Teachers force the students to serve them personal affairs	62.5	37.5	100%
9	Majority of teachers has mastery over the subjects	29.2	70.8	100%
10	Refresher courses held to refresh the knowledge	41.2	58.3	100%
11	Subject wise properly qualified teachers available	37.5	62.5	100%
12	Teachers avoid teaching to 9th and 10th class due to ACRs.	70.8	29.2	100%
13	Teachers cover the course	70.8	29.2	100%
14	Teachers cooperate with their colleagues	58.3	41.7	100%
15	Teachers investigate students against the other teachers	54.2	45.8	100%
16	The curricula being taught at school is according to growing needs of the society.	37.5	62.5	100%
17	The curricula is revised regularly	33.3	66.7	100%
18	Subjects and content being taught is relevant to the present and future needs to society.	62.5	37.5	100%

Item 1: Over all responses indicate that cooperation of their staff enhances the performance of their principals.

Item 2: This shows that most teachers feel proud to obey the principals' orders.

Item 3: Third item showed that principals agreed that some of their teachers were happy with the timetable adjustment, and many others are not happy with timetable adjustment. It means that improper schedule of timetable is unacceptable to their staff members, which causes the low performance of their teachers.

Item 4: The principals agreed that teachers got themselves transferred with the permission of the principals. Most of the teachers obey their orders.

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Item 5: Fifth item shows that most of the teachers are not willingly taking part in co-curricular activities.

Item 6: Sixth item shows that many of the teachers were not performing their duties well in the absence of the principals. Most of the principals indicate that their teachers were not cooperative.

Item 7: This item indicates that only a few school teachers show interest in conducting classes outside the school hours.

Item 8: Teachers force the students to help them in carrying out their personal work.

Item 9: Majority of teachers have no mastery over the subjects.

Item 10: No refresher courses were held annually for years for the teachers, so there was shortage of subject specialists in the schools.

Item 11: A number of teachers avoids teaching 9th and 10th class, because the annual examination results (which may be poor) are entered in their service registers.

Item 12: Subject-wise properly qualified teachers were not available.

Item 13: Most of teachers covered the portions of the course in time.

Item 14: Principals indicate that teachers cooperate with and help their colleagues when they face any problems.

Item 15: It is habitual that some teachers instigate students against the other teachers.

Item 16: The curricula did not being taught at school did not meet the growing needs of the society.

Item 17: It is the opinion of the respondents that the curriculum is not revised regularly at regular intervals.

Item 18: The last table indicates that 62.5 % of the principals agree that the subjects and the content taught are relevant to the present and future needs to society, while the remaining 37.5 % disagree with this statement.

Conclusion

The study results revealed that the heads of secondary schools enjoy the cooperation of their staff and stated that their teachers feel proud in obeying their orders. The heads expressed that their teachers take part in co-curricular activities and teachers cover the courses adequately.

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Majority of the heads expressed that their teachers were unhappy with the time table and also their teachers do not work well in the absence of the heads of schools. All the heads said that teachers do not conduct classes outside the school hours and many expect the students to help them with their personal (non-academic) work.

On the basis of the analysis, it was concluded that majority of the heads of schools felt that the school building did not adequately meet the needs of the students and that the higher authorities did not co-operate with the heads of schools in solving various problems of the schools. The study results revealed that majority of the heads of schools felt that there was shortage of teaching staff and/or menial staff.

Majority of the heads of schools opined that proper guidance and counseling services were not available for the students in their schools and the provision of medical facilities for the students is generally inadequate. Moreover, the provision of funds was insufficient to meet the needs of the schools and students.

It was found that the heads of schools felt that audio-visual aids and teaching aids in the schools were insufficient. The heads were consulted while transferring their teachers. There was no librarian in many schools and also science laboratories were not well equipped.

Recommendations

Following recommendations are given for solving the problems faced by the heads of secondary schools in District Kohat. These recommendations also aim at improving the teaching-learning situation in the Secondary education institutions.

The funds are not sufficient to provide adequate facilities for the students. Hence it is recommended that funds should be raised from the public.

A committee may be constituted comprising of the representatives of teachers, students and parents.

It has been stated that a heavy load of teaching work is assigned to teachers. So, it is suggested that more teachers may be appointed in each school.

Financial problems should be given priority while solving the problems. Facilities such as buildings, play grounds, apparatus and equipment, and audio-visual aids should be provided.

Parent-Teacher Association and other cooperation techniques should be adopted to make the parents, teachers and students come closer in order to solve the problems.

More facilities should be provided to rural schools.

The heads of secondary schools should adopt democratic behaviour and try to solve the problems cooperatively with the help of their teachers. The concerned authorities should provide immediate assistance to heads of schools in administrative matters.

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Go Beyond Education to Professionalism - Transition from Campus to Corporate

Rupinder Kaur Gandhi, M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

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Abstract

The objective of the paper is to show how a trainer has to mould his teaching especially when he or she teaches communication skills and personality development, so that their meets the requirements of the corporate world.

The first part of the paper discusses the difficulties existing in the present teaching world. Campus training should not be confined to classroom teaching. The classroom teaching impacts you alone, while at work your performance impacts the organization as a whole, your bosses and your co-workers.

The second part of the paper deals with proper curriculum which will be entirely practice-oriented. Students will get acquainted with an environment identical to corporate world where they will be trained to meet the deadlines. They will be tested on everyday basis so that they become accustomed to performance reviews and not judge themselves in accordance with the scores in report cards. Emphasis will be on collective projects and critical reasoning.

Introduction

Business world is entirely a new world where companies and organizations talk in terms of profits and goal settings. Then why would any organization recruit candidates who are just

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educated but not professionals? Today it is necessary for a progressive business school to have an edge to stand out from the clutter.

With a very little emphasis on practical knowledge and its implementation, Indian colleges have gained the reputation of churning out muggers minus brains to apply learnt knowledge. This paper tries to explore the present scenario existing in Indian campuses. Let us go beyond education and accept learning's co-operative and communicative approach.

English and communication have created a deep-rooted impact in corporate world. Corporate talk is in terms of profits and, of course business. Why would they recruit candidates who are fully equipped when it comes to core subjects but lagging behind as far as their communication skills and personality development is concerned?

Colleges and universities deserve a fair amount of blame for the lack of critical thinking and problem solving skills among graduates. We need to change the way we teach. Some of us keep saying this but, overall, universities have been slow to change when it comes to communication. No doubt communication as a subject is included in the regular curriculum of professional courses and is treated as a full-fledged subject with titles such as Professional Communication, Business Communication or Communication, etc.

But have we ever seriously considered the following question: Are the students really interested to study literature, especially Francis Bacon or O'Henry or Shakespeare in the form of a communication dosage. Certainly not! What will they do by filling page after page writing about the theories of communication? When at work, a corporate entity demands emotional intelligence, critical thinking and creative as well as sociable mind. If this is the case, then, why English should be treated as a theoretical subject where college pupils are required to get a green signal just to show good results in their mark sheets?

Problems in the Curriculum

> The existing curriculum focuses on enhancing learning quotient. It includes the learning and evaluating the subject matter. The students receive considerable passive exposure to grammar, translation, vocabulary and semantic information from written sources, but little exposure to communicative situations, or required to actively use English (West and West 1997).

Why go far, this is in case of many business schools where students are made to mug up the entire lexicon and students feel proud of it when they come up with bombastic words like *Epicurism* which literally means devotion to food, drinks and pleasures or may be *valedutinarium* which means one who is anxious about health.

Students give 100% efforts to accumulate all these high sounding words in their brains but problem arises when it comes to its usage. They are not able to form sentences or even if they are able to do it, the words are certainly misused. For example, they can utter lines like, "I love eating that is why I am an Epicurism."

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All students are taught the same material. English classes are not communication-based; rather it is directed towards student-preparation for only the university examination, which principally tests a student's general ability to memorize. The examination is far from being communication-based (West and West 1997).

Most of the lecture theatres are teacher-oriented and teacher-directed. Teacher's preparation and training do not emphasize communicative practices. Furthermore, classes are large (frequently 50-60 even 70 students in a class), which decreases the time for any student-teacher interaction.

Many business schools and professional colleges have started employing a soft-skill trainer who has a practical knowledge of corporate life. No doubt, they do expose students to foreign teaching methods and the ways of corporate life and at least to some degree of communicative language teaching. But a limited integration of such soft skill trainers with the official curriculum cannot meet the existing demand in the market.

Apart from the above problems in the classroom, there is a major challenge before a teacher of communication. It is a struggle for some students to learn the English language. For a teacher to make these students communicate in English is a big thing. This category of candidates always struggles to be on track. Some students are from vernacular background that are good enough in core subjects but are not able to converse in English. These students have a will power and capability to at least go through the English grammar and make them get acquainted with the rules but still struggle when it comes to the spoken part.

Result of the Combination of These Factors

Campuses have many students who lack confidence in using English. They have low motivation to learn to communicate in English and a high motivation to memorize English in a non-communicative form. Many students have very little or no understanding or ability to reproduce English sounds. In this respect, they are far away from being creative to meet the requirements of corporate life (West and West 1997).

The reputation and goodwill of most of the B Schools depend upon their internships and recruitment programmes. Thus, it has become all the more indispensible to bring a change and think beyond classroom teaching. Oral exams and other didactic interactions between professor and students are sorely needed.

Therefore, an activity based curriculum will surely help students to go through a smooth transformation and bridge the gap between campuses to corporate. English classes should centre upon activity based technique as a solution to get rid of rote learning that has paralysed our existing academic system in colleges.

The idea that student employability is enhanced by work-related and work-based learning has considerable face validity. Work-related learning is a loose term covering activities that are intended to contribute to a student's fitness for employment. It includes classroom activities that are designed directly to:

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Teach propositional or formal knowledge that is of value in an occupation;
Develop something of importance in a particular occupation (triage or classroom management).

Foster generic practices, such as team-working and interpersonal fluency (Knight: 103).

"The more you practice, the more fluent your English speaking is." But the Indian education system does not leave room for any practice**.**

Activity-based Curriculum

A curriculum which can surely meet the shortcomings of the existing one is entirely an activity based curriculum. It has been designed keeping in mind some of the objectives which are as follows:

Objectives

1.   To inculcate the ability to listen to and read instructions and then carry out those instructions.

2.   When asked for information, the individuals should be able to respond both orally and in writing.

3.   Reading activities will include comprehending what has been read.

4.   Students will be able to become sharp thinkers and will be able to make sound decisions.

5.   To make a student think critically, act logically and evaluate situations to make decisions and solve problems.

6.   To effectively bring good personal skills in an individual which will make them more confident and they will deal with others honestly and openly displaying respect for themselves, their co-workers and their supervisors.

7.   To foster a team spirit in the students so that they are willing to work within the culture of the group.

8.   To imbibe positive attitude and to make them take initiatives to learn new things to get the job done.

9.   To ensure that the students have good communication skills so that they gel well within a team, and can effectively communicate their ideas.

The objectives mentioned above have been framed after keeping in mind a vision of the ever widening and ever changing market trends. The curriculum which is entirely activity based is certainly a contrast to the existing one.

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The demand of the corporate says where learners develop in confidence and self esteem they are more likely to achieve.

The Basic Layout of an Activity Based Curriculum

Module 1: Practical language skills

1. Basic vocabulary with activity games.
2. Expanding headlines.
3. Developing proverbs into paragraph.
4. Explaining common processes.
5. Writing formal and informal letters.
6. Using punctuation.
7. Writing specific instructions.
8. Describing jobs.
9. Preparing resumes.
10. Completion of a given story or situation.
11. Summarising.
12. Writing reviews (books and movies)
13. Report Writing
14. Proposal Writing

Module 2: Recognizing the Impact of Soft Skills

1. Reviewing case studies.
2. Share and discuss ideas and challenges with peers.
3. Presentation skills with help of visual aids.
4. Mock interviews.
5. Role playing.
6. Small group or pair work which includes activity oriented works like:
a) Preparation of invitation cards.
b) Preparation of a speech for an occasion.
c) Preparation of an article for a newspaper or any college magazine dealing with day to day issue.
d) Preparation of work sheets to meet deadlines.
7. Writing Formal Emails

Module 3: Interactive Communication

1. Group discussion.
2. Extempore and quizzes.
3. Games on team building, moral teaching and leadership games.
4. Object talking.
5. Formal conversation between a pair and a couple of students.
6. Stress interviews, discussions on newspaper reading.

The curriculum thus framed will surely upgrade the communication and presentation skills. This practical-based language classes will benefit the students, both in their early professional careers and in their social interactions in the business environment.

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Soft skills provide students with a strong conceptual and practical framework to build develop and manage work thereby enhancing their future prospects. With practical training students will improve their skills in communication, the effective use of English business correspondence, time management, interviews and inter-personal skills. In short, it is a career visioning and planning curriculum.

Creating Appropriate Context for Follow Up

To have a disciplined approach towards this new curriculum, there are some conditions to be followed:

1.   The training of the students requires proper conference rooms for group discussions and platforms for role playing and extempore. These interactive activities are not fruitful if done within classrooms.

2.   Topics and issues, and situations should be selected on the basis of situations and conditions which a student may come across as an entry-level candidate in corporate world.

3.   Teachers' active participation in noting down the words pronounced incorrectly is must. And if the students have used new words and proverbs, we as teachers need to have a check of its usage too.

4.   Grooming of the students begins with a preliminary test in the English language to determine their level of competence in the use of English for effective communication both oral and written.

5.   A special class for those students who are really weak in English so that extra activities and discussions are taken.

Conclusion

Therefore, this curriculum is just a step towards a corporate world. It is s a reply to recruiters who think 'Students need to upgrade their skill, upgrade and restrain themselves, rather than get disappointed'(Krishnan in *The Hindu*). It is not a student's fault, but the greatest hole lies in the existing teaching system. One way to give super-shine to one's career is having great communication skills. Speak well, write well and understand corporate etiquette. Work diligently on the following - How to speak publicly? How to speak in social gathering? How to make effective presentations? How to write powerful e-mails? And this is what an activity-based curriculum proposes to do, i.e., to make the students good communicators.

In this practical way of teaching, students will surely take an initiative which is the best way to learn, get noticed and grow. Everybody has problems, but only few take the trouble to solve. Problem tacklers are loved in any company. Hence, this is how the gap between campuses to corporate will be narrowed.

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Impact of Students' Attitudes on their Achievement in English: A Study in the Yemeni Context

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CERTIFICATE

Hyderabad

April 2010

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled **Impact of Students' Attitudes on their Achievement in English: A Study in the Yemeni Context**, submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **MASTER OF ARTS in TESL**, is an original piece of research work done by **Mr. Hassan Saeed Awadh Ba-Udhan** under my supervision at **the English and Foreign Languages University, Hyderabad**.

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Abstract

This study aims to examine students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English. It focuses on the relationship between students' attitudes towards English and their achievement in English. Besides, the measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English have also been investigated. The subjects of the study are 71 first-year students of which 41 are males and 30 are females. They have been studying a four-year BA course in English in the Faculty of Education, Seiyun, Hadhramout University of Science and Technology, Yemen. A questionnaire is administered to collect the data for the study. The findings show that there are no significant differences between the male and the female students in term of their attitudes; both hold positive attitudes towards English and towards learning English and towards the native speakers of English and their culture. The female students realize the importance of understanding the target language culture but interestingly many of them prefer to learn English without paying attention to the culture of the English speaking communities. Moreover, though the Yemeni people realize the importance of speaking English, they tend to discourage people who speak in English among them. It is found that there is a positive correlation between students' attitudes towards learning English and their proficiency in it. Furthermore, the study

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reveals that students use effective measures such as reading books and newspapers, watching programs in English on TV etc in order to improve their proficiency in English. In the light of this study, it is possible to put forward that factors like students' attitudes towards teachers, curriculum, and teaching methodologies could be the causes of students' low achievement in exams or of their inattentiveness to their studies. In order for teachers to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere wherein meaningful learning can take place, they need to build a good rapport with students and strengthen the rapport among the students themselves. Teachers should encourage the students to interact with them and with each other in English in and outside the classroom.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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1.0. Introduction

This chapter will explain the English language learning and teaching scenario in Yemen and discuss briefly the influence of attitude on learning a second or a foreign language. The research questions and the possible outcomes of the study will be stated. Some of the terms used in the title will be defined. Finally, the outline of the study will be presented.

1.1 English language learning and teaching in Yemen

The education system in Yemen mainly consists of three levels, namely, primary, secondary and tertiary. The primary school education is obligatory for all Yemeni children. It lasts for nine years; students usually join school at the age of seven years and finish primary education at around the age of 16. English is taught in the primary school at grade VII when students are 14 years old. Students study English for three more years in the secondary school. Thus those students who have completed the secondary level are supposed to have six academic years of studying English. At the tertiary level, there are many colleges of education and arts wherein English is studied as a major course in the departments of English. Students in non-English majors usually take an English course in the first academic year of the tertiary level.

Teachers of English in the primary and secondary levels are usually those students who graduate from the colleges of education, whereas MA and PhD holders

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usually teach English at the tertiary level in the departments of English. Some professors from Arab and foreign countries, like Iraq and India, are invited to teach English in the Yemeni universities.

Yemen is a monolingual country; Arabic is the only medium of communication used by Yemeni people. English is considered a foreign language in Yemen; it is taught as a subject and not as a language in schools. It is indeed a fact that anyone who is interested in speaking in English rarely finds company. Guides with good communicative competence in English usually keep company with foreign tourists who come to visit Yemen to translate for them. However, most tourist guides are from Yemen itself, they either travel abroad to acquire English or their aptitude and motivation in learning English help them to speak it. However, despite this paucity of English speaking environment, or rather because of it, Yemeni people with good communicative competence in English can easily find lucrative jobs. As a matter of fact, English for specific purposes (ESP) is actually the area which Yemeni people need to focus on. For instance, people need English to work in the oil companies, and in the tourism and translation fields. Knowing English and speaking in English is not necessary for every day communication since the whole country is monolingual.

1.2. Attitude in second language learning

Attitude is one of the most crucial factors in learning a second or a foreign language. Attitude plays a major role in arousing students' interest and motivation

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to learn a second language. Gardner (1985) views attitudes as a component of motivation in language learning. According to Gardner motivation includes favourable attitudes towards learning the language. Gardner also states that learning a foreign language is determined by the learner's attitudes towards foreign people in general, and the target group and language in particular. Thus, success or failure in learning a language is determined by the degree of favourable dispositions that students hold towards the language and also towards learning it and towards the target language group and their culture.

1.3. The present study

Attitude plays a major role in learning a second language since the students' positive or negative attitudes towards learning English largely determine high or low achievement or proficiency in English. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English. It attempts to examine the relationship between the students' attitudes towards learning English and their English language achievement. The present study also identifies the measures adopted by the students to improve their achievement and proficiency in English. It is assumed that that the students' attitudes towards learning English can be negative since the proficiency level is low. Hence there is a felt need to investigate students' attitudes towards learning English and identify the link between these attitudes and students' English language achievement.

1.4. The research questions

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The present study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1. What attitudes do students hold towards English and towards learning English?

2. Is there a correlation between students' attitudes towards learning English and their achievement in English?

3. What are the measures adopted by students to improve their achievement or proficiency in English?

1.5. Defining terms

Before we proceed further, an understanding of the important terms used in the title will be useful. The term *attitude* as used in the title refers to the set of beliefs that the students hold towards English and towards learning English and towards their own culture as well as towards English-speaking people and their culture. The term *achievement* is used to refer to the student's proficiency in English as well as the efforts made by them to improve their proficiency in English. However, the two terms: *achievement* and *proficiency* are used interchangeably in many positions in the present study.

1.6. Possible outcomes

The study, it is hoped, will throw light on the students' attitudes towards learning English in the Yemeni context. Further, the study will help us understand the relationship between students' attitudes towards learning English and their achievement in English. The measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English will be identified. It may be that students hold negative

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attitudes towards learning English and that these negative attitudes, in turn, affect their achievement in English and hinder them from adopting effective measures to improve their competence in English.

The study might show that students with positive attitudes towards learning English have high achievement and proficiency in English, and those students who hold negative attitudes have low achievement and proficiency in English. On contrary, it is also possible that students with negative attitudes have high proficiency and achieve better in English than those students with positive attitudes. The study might offer more useful insights about the complex issue of learners' attitudes and achievement thereby help improve the teaching and learning scenario in the Yemeni context.

1.7. Design of the study

The study is designed in six chapters. The first chapter, ***Introduction***, introduces the study. In this chapter an attempt has been made to briefly present the background to the study. It discusses English language learning in Yemen and explains briefly the importance of attitude in learning a second language. It provides a general glimpse of what the present study is about and it suggests the possible outcomes.

The second chapter, ***Review of Literature***, discusses the researches previously done in the field of students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English and relates these to the framework of the present study.

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The third chapter, *Theoretical Framework*, offers theoretical perspective to view the study from. It also tries to place the present study firmly in the context of ESL teaching and learning by gathering theoretical evidence and support from the existing theories on students' attitudes towards learning a foreign or a second language.

The fourth chapter, *Methodology*, describes the setting in which the study is located and explains the rationale behind conducting the present study. A detail profile of the sample and the tools used to elicit the data from the subjects are provided. The assumptions and the hypothesis of the study are presented and the aims and the objectives are explained. Finally, the scope and the limitation of the study are stated.

The fifth chapter, *Data Presentation and Analysis*, presents the data obtained for the study and analyzes it.

The sixth chapter, *Conclusion*, sums up the findings of the study and discusses the implications of these findings for teaching and learning in the Yemeni context. Finally, the chapter suggests possibilities for further research.

1.8. Overview of the chapter

This chapter has discussed English language learning and teaching in the Yemeni EFL context and has explained briefly the impact of attitudes on learning a second language. It has presented the outline of the study. Some terms used in the title

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have been defined. The research questions and the possible outcomes of the study have been stated. In the following chapter the researches done in the field of students' attitudes towards learning English will be discussed.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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2.0. Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted to assess students' attitudes towards learning English. Some of these have been conducted in Yemen and other EFL countries. The present study aims to investigate the relation between students' attitudes towards learning English and their achievement in English. This chapter, therefore, attempts to summarize the researches previously done in the field of attitudes towards learning English and relate these to the context of the present research. The researches done in Yemeni context are presented first because the present study is conducted in Yemeni context too. Then, some related researches conducted in Arab countries are dealt with. Finally, studies done in non-Arabic EFL contexts are discussed.

2. 1. Reviewing researches

Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009) identified the students' motivation and attitudes towards learning the English language in the context of an engineering programme. The study investigated students' motivation in terms of three motivational constructs: instrumental motivation, integrative motivation and personal motivation based on Gardner's (1985) and Cooper and Fishman's (1977) works. The study also investigated learners' attitudes towards the use of English in Yemen, towards the English language and towards the culture of the English-speaking world. The sample of the study consisted of 81 petroleum engineering

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students at Hadhramout University of Science and Technology. A questionnaire and interviews were used as tools for data collection to elicit the responses of the students.

Regarding the issue of students' motivation, the findings showed that students learn English mainly to help them to do well in their academic study and their professional life in future. However, the results revealed that the students are less interested in learning the English-speaking culture. Interestingly, many students showed their interest in watching English films. So far as students' attitudes are concerned, the study revealed that most students have positive attitudes towards the social status and educational value of English. In addition, the findings showed that students have positive orientation towards the English language.

Another study by Al-Quyadi (2002 as quoted in Al-Tamimi & Shuib 2009) explored into the nature of the psychological variables of learning English by Yemeni EFL learners in terms of attitudes and motivation as revealed by English majors at the Department of English, Faculties of Education at Sana'a University. A questionnaire was used as the research tool. The sample consisted of 518 students representing seven Faculties of Education. The results showed that the students have a high level of both instrumental and integrative motivation towards the English language. With regard to their attitudes, the findings indicated that the students have positive attitudes towards the English language and towards the use of English in the Yemeni social and educational contexts.

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A study (Malallah 2000) conducted in the Kuwaiti Arab EFL context, on undergraduates enrolled in English courses offered by the English Language Centre at Kuwait University, examined students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English as a foreign language. The study focused on the inter-relationships between attitude, motivation, anxiety and achievement in the English language. Malallah hypothesized that: (1) Kuwait University undergraduates, in general, have positive attitudes towards learning English, towards the English language and towards native speakers of English. (2) Kuwait society values and regards the English language highly; and (3) students' achievement is positively related to their motivation and attitudes towards the English language and negatively related to their anxiety. A questionnaire consisting of items extracted and adapted from instruments used in previous studies was used for data collection. The sample included three groups of university students taking English courses at Kuwait University. These students were enrolled in three colleges: the College of Arts where Arabic was the medium of instruction; the College of Science where English was used as a medium of instruction and the College of Sharia and Islamic studies where Arabic was the medium of instruction. The total number of students in the research amounted to 409, of which 385 were born in Kuwait, while 24 were non-Kuwaitis; besides, in the total sample of 409 students, 343 were females and 66 were males. As a matter of fact, it is a general characteristic of the population in Kuwait that females outnumber males.

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In general, the research confirmed the above mentioned hypotheses and found that the more a student is exposed to the English language, and the more a student needs the English language either for present studies or for future career, the more positive his/her attitudes appear towards the language. It was also found that students from the College of Science, whose major subjects were physical sciences, biological sciences and maths, had the most favourable attitudes towards literacy, oracy and instructional materials in class. They appeared to have the strongest positive attitudes to English, to native speakers of English, and more purpose for learning English. Students from the College of Arts, whose major subjects were Arabic language, humanities and social sciences, had less preference for literacy in the English class. However, compared with the students of both College of Science and College of Sharia and Islamic Studies, they expended the most effort in learning English. They had positive attitudes towards English and towards native speakers. They seemed to have clear purposes for studying English. They had a degree of positiveness but not as strong as that of the Science students. Students from the College of Sharia, whose major subject was Islamic studies, had the least preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material, the least purposes for studying English and the least favourable attitudes towards English and towards native speakers of English.

In another study done in the United States of America, but related to the Arab EFL context, Suleiman (1993) explored into (a) Arab university students' motivation for studying English as a second language (ESL), (b) their attitudes

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towards studying English and the English language, (c) their attitudes towards Americans and the United States and (d) the benefits that accrue to them from the study of English e.g. a better job. The study used qualitative and quantitative tools for collecting data. Two kinds of questionnaires were used: a background survey questionnaire to obtain background information and a Likert-format scale Attitude/Motivation Test Battery questionnaire which was prepared and adapted from Gardner (1985) for measuring motivation and attitudes. Questionnaire results were used to validate data collected from the interview method. The subjects were 15 male students and 7 female students from diverse Arabic-speaking backgrounds, all with at least five years of ESL experience studying at the Arizona State University.

The results revealed a number of categories of motivation for studying English, both before and after arrival in the United States; they also showed gender-related differences in motivation. Attitudes towards study of English fell into nine categories ranging from amusement to resentment; again, some gender differences were found. Attitudes towards methods of English instruction in the home country were generally unfavourable, but were generally favourable towards English instruction in the United States. Attitudes towards Americans and the United States before arrival fell into five categories: attraction; admiration; dislike; fear; and indifference. After arrival in the United States, attitudes became more complex, reflecting cultural conflict since all participants showed strong adherence to the culture they belong. Subsequently, the loyalty to one' own

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indigenous culture affected the previously held positive attitudes towards the target language culture. Compared to male students, female students' attitudes were generally negative. Most felt little need to study English further.

Buschenhofen (1998) examined the attitudes towards English among students of high school and university in Papua New Guinea (PNG). This study was conducted to obtain information regarding the attitudes of the both groups (i.e. the students of high school and university) towards English. It also compared the language attitudes of the two groups. The aim was on the basis of this comparison to analyse any developments in attitudes towards English which had taken place during the transition period from high school to university. Two questionnaires were used for data collection. The first was a demographic questionnaire. The second was a direct attitude questionnaire of twenty-three items adapted from Pennington and Yue (1994), who had obtained them from Pierson et al. (1980). The sample included a total of 537 final-year secondary students from four National High Schools, as well as a total of 734 first-year university students from the two largest universities in PNG.

The results of the study showed a generally positive attitude towards English on the part of both the national high school students as well as first-year university students in PGN. The first-year university students strongly expressed the view that the use of English plays a crucial role in the country's development. Furthermore, the study found that neither the national high school nor the university students associated the use of English with threats to their

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ethnolinguistic identity. The respondents were less clear, however, about whether the use of English inhibited their sense of patriotism. Students from both groups, but especially those from the national high school, did not wish to see English abandoned as a medium of instruction, nor did they wish English to cease as the official language of PNG or as the language of their textbooks. They wanted to improve their English, felt comfortable being surrounded by English, and were happy engaging in a variety of activities in English.

In the Turkish EFL context, Karahan (2007) examined the relationship between language attitudes towards the English language and its use in Turkey. The study also investigated the interlaced relationship among language attitudes, the starting age of language learning, and the place where the individual started to learn language within the context of EFL students in Turkey. The sample included 190 eighth grade students of a private primary school in Adana, Turkey, where English is intensively taught. Data were collected through a questionnaire which consisted of two parts: the first part required personal information, while the second part dealt with students' attitudes towards the English language and also towards the use of English in the Turkish context.

Results showed that although these Turkish private primary school students are exposed to English in a school environment more frequently than other students at public schools, they had only mildly positive attitudes. It was also found that these students recognised the importance of the English language but interestingly did not reveal high level orientation towards learning the language. Consequently,

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Karahan suggested that strategy-based learning and teaching could be helpful for the learners who realize the importance of the English language but are unmotivated to learn it. On the other hand, this study revealed that although the students have mildly positive attitudes towards the English language, they are not tolerant to Turkish people speaking in English among themselves. Karahan pointed out that the role of the teacher could be an important factor in establishing the appropriate environment to encourage students to practise speaking English with other Turkish students.

In Japan, Lafaye & Tsuda (2002) investigated attitudes to English among students in higher education. The study was carried out because students in Japan seemed to make little progress and seemed fed up with English and generally disappointed by their English learning experience. The study set out to investigate: a) how the average Japanese student feels about English, that is, what he/she thinks of his/her learning experience and his/her own ability, and whether or not he/she actually perceives a need for English and b) whether students are amenable to the idea of English as an official language. A questionnaire was used as a tool to collect data from the students. The sample group included 518 subjects from the newly-established Jinbun Gakubu (Humanities) Department of Tokaigakuen University, located in Nagoya. 287 of the subjects were first year students and 231 were second year students of which 36% were male students and 63 % were female students. The students were studying one of the following three courses: Human

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Behaviour, Language Communication, or International Culture; there were no English majors at the university.

The results indicated that the students share similar ideas about English, including their perceptions of their English learning experience, to which they responded negatively, and their opinions about the usefulness of English, a question to which they responded overwhelmingly in the positive. Results also showed that students want to learn functional English that will allow them: a) to perform in English in different contexts and b) that will facilitate their communication with many different nationalities; hence they are penchant towards an international variety. The majority of the students think that English should be a compulsory subject in secondary schools. Many students also think that it should be introduced at the elementary level. Although one third of the students are of the opinion that English should be an official language of Japan, a half of them are not quite sure. Many of them think that they are most likely to use it to communicate with native speakers.

2. 2. Relevance of the researches to the present study

The discussion above clearly shows that the previous studies have investigated students' attitudes towards learning English. The first two studies (Al-Quyadi 2002 and Al-Tamimi & Shuib 2009) have examined both students' attitudes and motivation in Yemen, the country wherein the present research is conducted. Like the present research, the first study has been conducted at Hadhramout University

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of Sciences and Technology in Yemen. The only difference is in terms of the subjects. The target group in the former study was students who study English for specific purposes (ESP), while the target group of the present study is English-major students. The difference in the target group could bring about different results. However, the second study and the present research share similar subjects, namely, English-major students, but they have been conducted in two different universities in Yemen. Thus, the different settings of the two studies might lead to significantly different results; especially the fact that the former study has been conducted in Sana'a, the capital of Yemen and that could make all the difference. The third and the fourth studies (Malallah 2000 and Suleiman 1993) are related to the present study in terms of the Arab EFL context. The questionnaire designed for data collection in the present study draws inspiration from the aims and objectives of the third study, i.e., Malallah (2000). The aims and objectives of Malallah's study are to survey the following five issues: (1) Students' attitudes towards learning English. (2) Students' attitudes towards the English language. (3) Students' attitudes towards native speakers of English. (4) Students' purposes of studying English. (5) The place of English in Kuwait society. Suleiman (1993) points out that Arab students have not been given the opportunity to assess their own needs, motivation and attitudes in their EFL preparation. The present study aims to provide the students such an opportunity to assess their own attitudes. The study conducted by Buschenhofen (1998) has examined high school and first-year students' attitudes. It held the view that university students' attitudes could be

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shaped by their experiences of learning English in the high school stage. The Turkish study (Karahan 2007) and the present study seem to share a common ground in that: a) both seem to emerge from the dissatisfaction expressed by parents, teachers, administrators and the learners themselves about their low proficiency levels in English and b) both focus on the learners' attitudes towards English. The final study (Lafaye & Tsuda 2002) has revealed several contradictions in the questionnaire results, the most pertinent one being that the students stated that their interest in English was strong and yet they did not like studying it and were unhappy with their proficiency in it.

Thus, all these studies and their findings offer significant insights for the present research and help consolidate certain issues on which the present study is based. But from there, the research takes off and moves forward in a new direction aiming to provide a comprehensive picture of students' attitudes towards learning English in the Yemeni context. The present study mainly focuses on the relation between students' attitudes towards learning English and their current level of proficiency or achievement in English. It also investigates the relation between the students' attitudes and the measures adopted by them to improve their achievement in English.

2. 3. Overview of the chapter

This chapter has discussed a few researches on students' attitudes towards learning English and has attempted to relate them to the present study. Some of

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these researches have been conducted in Yemen, some in Arab countries, while the rest in other EFL contexts. These researches and their findings have helped in understanding the major thrust areas concerning students' attitudes towards learning English. Such an understanding, in turn, has contributed to determine the focus of the present study. In the following chapter, the various theoretical standpoints underlying the present research will be discussed.

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CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

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3.0. Introduction

This chapter attempts to gather theoretical evidence and support in favour of the present study from the existing research on attitudes towards learning a foreign or a second language. The term *attitude* is introduced and explained. The components of *attitude* and the relationship among these are discussed. Later, the possibility of modifying attitude and the teacher's role in doing so is emphasized; some ways of modifying students' attitude are presented. Subsequently, the correlation between students' attitudes towards English and their achievement or proficiency in English is established.

3.1. Attitude: a brief introduction

Attitude is one of the most important factors in understanding a person; it involves mental, emotional and behavioural activities. It can be understood as a mental disposition for viewing people and things around us. Chapman and Mcknight (2004) define attitude as the way a person looks at things mentally; it represents the overall mood in which people interpret what a person says and does. An attitude, thus, begins as a mental disposition towards people, things and events around us; subsequently it turns into actions and manifests in one's way of talking. According to Ajzen (1988) an attitude is "a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event". Attitude, therefore, can be understood as something that guides a person to behave in a

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particular direction; if a person holds favourable attitude towards something, he/she will like it and be attracted towards it. On the other hand, if a person holds negative attitude towards an object, he/she will dislike it and try to avoid it. Brown (2007) states that attitude is characterized by a large proportion of emotional involvement such as feeling, self, relationship in community. Attitudes usually have something to do with feelings and mental disposition towards oneself and one's own culture; and towards others and their cultures. If a person sees a particular culture as inferior to his/her own culture, this negative attitudinal disposition will direct the person to dislike that culture and avoid anything that emerges from it; while if a person views both cultures as social equals, then the attitude towards the other culture will be positive; and this attitude, in turn, will encourage the person to like the other culture and even try to understand it. What has been pointed out about attitude in general can be extended to language learners and how they view the culture of the target language community. Thus, the way in which a learner evaluates his own culture or the culture of target language group, as well as the way in which he/she reacts towards the people of the target language is considered to be a reflection of the attitudes held by that learner. Brown (1981 as quoted in Ellis 2008) seems to agree with this view when uses the term *attitudes* to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds towards his/her own culture as well as towards the target language people; for example, the learner could see the members of the target language group as 'interesting' or 'boring', 'honest', or dishonest', etc. Thus, learners may hold either negative or

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positive attitudes towards the target language, towards learning the target language and towards its speakers and their culture.

3.2. Components of attitude

The construct of attitude includes three components: cognitive, evaluative and behavioural. Wenden (1991 as cited in Karahan 2007) provides an explanation as to what each of these components involves. The cognitive component of attitude, as the name suggests, involves beliefs or perceptions about the objects or situations related to the attitude. The evaluative part of attitude is formed when the objects or situations related to the attitude generate likes or dislikes. The third component, the behavioural one, appears when certain attitudes tend to prompt learners to adopt particular learning behaviours. Mantle-Bromley (1995) gives an example for each of the three components. The belief that English speakers are mostly poor and uneducated would be an example of the cognitive element of attitude; while the degree to which a student likes or dislikes speakers of the language being studied can be an instance of the affective component. Students' intentions or actions, such as, attempting native-like pronunciation, seeking out native speakers of the language, or intending to continue language study are examples of the behavioural element of attitude. Eiser (1994); Rajecki, (1990); and Zimbardo & Leippe (1991 as quoted in Mantle-Bromley 1995) state that each component of attitude is important since the connection among affect,

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cognition, and behaviour changes primarily when there is disagreement within the components. They provide an example of someone whose attitude towards Spanish is negative. This person's cognition is that Spanish speakers are socially beneath him/her; consequently he/she ridicules the language. In this case, affect, cognition, and behaviour are in agreement. However, if this person then meets a Spanish speaker who he/she considers attractive and desirable, the person's cognition as a result will be that maybe Spanish speakers are socially equal to him/her. The person's cognition in this case is no longer in accord with the other two components: affect and behaviour. It is this state of dissonance that will most likely lead to attitude change.

3.3. Modifying attitudes

Attitudes are not inherent in an individual but are developed due to an individual's own experiences right from childhood. Just as attitudes are developed through one's own experience, they can also be modified by experience. Doughty and Long (2003) explain that the acquisition of a second language depends on a modification of attitudes, knowledge, and behaviour towards the members of the target language group. Indeed changing students' attitudes towards the English-speaking community and culture is necessary for success in learning English. In general, teachers, parents and the community in which students live need to take responsibility for changing students' attitudes. Students bring their own attitudes towards learning English to the classroom and if some of these attitudes are negative, teachers may play a major role in modifying these attitudes so that

learning will happen in the desired way. Cook (2008) states that the one of the goals of language teaching includes changing students' attitudes towards the target language culture. For improving student's attitudes, Cook suggests reinforcing teaching with models of successful second language users, other than the native speakers, such as, Gandhi, Einstein, Picasso, Marie Curie and Samuel Beckett. According to Cook, showing students that the world is full of successful second language learners will help students hold favourable attitudes towards learning the second language. In addition, the careful selection of tasks would help modify and improve the learners' attitudes towards learning English. Arnold (1999) conducted a questionnaire to measure the students' attitudes towards the foreign language after using humanistic activities over a two month period. The questionnaire reveals the following ways of change and improvement:

1. The students felt that learning a language was not so hard as before.

2. They also felt that the foreign language class was more enjoyable and fun than before.

3. Besides, they liked speaking in the foreign language more.

These findings prove that a teacher can change the students' attitudes for the better if he/she chooses suitable activities and ways of instruction. Morgan (1993) provides (as cited in Mantle-Bromley 1995) the following advice for a teacher who attempts to change the students' attitudes:

1. The classroom environment should be constantly varied and renewed.

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2. Students need to struggle with complex and controversial material and reach their own conclusions, rather than be just the passive receivers of information.

3. Students should become aware of their own attitudes toward language and culture, and this, in turn, will help them to accept others.

Different ways and techniques can guarantee change and improvement in students' attitudes towards learning English. The teacher's role here is to find out the effective methods which will help foster positive attitudes in the students.

3.4. Attitude and language achievement

Learning a new language is linked to the way in which the learner views the target language community and culture. Gardner's theory (as quoted in Dornyei 2003) states that the students' attitude towards the target language group will affect their success in learning that language. A student, who does not like the native speakers of English or views his/her own culture superior to the English speaking culture, can walk into a foreign language classroom and quickly generalize his dislikes; he or she will dislike school, teacher, book, homework, etc. Mantle-Bromley (1995) emphasizes that attitudes towards the teacher, the class, the language, speakers of the language, and cultures of the language have all been found to be significant in their relationship with both students' achievement and their intention to continue language study. Students can have either negative or positive attitudes towards learning English. If their attitudes are positive, they will show an interest in

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learning English. On the other hand, if their attitudes are negative, they will dislike learning English or even feel reluctant learn to it. Thus it can be argued that attitudes towards learning a language influence performance in the language. Learning will be facilitated if the student holds positive attitudes towards the language and this, in turn, will affect the student performance in that language. In other words, if the attitude is positive, learning will be high whereas if the attitude is negative, in the sense that the learner' community and the target language community do not accept each other' way of life, learning will not be facilitated. Both negative and positive attitudes have a strong impact on the success of language learning. The correlation between attitude and achievement or proficiency in a language has been emphasized by many researchers. Dornyei (2003) asserts that attitude is as important as language aptitude for predicting the language achievement; he also confirms that positive attitudes towards the learning situation have consistently been associated with language achievement. Gardner (1985) notes that positive attitudes towards the target language and its people and culture lead to better achievement in language learning.

The viewpoints presented above help us argue that there is a strong correlation between students' attitudes towards learning a language and their achievement in that language. This might work in two interesting and opposing ways as shown in the figure below.

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Positive   **High**

Attitude   **Achievement**

Negative   **Low**
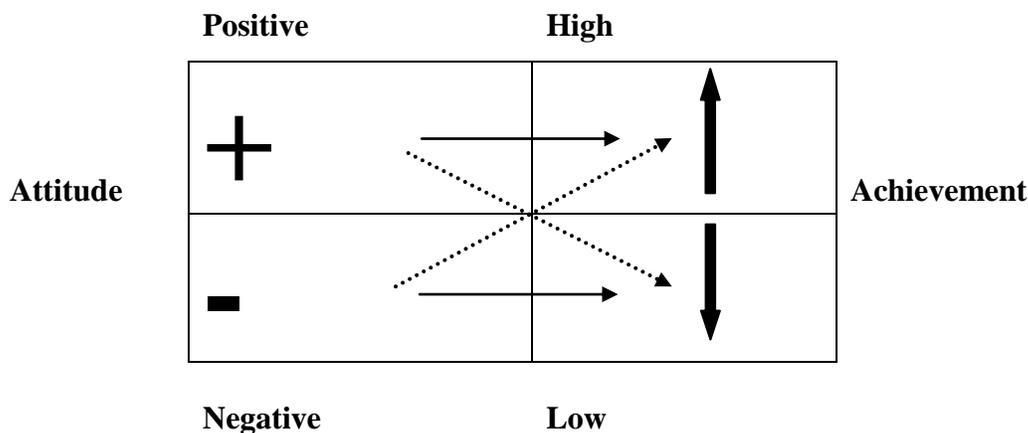
Figure 3.1. Correlation between learner attitudes towards English and achievement in English

The figure shows that if learners' attitudes are positive, their achievement in the language being studied will be high; whereas, if they hold negative attitudes, their achievement in the language will be low. However, the figure shows that the opposite is also possible; learners with negative attitudes might have high achievement and vice versa.

3.5. Overview of the chapter

The chapter has attempted to arrive at a theoretical framework from which the present study can be looked at. The construct of *attitude* has been explained. The components of attitude and the relation among them have been briefly presented. The ways to modify students' attitudes and the teacher's role in doing so were discussed. Finally, an attempt has been made to show how students' attitudes towards learning English can affect their achievement in English. In the following chapter the methodology of the study will be presented.

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CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

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4.0. Introduction

This chapter describes the setting in which the study is located. It builds the rationale for the study and establishes its relevance. It presents the assumptions and the hypothesis of the study. The aims and objectives of the study are explained. The tools used to elicit the data from the subjects are discussed; the rationale for the choice of the tools is also clarified. A detailed profile of the sample is presented. The scope and the limitations of the study are stated.

4.1. The backdrop of the study

The subjects of the study are the students of the Department of English in the Faculty of Education, Seiyun, Yemen. The faculty prepares and trains the students to become teachers in secondary and primary schools. The students join the department without taking any entrance exam or interview. Their admission is based on their secondary school final grade which should be a minimum of 70%. This grade stands for all subjects of the secondary school and not the English language alone. Moreover, this grade does not indicate learner's level of achievement or proficiency in English. Thus, students with low level of proficiency could get a high grade and vice versa.

In Yemen, usually, people are not encouraged to speak in English. The fact that Yemen is a monolingual and mono-cultural country can provide an explanation to such behaviour of the Yemeni people. Further, in the educational scenario, we see

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that students cannot take independent decisions regarding the college in which to study or the specialization that they want to choose. Parents usually decide their children's future career; they want their children to study what they as parents perceive beneficial to their children in future whether their children really like it or not; for instance, parents might force their children to study English in order to help them get a better job. In addition, a friend also might convince the other friend to join the same department just for their friendships' sake.

Many Yemeni families live in abject poverty; this compels some of the students to find a part-time job. They, for instance, go to college in the morning and work as taxi drivers, shopkeepers or farmers in the evening. What makes matter worse is that many teachers of English are not qualified to teach; some of them speak Arabic during the English class. And, the teachers who are indeed qualified to teach English do not seem to possess the required proficiency in English. Thus all these factors and many more contribute in shaping the students' mindset towards learning English in one way or another. It therefore becomes important to investigate the attitudes with which the Yemeni students enter college to study English and how these, in turn, determine their proficiency in English.

4.2. The rationale and the relevance of the study

The researcher is one of the graduates of the Department of English in the Faculty of Education Seiyun in which the present study takes place; he has also taught in the college for two years. From his experience as both a student as well as a faculty member, the researcher has observed that the students of the Department

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of English rarely communicate in English to each other or to their teachers. The students tend to pay little attention to their studies and seem to be disinterested in doing their English class assignments. It is quite disheartening to notice students depend on the Internet café keepers to have their assignments done through copy-paste method from the internet. Furthermore, they generally do not do well in the exams, and so score low marks. Thus the fact remains that many of them graduate with low proficiency in English.

Research in language learning shows that there is a correlation between students' attitudes and their proficiency in English. Students with positive attitudes towards English are considered to be more proficient in English than those who hold negative attitudes. It is possible to argue that the low proficiency of the Yemeni students is an offshoot of their negative attitudes towards English and towards learning English. These attitudes could impact in two major ways: firstly, they will affect the students' level of interest and motivation in learning English, and this, in turn, will influence the students' general competence and proficiency in English; secondly, these trainee-teachers will be responsible for teaching generations of students in the future; hence whatever attitudes the would-to-be teachers hold and whatever competence of English they end up with would have a far-reaching consequences in that these would influence their future students' attitudes as well. Thus the issue of attitudes and their corresponding impact on learner proficiency emerges as a pertinent theme in the Yemeni context of second language learning and teaching and therefore forms the basis of the present study.

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4.3. Aims and objectives

The study examines the attitudes of students towards learning English and attempts to identify the relationship between these attitudes and the students' achievement or proficiency in English. It explores into the attitudes of both male and female students, and therefore, an attempt is made to identify the gender differences in attitudes.

In order to achieve the aforementioned aim, the following objectives are formulated:

1) to investigate students' attitudes towards learning English and towards native speakers of English and their culture.

2) to indentify the link between students' attitudes towards learning English and their achievement in English.

3) to explore into the measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English.

4) to examine the role of parents and society in encouraging students to learn English.

4.4. Assumptions and Hypothesis

The study is based on the following assumptions:

1) The foreign language learners in Yemen have low proficiency in English.

2) There is a link between the proficiency level and the students' attitudes towards learning English.

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Interestingly and conversely it can further be argued that the students' attitudes towards English might be negative since the proficiency level is low.

Based on the above assumptions, it is hypothesized that

1) The low proficiency level in English of the Yemeni students is a result of their negative attitudes towards English.

2) The students do not adopt effective measures to improve their proficiency in English.

4.5. Scope of the study

The present study focuses on students who study English at the tertiary level; the data is gathered from the Faculty of Education, Seiyun, Hadhramout, Yemen. The study focuses on the attitudes of students towards English and towards learning English. Teachers' attitudes towards teaching English, though worth investigating, do not fall under the purview of this study.

4.6. Research tools: the questionnaire

The only tool used for data collection is the questionnaire. The rationale for the choice of the tool and its design, and the administration of the tool is discussed below.

Questionnaire-based data collection was preferred over other means. The questionnaire is most easily administered and can be used to collect data from an unlimited number of subjects. In fact, the nature of data determines the tool and the method of collecting it. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:172 as quoted in Lafaye & Tsuda 2002) states that "Questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on

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phenomena that are not easily observed, such as attitudes, motivation, and self-concepts". Therefore, since the present study deals with attitudes, the questionnaire seemed the most appropriate tool for data collection. A further argument in favour of the questionnaire is the large number of the subjects from whom the data was elicited. The high sensitivity of the topic of the present research was another factor that determined the tool; an interview might not have worked well here since the students may have appeared disinclined to answer questions of a sensitive nature frankly. Since the success of the investigation depends on the students' sincerity and openness in showing their real attitudes, anonymity becomes an issue that can be taken care of by a questionnaire. Furthermore, since the researcher works from India while the study is located in Yemen, a questionnaire proved to be the most appropriate tool.

The questionnaire of the present study was adapted from three questionnaires of previous studies: Gardner & Lambert. (1972), Gardner (1985) and Deshmukh (1960). Most of the questions require the students to respond on the basis of a Likert Type scale in five gradations: *strongly disagree*, disagree*,* neither *agree nor disagree,* agree and *strongly agree*. The vice-dean of the college who is also a teacher of English in the college and another assistant from the college administrative staff helped the researcher in administrating the questionnaire. Copies of the questionnaire were distributed to 100 students; the majority of the subjects managed to fill them in the same day, but some of them were absent so the questionnaire had been sent to them to fill it at home. However, only 71 filled

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copies of the questionnaire have been collected back from the students. Thus, the sample of the study is restricted to 71 students of which 41 are males and 30 are females.

4.7. Profile of the sample

The subjects of the study are the students who study English in the Faculty of Education, Seiyun, Yemen. The total number of the students in the Department of English is around 300 students distributed into four levels: freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior. The study focused on the first year students (the freshmen) whose total number exceeds 100 students. They are a mixture of both men and women whose average age is 21 years. It is considered worthwhile to explore into the freshmen's attitudes more than those of the other three levels since the former have recently finished their secondary school, and their attitudes before joining the college might affect their achievement in the college.

4.8. Limitations

Some limitations to the present study must be noted. First of all, the present study focused on the attitudes of the first-year students alone; it does not include the other three levels (i.e. second, third and fourth year students). It is possible that the students of the other three levels at the tertiary level hold different attitudes towards learning English. The study also limits itself to one college of education because of the constraint of time. It is quite possible that if many other colleges of education in Yemen had been included, the results of the study could have been more comprehensive. Another limitation of this study is its research tools; the

study used only the questionnaire to collect data from the students. Since the study has focused on the relationship between the students' attitudes towards learning English and their English language achievement, a test could have been conducted to measure the students' achievement and proficiency in English rather than allowing the students to self-evaluate their own achievement and proficiency in English.

4.9. Overview of the chapter

The chapter has discussed the methodology of the study. It has described the setting in which the study is located. The rationale and the relevance for the study have been established, and the assumptions and the hypothesis of the study have been presented. The scope of the study has been stated. The aims and objectives of the study have been explained. The tools used to elicit the data from the subjects have been discussed; the rationale for the choice of the tools has also been clarified. A detailed profile of the sample has been presented. Finally, the limitations of the study have been stated. The next chapter will present and analyse the data obtained for the study.

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CHAPTER V

DATA PRESENTATION AND

ANALYSIS

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5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the data obtained for the study will be presented and analysed. The finding will be discussed. The data collected through the questionnaire has been presented in tabular and graphic forms.

5.1. Data presentation and interpretation

The questionnaire is divided into six sections. Section I elicits personal information: sex, level of study and age. Section II focuses on the students' attitudes towards learning English. It is divided into two parts. The first part deals with the students' present attitudes; it contains six items to which the students are asked to respond on the basis of a five-point scale: *strongly disagree*, disagree , *neither agree nor disagree* , *agree* and *strongly agree*. The second part in section II contains three questions dealing with the students' past attitudes, i.e. the attitudes held by students during the primary and secondary levels. Section III examines the students' attitudes and feelings towards using English. Section IV addresses the students' attitudes towards native speakers of English and English language culture. Section V deals with parental and societal encouragement. The three sections III, IV, and V include items with the same five-point scale mentioned above in the first part of section II. Section VI requests the students to self-evaluate their proficiency in English. It is divided into two parts: the first one comprises self-evaluation of one's proficiency in English and consists of eight items with a four-point scale: *excellent, good', fair,* and *poor*. The second part in section VI is an open-ended question which persuades the students to state whether they study more than, less than or

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about as much as the others in their English class. Section VII addresses the measures adopted by the students to improve their proficiency in English and it contains four questions. Question 1 asks the learners to specify, in an average span of two months, how often they speak to the following people: classmates, teachers, native speakers of English and other foreigners who speak English. They are required to give a response based on a five-point scale: *never*, *very rarely*, *at least once a week*, *at least once a day*, and *many times a day*. Question 2 of the last section requires students to state whether they spend time to improve their English outside college. It invites the students to list the activities they do to help them learn English outside the classroom and to indicate how often they do each activity. Question 3 requires students to specify if they have taken a course in English outside the primary/secondary school or university and where they have studied it. The last question in the last section requires the learners to state the amount of time they spend doing self-study in English.

The findings of the questionnaire have been analysed and discussed at the end of every table or graph.

5.1.1. Personal information

The following table presents the profile of the subjects of the study.

Table 1: Personal information

Students	Level of study	Age average	Number	Total number of students
Male	I	21	41 = 57.7%	71
Female	I	21	30 = 42.3%	

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The table above shows that the subjects include the first-level students. The average age of the students is 21 years which constitutes the normal age of the students who join the tertiary level in Yemen. The total number of the participants is 71; of which 41 are male students and 30 are female students; the former represents 57.7 per cent and the latter represents 42.3 per cent of the total group. The number of male students outweighs the female students here since the number of female students who join the tertiary level in Yemen is less; this so because most of the female students get married early and this hinders them from continuing their studies.

5.1.2. Students' Attitudes towards learning English

Table 2 and graph 1 below show the student's attitudes towards learning English after joining the college.

Table 2: Present attitudes to learning English

	Strongly disagree %		Disagree %		Neither Agree nor disagree %		Agree %		Strongly Agree %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. I really enjoy learning English.	0	0	9.8	10	0	13.3	68.3	73.3	22	3,3
2. Learning English is easy for me.	0	6.7	9.8	16.7	19.5	23.3	56.1	46.7	14.6	6.7
3. Learning English is very difficult for me.	19.5	13.3	41.5	33.3	19.5	26.7	12.2	13.3	7.3	13.3
4. Learning English is not important at all.	41.5	33.3	34.1	33.3	4.9	3.3	17.1	13.3	2.4	16.7
5. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak English very well.	2.4	6.7	4.9	3.3	17.1	0	65.9	70	9.8	20

6. I plan to make sure that my children learn English well.	2.4	0	7.3	10	2.4	3.3	70.7	66.7	17.1	20

From the table above, it can be observed that the students - both males and females - are favourably disposed towards learning English. However, this probably is not to be interpreted as the students having a strong penchant for English since they state only *agree* and not *strongly agree*. The students also agree but not strongly that they will ultimately speak English very well and that they will help their children learn English very well. As far as the item *learning English is very difficult for me* is concerned, 41.5% of the male students and 33.3% of the female students disagree. From the data one can observe the fact that students tend to agree and disagree but not strongly to most of the items in the questionnaire; this can be interpreted as evidence to the conclusion that students' attitudes towards learning English is moderately positive. Another common observation, based on the students' responses to the questionnaire, is that there are no differences between male and female students in terms of their attitudes towards learning English. The following graph captures the students' attitudes towards learning English at the primary and secondary levels.

Graph 1: Past attitudes to learning English

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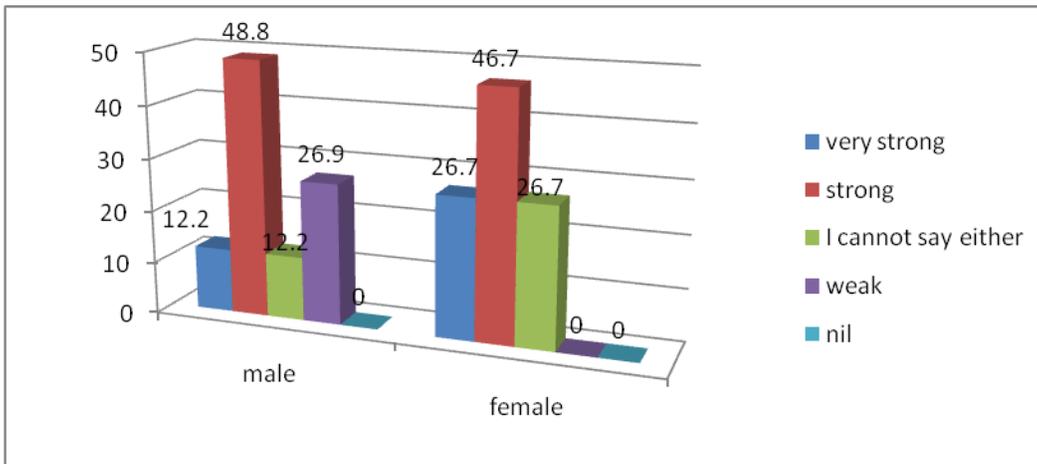
The graph shows that most students were interested in learning English in the primary and secondary school stages since 48.8% of the male students and 46.7% of the female students have strong interest; none of the students record his lack of interest in learning English. While 26% of the male students had weak interest in English, none of the female students had such weak interest. The reasons for the low interest in English expressed by some male students are recorded in the graph 2 below.

Graph 2: English as favourite subject
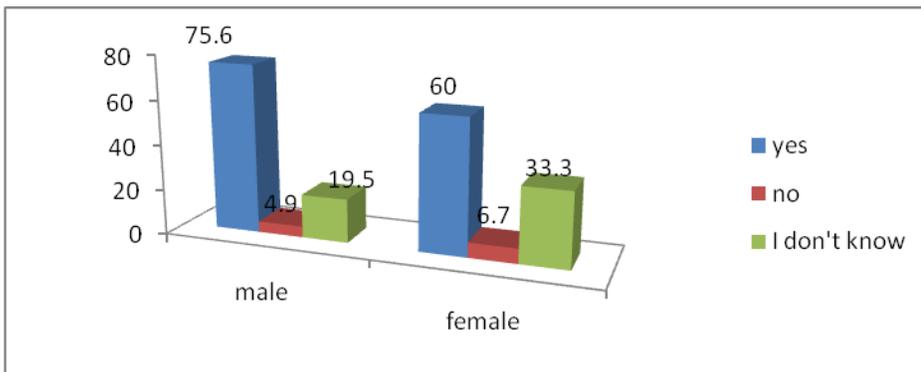
The graph shows that English was the favourite subject for the majority of the students at the primary and secondary levels (75.6% of the male students and 60% of the female students). Only very small number of them said English was not their favourite subject.

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So far, for both male and female students English was their favourite subject and they were quite interested in learning it in the past. Consequently, their attitudes towards learning English before joining college were positive and these attitudes, as shown in table 2, remain positive after joining college.

The following graph attempts to discover if the students encountered any unpleasant experiences while learning English at the primary and secondary levels.

Graph 3: Unpleasant experiences while learning English
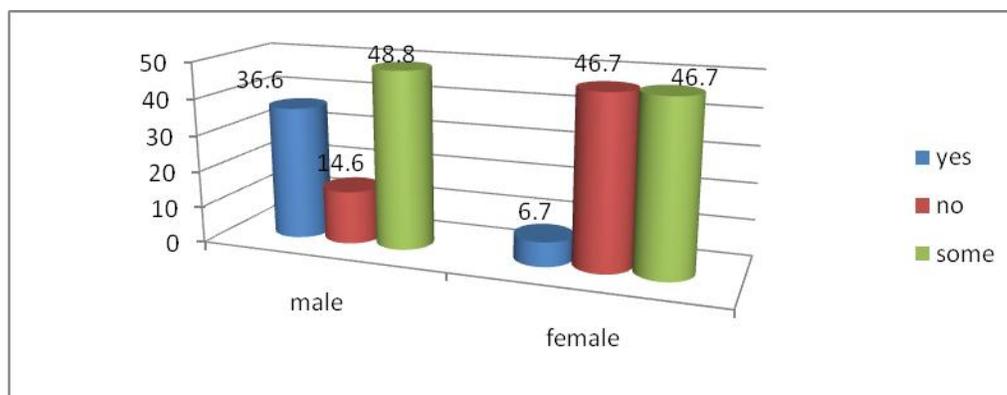
The graph above shows that, in comparison with the 14.6% males, 46.7% of the female students never underwent unpleasant experiences. It is evident that male students experienced more unpleasant feelings while learning English in the past than female students. These unpleasant experiences could be attributed to the unfavourable teaching methodologies that the male students were exposed to in the past as shown in graph 4 below.

Graph 4: the source(s) of unpleasant experience

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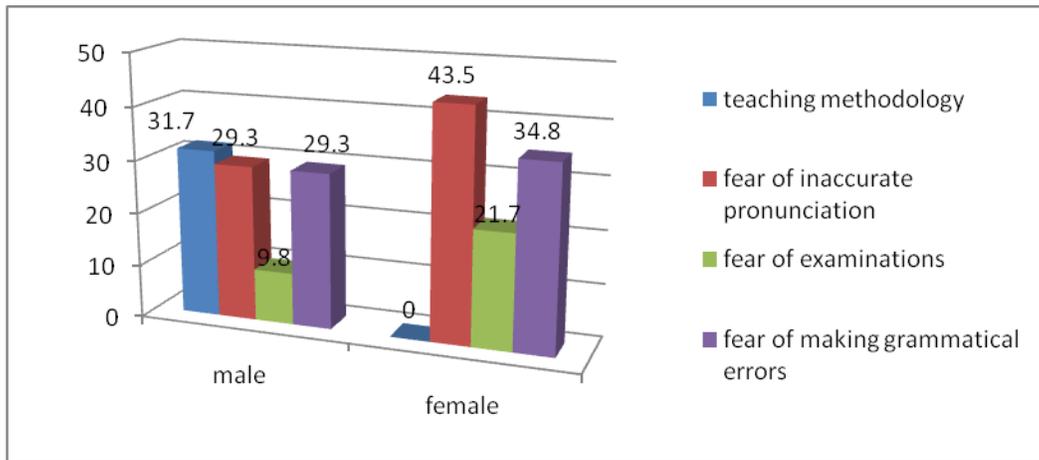
The graph reveals that the main source of unpleasant experiences for the male students is the classroom teaching methodologies. Interestingly, none of the female students associates their unpleasant experiences to this source. However, the major source of unpleasant experiences for the female students (53.5 %) is the fear of inaccurate pronunciation. Unpleasant experiences such as these need to be understood in the light of the fact that the Yemeni society is conservative, and therefore women tend to feel shy to speak in Arabic, let alone in English, in front of men. The common source of unpleasant experiences among both groups is the fear of making grammatical mistakes. As it will be shown in table 5 below, the fact that the Yemeni people discourage a person who speaks in English could be the cause of students' fear of making the grammatical mistakes when they speak in English. Furthermore, in the classroom situation, some teachers have nothing but scorn for the students who commit mistakes. Furthermore, the students feel afraid that the other students will laugh at them when they speak English as shown in table 3 below. Demoralizing responses such as scorn and ridicule seem to increase the students' fear of making grammatical mistakes.

5.1.3. Students' attitudes and feelings towards using English

In this section, the students' attitudes and feelings towards using English are investigated.

Table 3 Attitudes and feelings towards using English

	Strongly disagree %		Disagree %		Neither agree nor disagree %		Agree %		Strongly agree %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. I get nervous and confused when I speak English.	19.5	0	34.1	36.7	14.6	13.3	26.8	36.7	4.9	13.3
2. I generally find trying to communicate in English frustrating.	2.4	3.3	36.6	16.7	17.1	30	39	50	4.9	0
3. When I speak in English, the fear of making grammatical errors has a great influence on me.	9.8	3.3	19.5	10	14.6	26.7	51.2	46.7	4.9	13.3
4. I always feel that the other students speak English better than me.	7.3	3.3	26.8	10	19.5	30	39	43.3	7.3	13.3
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	17.1	10	19.5	23.3	24.4	16.7	39	36.7	0	13.3
6. I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students.	12.2	16.7	17.1	36.7	26.8	20	41.5	23.3	2.4	3.3

As the table above shows, it is interesting to note that 36.7% of the female students show their agreement and another 36.7% of them show their disagreement to the first statement: *I get nervous and confused when I speak English*. It seems that the various personalities and the different innate natures of the female students differently influence their confidence to speak English. While 34.1% of the male students disagree with the statement above, 26.8% of them disagree with it. Compared to female students, the male students, to some extent, feel more confident when they speak English. Concerning the statement *I generally find trying to communicate in English frustrating*, half of the female students agree with it while 39% of the male students agree and 36.6% of them disagree.

Again the nature and the personality of the male students play a great role in this matter. As revealed in graph 4 (see page 39), both male students and female students state that one of the sources of their unpleasant experiences while learning English is the fear of making grammatical errors; Further, table 3 above reveals that this fear has a great influence on students when they speak English (51.2% male and 46.7% female students). 39% male students state that other students speak English better than them and that others will laugh at them when they speak English. This further demotivates the students with low proficiency and there is a risk of these students remaining as poor language speakers for ever. Moreover, female students feel that there are many other students who speak English much better than they do (43.3 %) and they do share the concern that they will be laughed at when they speak English (36.7%). Thus it is clear that the fear that they will be laughed at arouses out of the notion that others are better language speakers than they are. A clear contrast appears between the genders when male students state that they feel embarrassed to speak English in front of others (41.5%), while female students do not share this feeling (36.7%). This is in sharp contrast to the reality that actually exists in the Yemeni society wherein women are thought of as more shy and embarrassed to speak in front of others than men.

5.1.4. Students' Attitudes towards native speakers of English and their culture

The following table shows the attitudes the students hold towards the target language group and their culture.

Table 4: Attitudes towards native speakers of English and their culture

	Strongly disagree %		Disagree %		Neither agree nor disagree %		Agree %		Strongly agree %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F

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1. I like the people who are native speakers of English.	4.9	6.7	9.8	3.3	2.4	0	68.3	80	14.6	10
2. Native English speakers are sincere and honest.	2.4	6.7	14.6	20	21.9	30	53.7	40	7.3	3.3
3. Native English speakers are very kind and generous people	2.4	3.3	19.5	10	34.1	40	34.1	43.3	9.8	3.3
4. I should learn English without paying attention to the cultures of English-speaking countries.	4.9	16.7	36.7	36.7	17.1	3,3	29.3	43.3	12.2	0
5. It is necessary to know the cultures of English-speaking countries in order to speak English	3.3	4.9	16.7	9.8	13.3	14.6	53.3	61	13.3	9,8
6. The Yemeni culture is superior to the cultures of the English-speaking countries.	9.8	10	14.6	36.7	26.8	10	39	30	9.8	13.3

From the table above, we can realize, in general, that both male and female students have positive attitudes towards the native speakers of English. The majority states that they like the native speakers of English (68.3% male and 80% females students); they also agree that the native speakers of English are sincere and honest (53.7% male and 40% female students) and that the native speakers of English are very kind and generous (34.1% male and 43.3 female students). As far as the cultures of the native speakers of English are concerned, , 43.4% female students, compared to 29.3% females, think they should learn English without paying attention to the cultures of English speaking countries. It seems that male the students are more inclined towards the notion of paying attention to the English-speaking culture than the female students. But concerning the necessity of knowing the English-speaking culture in order for someone to speak English,

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the female students who agree outnumber the males; 61% females, compared to 53.3% males, agree with that opinion. Consequently, there is some evidence that female students realize the importance of understanding the English-speaking culture for them to acquire English well, but many of them prefer to learn English without paying attention to that culture. Moreover, compared to 14.6% male students, 36.7% of the females believe that the Yemeni culture is superior to cultures of the English-speaking countries and this give justification to the female students' preference to learn English without paying attention to the culture of English speaking community.

5.1.5. Parental and societal encouragement

Parents and society can greatly influence the students' attitudes towards learning English. The following table shows the degree of encouragement that students who learn English receive from their parents and from the people in general in the Yemeni society.

Table 5: Parental and societal encouragement

	Strongly disagree %		Disagree %		Neither agree nor disagree %		Agree %		Strongly agree %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. My parents really encourage me to study English	2.4	13.3	9,8	3.3	12.2	10	53.7	63.3	21.9	10
2. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English courses.	9.8	3.3	19.5	20	19.5	23.3	29.3	50	21.9	33
3. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I have problems with my English.	7.3	6.7	17.1	20	39	16.7	29.3	53.3	7.3	3.3

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4. Yemeni people think it is important to speak English.	2.4	6.7	19.5	23.3	24.4	26.7	39	33.3	14.6	10
5. Yemeni people discourage a person who speaks in English.	4.9	10	26.8	33.3	12.2	6.7	46.4	43.3	9,8	6.7
6. If I use English I will be praised by my family, relatives and friends.	2.4	6.7	12.2	16.7	21.9	20	46.4	50	17.1	6.7

The table shows that the parents of both male and female students encourage them to study English and to seek help from their teachers if they have problems with their English. The parents show considerable interest in anything to do with their English. Their family, relatives and friends praise them when they use English. It is interesting to note here that only relatives and friends encourage students to speak in English, while most Yemeni people who are not relatives or friends discourage a person who speaks in English. Further, the table shows that female students (63.3%) receive more encouragement from their parents than male students (53.7%). This is so because, in the Yemeni society, female students tend to be diffident and introvert and to help them overcome these stumbling blocks parents encourage them. Male students who generally exhibit extrovert personalities do not require so much encouragement as their female counterparts. However, many students (46.4% male and 43.3% female) state that the Yemeni people discourage them when they speak English though they (the Yemeni people) realize the importance of speaking English. The monolingual nature of the Yemeni society can be cited as a reason for this contradiction. Yemeni people consider those who speak English among themselves as peculiar since Arabic is the only language spoken by people in Yemen.

5.1.6. Learner proficiency in English

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Students are given the chance to evaluate their own proficiency in English; the following table presents the results of the students' self-evaluation.

Table 6: Self-evaluation of one's proficiency

	Excellent %		Good %		Fair %		poor %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. How do you evaluate your proficiency in English?	2.4	13.3	51.2	43.3	46.4	43.3	0	0
2. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in English to other students in your class?	9.8	3.3	61	63.3	21.9	26.7	7.3	6.7
3. By the end of your BA English course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?	26.8	73.3	58.5	20	14.6	3.3	0	3.3
4. My ability to read English is	19.5	36.7	53.7	46.7	21.9	13.3	4.9	3.3
5. My ability to write in English is	14.6	40	56.1	43.3	26.8	16.7	2.4	0
6. My vocabulary knowledge in English is	2.4	13.3	48.8	56.7	43.9	23.3	4.9	6.7
7. My ability to speak English is	19.5	10	31.7	43.3	46.4	46.7	2.4	0
8. My listening comprehension in English is	0	6.7	41.5	46.7	41.5	36.7	17.1	10

From the data presented above, it is evident that both the male and female students hold positive attitudes towards learning English and towards English-speaking people and their culture. In addition, as shown in table 6, the majority of the students evaluate their own proficiency in English as good or fair and some evaluate themselves as excellent, while none of them said they have low proficiency in English. This finding indicates that the students evaluate themselves as learners with a mid-level. In comparison with the other classmates, 63.3 % of the female students and 61% of the male students evaluate

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their overall proficiency in English as good. Another encouraging factor is that most of the students especially the female students have great expectation that their English will be for the better by the end of their BA English course. As far as the skills of English and vocabulary knowledge in English are concerned, majority of the students state that their writing and reading skills range between excellent and good, while their listening comprehension, speaking ability and vocabulary knowledge range between good and fair. As a matter of fact, students think that their listening ability is not as good as their abilities in the other skills since none of the male students and very few female students (6.7%) evaluate their listening comprehension as excellent. Regarding the speaking skill, the students do not find enough opportunity to practise it since they live in a monolingual society and also because Yemeni people tend to discourage a person who speaks English. Moreover, unless the students use the vocabulary they learned when they speak in English, their vocabulary knowledge will not improve. There is some evidence that the students are better in reading and writing than in listening and speaking, since they can easily find some books to read and they can practise writing on their own without being discouraged or disturbed by others. The following graph attempts to capture the students' own perceptions of their efforts to learn English.

Graph 5: Students' perceptions of their efforts to learn English compared to others

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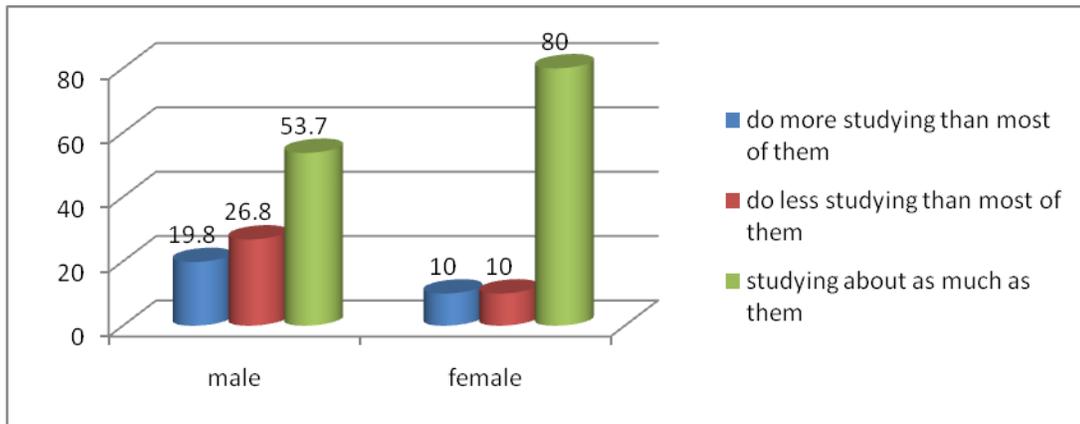
It can be observed from the graph above that the majority of the students, especially the male students, seem to think that they work as hard as their peers. This finding supports the finding above (see table 6) that the students thinks that their level of proficiency is as good as others in their English class.

5.1.7. Measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English

The following data reveals the measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English.

Table 7: Frequency of speaking in English to others in a two-month period

	Never %		Very rarely %		At least 1/weak %		At least 1/day %		Many times daily %	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
a. classmates	4.9	3.3	58.5	40	17.1	23.3	4.9	23.3	14.6	10
b. teachers	14.6	23.3	53.7	26.7	4.9	16.7	7.3	16.7	19.5	16.7
c. native speakers of English	34.1	66.7	34.1	13.3	12.2	10	9.8	-	9.8	10
d. other foreigners who speak English	51.2	50	19.5	33.3	17.1	13.3	4.9	-	7.3	-
e. others :_friends_____	2.4	-	2.4	-	4.9	-	7.3	-	2.4	-

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The table shows that most students in an average span of two months either never speak or very rarely speak to others; 58.5% male students and 40% female students state that they very rarely speak to their classmates. Female students speak to their classmates at least once a weak (23.3%) and at least once a day (23.3%). As far as speaking to the teachers is concerned, male students state that they very rarely speak to their teachers (53.7%), while female students confess that they never speak (23.3%) or very rarely (26.7%) speak to their teachers. 66.7% of the female students compared to 34.1% of the male students said they never speak to native speaker of English. This finding that the female students never speak in English to the native speakers of English along with the finding mentioned in table 3 above that female students get nervous when they speak in English could be attributed to the psychological and social nature of women in the Yemeni society; Yemeni women are rather shy and do not attempt to interact with other Yemeni people, especially the opposite sex, let alone the foreigners.   In addition, 51.2 % of the female students and 50% of the male students never speak to other foreigners who speak English. It appears that the students feel more comfortable to speak in English with one another than with teachers and foreigners. Thus the table above shows that the students very rarely speak in English to others. The fact that the students are afraid of making grammatical mistakes; or the fear that others will laugh at them when they speak in English (table 3); and that the Yemeni people discourage the person who speak in English (table 5) could be the main sources which force the students to hardly ever speak in English to others, (i.e. classmates, teachers and foreigners).

Table 8: Number of students who try to improve their English

Male %	Female %

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100	100

100% of the male and female students responded in the affirmative to the question: *Do you spend time trying to improve your English outside of the college?* The following table shows the activities the students do outside the classroom to help them learn English and the frequency with which students do these activities.

Table 9: Activities done by students to improve their English

Activities	Sex	percentage number of students	Frequency daily	once a week	twice a week	3 times a week	4 times a week	5 times a week	once a month
a. Reading books, magazines, newspapers, stories	M	80.5	31.7	2.4	7.3	29.3	-	-	9.7
	F	73	23.3	10	13.3	20	-	-	6.7
b. Speaking with friends in English	M	73.2	31.7	4.8	7.3	14.6	-	2.4	12.2
	F	53.3	26.7	-	3.3	16.7	-	6.7	-
c. Watching programmes in English on TV	M	53.7	36.6	2.4	-	12.2	-	-	2.4
	F	80	46.7	3.3	6.7	13.3	-	3.3	6.7
d. Watching films	M	22	22	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	30	10	6.7	3.3	6.7	-	3.3	-
e. Preparing and studying for the class	M	14.7	12.2	2.4	-	-	-	-	-
	F	43.3	30	6.7	3.3	-	-	3.3	-
f. Listening to CDs, radio, cassettes …etc	M	29.3	14.6	2.4	7.3	2.4	-	2.4	-
	F	26.7	20	3.3	3.3	-	-	-	-
g. Practising writing skill	M	36.5	14.9	2.4	2.4	12.2	-	4.9	-
	F	30	6.7	-	-	6.7	3.3	3.3	-
h. Memorizing words	M	7.3	7.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i. Learning new vocabulary from dictionary	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	6.7	3.3	-	-	-	-	3.3	-
j. Studying grammar	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

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		F	3.3	-	-	-	3.3	-	-	-

The table shows that the activities done most frequently by the students to improve their English are reading books, magazines, newspapers, stories; speaking with friends in English; watching programmes on TV and practising writing skill. Students prefer reading books because (as shown in table 6) their ability to read and write in English ranges between excellent and good. The finding that many students prefer to speak to friends as another method of improving their English correlates with the finding in table 7 that the student prefer to speak English to the classmates rather than to their teachers or foreigners. The findings in table 9 indicate that the students bring the opportunities available in their own environment into play. Almost every house in Yemen has a satellite dish which brings English channels like BBC and CNN. Besides, every college of education contains a library with valuable English books and local newspapers written in English. However, as it can be observed from table 9 above, compared to the female students (43.3%), the number of the male students (14.7%) who spend time outside the classroom studying or preparing for their English class is relatively less. The female students, thus, are considered more committed to their studies than the male students. Regarding language skills, listening is least attended to the students; just 26.7% of the male students and 36% of the female students try to improve their listening ability. This finding is consonance with the statement presented in table 6 that none of the male students and very few female students evaluate their listening comprehension as excellent.

Table 10: Students who took extra English course(s) outside school or university

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Male %		Female %	
Yes	**No**	**Yes**	**No**
46.3	53.6	30	70

The table shows that 46.3 % of the male students and 30% of the female students have taken extra courses in English outside school and university. The number of the male students outweighs the number of the female students in this respect since some female students, especially those who live in the suburbs, find it difficult to join English language centres in the downtown.

Table 11: Places for taking courses in English

Sex	Language teaching centres %	Tuition %	Other %
M	46.3	0	0
F	30	0	0

The table shows that the students have taken courses in English in language teaching centres; none of them has taken tuition in English since tuitions are uncommon in Yemen. The fact that many students have not joined the English language centres could be ascribed to the financial situation of the students and the high fees of the courses offered by the English language centres.

Table 12: Time allotted for self-study

sex	1 hr per week	2 hrs per week	3 hrs per week	4 hrs per week	5 hr per week	6 hrs per week	7 hrs per week	10 hrs per week	12 hrs per week	15 hr per week
M	24.4	4.9	4.9	36.6	-	-	22	2.4	2.4	2.4
F	26.7	-	3.3	36.7	3.3	3.3	26.7	-	-	-

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The table shows that the average time of self-study done by the students – both males and females- is around 6 and 4 hours per week respectively. The fact that students do allot time for self-study can be interpreted as an evidence of their interest and positive attitudes towards learning English.

5.2. Overview of the chapter

This chapter has presented and analysed the data obtained for the study. It has also discussed the findings of the study. The findings have helped to find answers to the questions raised by the present research. The implications of these findings will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

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6.0. Introduction

This chapter will summarize the findings of the study. It will discuss the implications of these findings for teaching and learning in the Yemeni context. Suggestions for further research in this area will also be offered.

6.1. Findings

6.1.1 Students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English

The attitudes of both male and female students towards English and learning English have been compared. Students stated their attitudes towards English and learning English before and after joining the college.

- There are no significant differences between the male and the female students in term of their attitudes towards learning English.
- Before and after joining the college, the students were interested in learning English and English was their favourite subject at the secondary and primary levels as well.

6.1.2. Students' attitudes towards the use of English

Students indentified some aspects in English as posing problems for them to cope with. They also attempted to spell out where their apprehensions emerged from.

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- The main source of fear among the male students was the methods of teaching adopted by teachers of English, while none of the female students associated their fear to that source.

- As far as the female students are concerned, the major source of fear is the fear of inaccurate pronunciation.

- The fear of making grammatical mistakes was experienced by both male and female students; as a result, this kind of fear greatly influenced their ability to speak English.

- For the male students, the methods of teaching adopted by teachers of English at the primary and secondary levels triggered higher degree of anxiety and lower level of interest in learning English.

6.1.3. Attitudes towards native speakers of English and their culture

Students expressed their attitudes towards English speakers and their culture, as well their own Yemeni culture. Females showed an interesting disposition towards the English language culture.

- Both male and female students have positive attitudes towards the native speakers and the English culture.

- Though the female students realize that learning English requires understanding the target language culture, many of them prefer to learn English without paying attention to the culture of the English speaking communities. This disposition stems from the female students belief that

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the Yemeni culture is superior to the cultures of the English-speaking countries.

6.1.4. Parental and societal encouragement

Students have stated the extent to which their parents encourage them to learn English. They also pointed out how the Yemeni society reacts towards people who speak in English.

- Despite the fact that the Yemeni people realize the importance of speaking English, they tend to discourage people who speak in English among them.
- Female students receive more encouragement from their parents than male students.

6.1.5. The link between student's attitudes and their achievement in English

Students evaluated their own achievement and proficiency in English. They also listed the activities that they engage themselves in to improve their proficiency in English. Their attitudes towards learning English and their achievement proficiency in English have been compared.

- There is a correlation between students' achievement in English and their attitudes towards learning English.

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- In order to improve their proficiency in English, students use effective measures such as reading books and newspapers, watching programmes in English on TV etc.

- Students perceive that they possess a reasonably good proficiency in English.

- The students hold the opinion that they have better proficiency in reading and writing than in listening and speaking.

- The students feel more comfortable to speak in English with one another than with teachers and foreigners. Consequently, many students do attempt to speak in English to their friends in order to achieve better proficiency in English.

6.2. Implications

The study proves that the students' attitudes towards English and towards learning English are positive; thus, if students get low grades in exams or seem inattentive to their studies, other factors like students' attitudes towards teachers, curriculum, and methods of teaching could be the causes of such phenomena. The study reveals that: the fear of making grammatical mistakes; the discouragement of Yemeni people for those who speak in English; and the fear of being ridiculed by their friends for their mistakes negatively affect students' achievement in English. Consequently, the role of teachers and parents becomes vital to help students overcome these impeding apprehensions. Both parents and teachers should

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encourage the students to speak in English and spread awareness among them that learning cannot happen without making mistakes. The study also reveals that the students prefer to speak in English to friends rather than to teachers. This finding has two implications: a) the teachers should build a good rapport with their students so that the students feel comfortable to interact with them and b) they should encourage the students to interact more with each other in English in and outside the classroom. Since students pay little attention to the listening skill, teachers need to find interesting materials catering to the students' level which will help them to improve their listening ability. Moreover, the study shows that students think that their proficiency in English is as good as the proficiency of others in their class. Such a perception can have many positive effects in the classroom. For instance teachers can strengthen the rapport among the students and thereby create a comfortable classroom atmosphere wherein meaningful learning can take place.

6.3. Suggestions for further research

Further research is possible in this area. Since the present study has examined the attitudes of students towards English and towards learning English, a study of the students' attitudes towards teachers, curriculum and classroom teaching methodologies could be conducted. Exploring into this area could reveal many critical issues regarding understanding and improving learners' achievement in English at tertiary level. Further, a study similar to the present one can be carried out across the English-major students in all colleges in Yemen. In addition, since

the present study restricts itself to the tertiary level, exploring the same issue at the primary and secondary levels could lead to better understanding of many factors concerning teaching and learning English in the Yemeni context.

6.4. Overview of the chapter

In this chapter, a summary of the findings of the study has been presented. The implications of the study in the present context have been discussed. Finally suggestions for further research in the area have been provided.

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APPENDIX

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Dear student

This questionnaire is administered as part of the research undertaken by Hassan Saeed Ba-Udhan (MA TESL, The English and Foreign Languages University, Hyderabad, India) on 'Impact *of Students' Attitudes on their Achievement in English: A Study in the Yemeni Context*'. **This is not a test**. It has no right or wrong answers. You do not need to write your name on the survey. The information obtained through the questionnaire will be kept confidential and will be used solely for research purposes. The questionnaire will not be shown to anyone in your college except the director of the research project. Please read the statements and the questions carefully and answer them frankly. The success of the investigation depends on your sincerity and openness in filling the questionnaire. Your cooperation is solicited and will be greatly appreciated and acknowledged.

Thank you

Yours sincerely
Hassan

Questionnaire

Place a check mark [√] to the statement which applies to you.

Section I: Personal Information

1.	Sex:	☐ male	☐ female.			
2.	Level of study	☐ 1st year	☐ 2nd year	☐ 3rd year	☐ 4th year.	
3.	Age:	☐ 21	☐ 22	☐ 24	☐ other (please specify) ……	

Section II: Attitudes towards learning English

Part 1: Present attitudes

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I really enjoy learning English.					
2.	Learning English is easy for me.					
3.	Learning English is very difficult for me.					

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	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
4. Learning English is not important at all.					
5. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak English very well.					
6. I plan to make sure that my children learn English well.					

Part 2:   Past attitudes

1. In your primary/secondary school age, your interest in English was:
   □ very strong   □ strong   □ cannot say either   □ weak   □ nil

2. Was English language your favorite subject in the primary/secondary school?
   □ Yes   □ No   □ I don't know

3. Did the English learning in your primary/secondary school give you any unpleasant experience?
   □ Yes   □ No   □ some

If your answer is "yes" or "some", the source(s) of unpleasant experience were:
   □ teaching methodology   □ fear of inaccurate pronunciation   □ fear of examinations   □ fear of making grammatical errors

 Others? Please write in the space provided below
_____
_____

Section III: Attitudes and feelings towards using English

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I get nervous and confused when I speak English.					
2. I generally find trying to communicate in English frustrating.					
3. When I speak in English, the fear of making grammatical errors has a great influence on me.					
4. I always feel that the other students speak English better than me.					
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English					
6. I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students.					

Section IV: Attitudes towards native speakers of English and their culture.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I like the people who are native speakers of English.					
2. Native English speakers are sincere and honest.					
3. Native English speakers are very kind and generous people					
4. I should learn English without paying attention to the cultures of English-speaking countries.					

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	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
5. It is necessary to know the cultures of English-speaking countries in order to speak English					
6. The Yemeni culture is superior to the cultures of the English-speaking countries.					

Section V: Parental and societal encouragement

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. My parents really encourage me to study English					
2. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English courses.					
3. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I have problems with my English.					
7. Yemeni people think it is important to speak English.					
4. Yemeni people discourage a person who speaks English.					
5. If I use English I will be praised by my family, relatives and friends.					

Section VI: Learner proficiency in English

i. Self-evaluation of one's proficiency

	Excellent	Good	Fair	poor
1. How do you evaluate your proficiency in English?				
2. So far how do you compare your overall proficiency in English to other students in your class?				
3. By the end of your BA English course what do you expect your proficiency level to be?				
4. My ability to read English is				
5. My ability to write in English is				
6. My vocabulary knowledge in English is				
7. My ability to speak English is				
8. My listening comprehension in English is				

ii.   Compared to the others in my English class, I think I :

☐ do more studying than most of them

☐ do less studying than most of them.

☐ study about as much as most of them.

Section VII : Measures adopted by students to improve their proficiency in English

1. In an average span of two months, how frequently do you speak in English to the following people?	Never	Very rarely	At least 1/weak	At least 1/day	Many times daily
a. classmates					
b. teachers					
c. native speakers of English					
d. other foreigners who speak English					
e. others :_____					

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2. Do you spend time trying to improve your English outside of the college?
        ☐ Yes   ☐ No

If yes,

List the activities that you do outside the classroom that help you learn English - For example, studying or preparing for class, other reading or writing, watching TV, speaking with friends, watching films, etc. Also, list how often you do each activity- For example: one hour a day; two times a week; once a month.

                          Activity   Frequency

        a. _____   _____
        b. _____   _____
        c. _____   _____
        d. _____   _____
        e. _____   _____
        f. _____   _____

3. Have you studied English outside primary/secondary school or university?
        ☐ Yes   ☐ No

If you answered 'yes', where did you study English?

        ☐ language teaching centres   ☐ tuition   ☐ other _____

4. Outside the classroom, How much amount of time do you spend doing self-study in English. (Excluding all that is given by teachers.)

        ☐ four hours per week.   ☐ one hour per week.

        ☐ seven hours per week   ☐ none of these

        ☐ give approximate number of hours per week: ___ hours.

            Thank you for taking the time to answer the questions thoughtfully.

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Natural and Supernatural Elements in
Arun Joshi's *The City and the River*

P. Bala Shanmuga Devi, Ph.D.
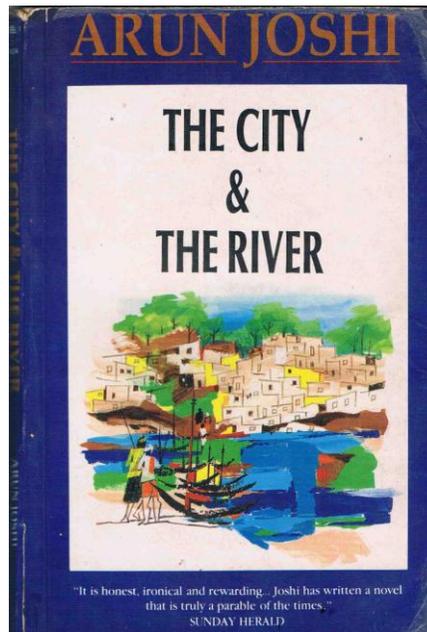
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Arun Joshi's Cultural and Literary Ethos

Arun Joshi's creations are enhanced by the three-fold faculty of a poet's expansiveness, minuteness of a scientist and the vision of a spiritual sage. Under the British rule Indians were exposed to Western culture, and of course to the potent English language which has become the most suitable backdrop for Joshi's creative frame of mind.

As befitting his period of dual culture exposure on most of the affluent, foreign educated elite, Joshi's heroes are all equipped with shrewd discerning intelligence, as sharp as the first intellectual hero depicted in Virgil's *Aeneid* and like the best intellectual hero of Indian Vedic literature *Nachiketa* who vied with *Yama* to learn about life. Through these characters Joshi deals with lofty themes springing from his moralistic inner soul, by plotting around them anecdotes that relate to the socio-cultural background. Simultaneously, he draws in huge Indian cities like Bombay and New Delhi, highly developed Western cities like New York and Boston, and the neglected primitive untrodden forest of Maikala hills in central India as well the Harlem of America.

The City and the River and the Mystery Around

The City and the River was the last novel of Joshi, published nine years after his previous Sahitya Akademi Award winning novel *The Last Labyrinth*. *The City and the River* is a parable of times, set in a wider backdrop, using an artistically satisfying mixture of prophecy and fantasy. The strong undertone in favor of environmentalism make this novel sound more as a political novel, couched in metaphors, etc.

Unlike Joshi's other four novels where the narration is to see the world through the eyes of the protagonist, this story is narrated by an omniscient narrator, a sage named Great Yogeswara, who is both within and without the narrative. This political fable also falls into a

> New literary genre called apocalypse, from the Greek Apo-calyptein, meaning to 'un-veil'…in the form of a revelation of the end of history. Violent and grotesque images are juxtaposed with glimpse of a world between good and evil… Apocalypticism has been described as a genre born out of crisis, designed to stiffen the resolve of an embattled community by dangling in front of it the vision of a sudden and permanent release from his captivity. It is underground literature, the consolation of the persecuted. (Garrard 86)

The narrator recites to his Name-less disciple the events that took place in the city at a particular point of history. At the end of the recital, he commissions his disciple, the nameless child of the boatman to move forward to another historical point. The novel ends where it begins.

Relentless cycle of birth and rebirth is highlighted and man's endeavour to overcome this cycle of endless repetition of birth is dealt with. "On the ruins of that city, as always

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happens, a new city has risen. It is ruled by another Grand Master" (*City and River* 262). The city in question is governed by benevolent but greedy Grand Masters who are bent on lording over its citizens.

Grand Dreams – Allegorical Mode

The present Grandmaster one day dreams that he becomes a king, sitting on top of the hill surrounded by the waters of a river and by a circle of naked men closely cornering him to the extent of choking him by their close proximity. By this dream, the Grand Master entertains hopes of becoming the king and resorts to unethical ways to realize his dreams.

The use of the allegorical mode, the mythical pattern and the archetypal symbols like the sublime snow-capped mountains, the ever flowing river that sustains mankind physically and spiritually, the sacred fire that purifies, the great deluge or *Pralaya* that wipes out sin and evil to pave the way to a new beginning, gives the book a profound spiritual aura. Besides this, the prophecy giving the whereabouts of the future also has deep mysticism embedded in it.

> Who knows, who can read the signs,
> The workings of immortal time?
> A king I see upon a throne,
> In astronomer's grove the boatmen mourn,
> A thing of darkness growing dark,
> On city walls the shadow's mark.
> The river, I see, from a teacher rise.
> The hermit, the parrot, the teacher die.
> Under a rain the waters burn,
> To his kingdom at last the king returns.
>   - AN OLD PROPHECY (*City and River* 8)

The Three Commands

Three commands are imposed on the citizens – one is to swear allegiance to the Mortal ruler, instead to the divinity, second to enforce compulsive obnoxious and loathsome family planning measures to contain the population of the boatmen and thirdly, the cruel punishment awarded to the dissidents in the name of "Law of Compassionate Righteousness". These inhuman measures poison the serenity of the country and more cruel laws are promulgated to quell the riots, which are equally preposterous. Just to win the sympathy of the extended community, they go on telling them the crudest and most stupid things. The Astrologer administers a brief oath to the multitude warning them against traitors.

The boatmen, who form the major part of the citizens, say that "If it's a matter of allegiance, our allegiance is only to the River and to worship the great River, the Time's

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consort'' (*The City and the River* 9), and the fate of the Government that does not obey Natural justice gets finally devoured by Nature itself:

> Rulers reputed for Justice seasoned with mercy
> She bless with boons in plenty
> Others she devours and dances in plenty. (Subramania Bharathiar, *Our Mother*, Bharathi's Poems, 41).

Yet another message which the novel carries is that "By the grace of the river and the mountain, rain is made. By the grace of the mother earth, a crop is grown. What is grown is plentiful for all and many more. But the crop is then pasted with labels of money and the mud-people do not have the money and so they are seen running here and there fighting over trifles… Thus is God's law twisted in the hands of the Seven Hills…" (*The City and the River* 20). The *River* stands as the symbolic representation of the primordial Nature, which should get prior attention above all.

The Social Crimes Condemned

Joshi in *The City and the River* mainly deals with the seriousness of the ill effects arising out of many social crimes. These include indiscriminate mining, compulsory family planning, drastic evacuation of families for the sake of straightening an avenue, failure to accept the poorer citizens at their face value, venturing to destroy the cultural background of one's own subjects, plotting to perpetuate a despotic dynastic rule of a single family, thereby marring the congenial atmosphere and environment all over the land. A cultured society survives when accord prevails over discord, and when peace and co-operation triumphs over perpetual tension and hostility.

Brutal demolition of habitations and encroachments of poor citizens, wrenching the personal rights of Boatmen, press censorship, vandalism, etc., all are part of despotic durbar rule. The re-activated dead gold mines become a death trap, not a source of prosperity for all the Grand Master's political enemies. Later on when the Professor fasts unto death and mass upheaval is feared, the Grand Master makes a strategic retreat and decides to issue a decree wherein "all prisoners shall be told their crimes, or, set free" (*The City and the River* 167-68). The Astrologer is alarmed at the prospect of what "will happen when thousands upon thousands of the vanished ones come back and flood the city streets."(*The City and the River* 168), but the Grand Master replies that "Issuing of a decree, Astrologer, does not mean its immediate implementation. It will no doubt take time …" (*The City and the River* 168) and drives home the fact that he has no real intention of enacting the decree.

However, as expected, the public, even his non-supporters fail to see through his falsehood. They believe his misleading words. The Grand Master loathes the boat men and considers them a disgrace to the city, moving around half-clad and is bent upon curtailing their freedom by means of law. "Let there be only one child to a mother or two

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to a home. Let the boatmen not exceed this limit until their numbers are checked." (*The City and the River* 16-17) he states to the Astrologer who is aghast at the prospect and meekly retorts that it is "something of which there is no mention in our sacred books." (*The City and the River* 17). This finally leads to a great upheaval and the resultant deluge. They are people who worship "the great river which was Time's consort and Time itself." (*The City and the River* 61) and hence the deluge is self-explanatory.

The Grand Master claims to act according to the prophecy which speaks of the arrival of a king. The false fabricated propaganda against Master Bhoma, the Professor, and the boatmen of the boat race, merits due condemnation. "Cursed be the Social lies that warp us from the living Truth/Cursed be the sickly forms that err from Honest Nature rule," writes Tennyson.

A Calm Respite for the Author

In spite of all his vitriolic criticism of the defacement of earth, abusing water resource, denigrating one's own brethren, Joshi finds some respite in enjoying the serenity of the Himalayan ranges, and a beautiful rose garden amidst the most inhuman atmosphere in his "city'. India has great obsession for its flower-based culture, both spiritually, aesthetically and therapeutically. The learned *Rishis* of Bharat recognized the healing aspect of the fragrance of flowers and hence devised methods to trap them in *Agarbathies* to heal humanity holistically.

Joshi introduces this profound idea in his Grandfather's rose garden of *The City and the River*. "Dharma's grandfather lives on a rose farm. His roses are the finest in city and is said to dance to the sound of music" (*The City and the River* 23), juxtaposed with the barren concrete jungle of the intimidating rulers. Magnanimity of the grandfather, the head of the family, the honest police officer Dharma, the highly intelligent astrologer, the most dutiful father of Dharma expose themselves in the most beautiful garden in the city. A fine picture of a perennial ocean of swaying noble-born roses expands pleasingly before one's eyes as we read Joshi:

> The farm was brightly lit because grand father was putting his roses to sleep. What stunned one was the quality of the roses. Swaying gently in the breeze the roses seemed alive …like children in dresses of yellow and orange, red and pink. (*The City and the River* 23)

Even the cruel grand master, whose aversion to fine arts has been well known, a rose of good lineage was something that he had never been able to resist, yet shows his self conceit and arrogance by naming a new variety of flower after his name that is uncalled for. However, when a small part of the rose farm succumbs to the insidious sulphurous emission of the gold mines, and proves to be a clear signal for more such mishaps the grandfather hopes feverishly for redemption of the same. He never fears flood from the dear great river, because he believes that as long as the roses stand the mother river who

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has given them birth will not hurt them. This stands true, for when the rose garden is shelled and destroyed, the river swells and there rises the resultant deluge. The shells that had destroyed Grandfather's home and ruined his rose garden had also blown away the embankment… The river had filled the crater and covered the wreckage of the farm house. It was now spilling out into the city…. And now the Hermit can hear a new rushing and roaring as yard by yard the angry river takes the embankment by its roots and flings it like a pebble into the churning whirlpools….(*The City and the River* 251-252).

The Faith and the Blossom

This faith of the grandfather stands witness to the fact of the bio-geological aspect, which informs us of a nocturnal energy field present in a particular region, which, if left undisturbed, radiates a force palpable and concrete for sustenance. The living presence of this force nurtures all the eco diversity upon the land. Just as human beings are endowed with a sixth sense, Joshi gives a dramatic description of how the roses go to sleep one by one and can never bear any torment of harshness from the tyrants in the face of which in a minute or two the bushes wither and fall.

The lip service of the grandmaster saying merely that the disease will not spread, taking care also to stress his intention to call the rose in his name clearly is no indication of the ruler's inclination towards restoring normalcy in his kingdom, so that no more such casualties of eco pressure would happen in future.

Emancipation of the Soul

Now and then Joshi in the garb of the professor-cum-astrologer travels through his city accompanied by Little Star who is thousands of years old, basks in the galaxies that swing back and forth in the majestic indigo sky, the nightly canopies, the great city and their great ancient river. The Professor in his twenty years of friendship with the stars claims to have received complete emancipation to his soul. Such is the power of nature that can effortlessly help cure a man of all his yearnings. Hopefully, the modern war-mongering society should not mar this serenity of *Akash* by STAR WARS in the future.

On behalf of these inactive intelligentsia, Joshi, who has traveled far and wide in this land of horror wreaked by inhuman interference that made inroads on the eco-kingdom, begs forgiveness. The *Yajna* of the affected ones, whether they are humans, flora, or fauna, should go on with the fire of enthusiasm of the environmentalists, eco-conscientious public and devotees of Nature till the goal of restoring a healthy, wealthy, fertile earth and sky to our descendants.

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Pedagogical Values Obtained from a Language Class in an EFL Context – A Case Study from Indonesia

A. Dzo'ul Milal, Dr., M.Pd.

This study was conducted in an English classroom consisting of mixed-ability adult learners in the context of English as a foreign language. The teacher and the learners are Indonesians. The data were collected by observation and recording to record the class proceeding, and documentation to obtain teacher's lesson plan and post-teaching reflections.

The study is focused on three aspects of the language class, namely, the lesson, the classroom interaction, and the teacher-learner power relations.

Description of the Language Lesson

The lesson is basically intended to improve learners' knowledge of and ability to use multi-word or phrasal verbs (verbs which consist of more than one word, such as bring up, look after, put up with, etc.). This vocabulary focus is related to the context of life stages, so that the words taught are those which are related to that context. In addition to that main aim, the teacher also writes the subsidiary aims, and his personal aims. They are quoted from teacher's lesson plan as follows:

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The main aim is "to help the learners understand and use multi-word verbs to do with life stages. e.g. (1) *I want to settle down, get married and have children.* (2) *I am really looking forward to seeing her again.*

The subsidiary aims are: (1) to introduce and practise vocabulary related to life stages, (2) to give the learners opportunities to develop fluency using English in receptive and productive skills, and (3) to mediate with the topic of the second teaching session: using multi-word verbs to describe future events.

The personal aims are: (1) to do more communicative activities to reduce TTT [Teacher Talking Time], (2) to create a friendly and relaxed learning atmosphere, (3) to grade my language to suit the learners' level, and (4) to use slower pace to foster the learners' understanding. The expected learner outcome is that "By the end of the lesson, the learners will be better able to use multi-word verbs to describe life stages" (Masduqi, 2007a).

Presentation of Core Teaching Materials to Learners

The main aim dictates the core teaching materials to be presented to the learners, the subsidiary aims determine the skills to be practiced by the learners and manifested in the forms of learning activities, whereas the personal aims give rise to the teacher's strategies and ways of classroom management. In order to achieve those aims, the lesson is conducted with the following procedures.

After greeting the learners, the teacher starts the lesson by establishing rapport. That is done by telling the learners that he is wearing a new *batik* which is bought the day before. That is as a gesture of respect. Then, he announces the first stage of the lesson, i.e. a guessing game to warm up.

In the first stage, the teacher presents the rules of the game. When he is sure that the learners know how to do it, he nominates volunteers one by one. The game is called a guessing game. A learner is sitting on a hot seat in front of the class, and the teacher shows a picture to all other learners in order to describe it to the volunteer. The learner sitting in the front has to guess what the picture is. Since this is intended to lead them into the topic of the lesson, the pictures are about "life stages."

In the second stage, learners perform a classifying competition. The class is divided into two groups. The teacher gives instructions. Each group is given several cards of two types: some cards contain "life stages," e.g. babies, children, teenagers, married couple, retired; some others contain features related to them,

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e.g. wearing nappies, flirting with the opposite sex, grey-haired, etc. Learners are to classify those characteristics in relation to the life stages.

In the following stage, learners work in pairs to tell each other the most important event in their lives. After that, some of them are asked to tell the class what their partners have told them. It is then continued by learners' task of matching phrases with sentences. Before doing the task, however, learners are pre-taught some vocabulary. To check the answers, some learners are asked to read them aloud.

In the reading stage, the teacher first activates learners' knowledge by showing a picture of whom the text is about, i.e. Rowan Atkinson (Mr. Bean). Before reading, learners are asked to make a prediction of ten words that might appear in the text. They do it in pairs. Then, they read the text to see if their prediction is correct. The following activity is learners' filling the gaps with the underlined words in the text. To check the answers, learners read them aloud. The last activity is teacher's explaining the meanings of some words by putting them in sentences.

The summary of those stages and activities is in the following table.

Table 1 Lesson Stages and Activities

No.	Stages	Activities
1.	Warmer and lead-in: Guessing game (speaking activity)	1. T (teacher) establishing rapport 2. T announcing the lesson stage 3. T giving instructions 4. Ls (learners) performing the guessing game 5. T announcing the topic of the lesson
2.	Group-work: classifying competition (Focus on vocabulary)	1. T dividing the class into groups 2. T giving instructions 3. Ls performing the task 4. T checking Ss' answers
3.	Pair-work: Describing the most important event in life (Speaking activity)	1. T giving instructions 2. Ls performing the task in pairs 3. Ls reporting
4.	Pair-work: Matching words with gaps in sentences	1. T pre-teaching vocabulary 2. T drilling 3. T giving instructions 4. Ls performing the task in pairs

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			5. Ls reading answers aloud
5.	Pair-work: Reading activity	1.	T showing a picture
		2.	Ls guessing the picture
		3.	T announcing the topic of the text
		4.	Ls making prediction of the words in the text
		5.	Ls reading the text to check their prediction
		6.	T asking about the text content
6.	Pair-work: Gap filling	1.	T giving instructions
		2.	Ls doing the gap filling
		3.	Ls reading the answers
7.	Highlighting the form	1.	T explaining the meanings of words by giving examples
8.	Closing	1.	Closing
		2.	Greeting

The following part presents the pedagogical values that can be inferred from the lesson described above. The presentation starts with enumerating the notable, relevant points, then followed by discussions in the framework of pedagogical thinking.

Pedagogical Values of the Lesson (Pre-, Whilst-, and Post-Teaching)

As is mentioned in the lesson plan, the main aim is, "To help the learners understand and use multi-word verbs to do with life stages". To clarify this aim further, the teacher provides the examples of the teaching points, i.e. multi-word verbs related to life stages, such as, "*I want to settle down, **get married** and have children. I am really **looking forward to** seeing her again*" (Masduqi, 2007a).

Although the plan is to be used by the teacher himself, the inclusion of examples in the form of complete sentences is reasonable to give a clearer idea of the focus of the lesson not only to the teacher himself, who is supposed to teach it, but also to other teachers who possibly intend to use the plan in another occasion. Knowing exactly the core point of the lesson is compulsory for the teacher in order to preserve relevance, continuity, and achievement of the teaching aim within the lesson. Otherwise, the lesson might not be efficient and effective.

The Focus: Vocabulary

Considering the above mentioned aim, the lesson basically focuses on vocabulary. However, to make the learning process more meaningful, the

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vocabulary is put in a context, i.e. "to do with life stages," by which the meanings are made clearer. With that focus and context, the teacher develops the lesson in the forms of integrated activities and materials. It is integrated because it deals with more than one skill. The lesson stages contain warm-up and lead-in in term of speaking activity. Then, it is followed by the activity of group-work where learners are involved in classifying competition focusing on vocabulary. After that, learners performed another oral activity in a pair-work to describe the most important event in one's life, continued by matching words with gaps in sentences. Learners are then engaged in a reading activity and gap filling. Finally, the teacher ends the lesson by highlighting the form in which he explains the meanings of the phrases and gives examples.

Viewing those stages, it is obvious that the teacher attempts to conduct various integrated activities by which learners have sufficient opportunities to be actively involved in the lesson and to practice using the target language in order to establish maximum achievement of the teaching aim. That is supposed to be a typical style of a language lesson. Despite the fact the focus is on vocabulary, whereby learners are normally expected to process a cognitive improvement, the lesson is designed in such a way that learners would be maximally involved in all of the three cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor aspects.

Goals of Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

The main goals of teaching and learning vocabulary are learners' understanding of its meaning, its preservation in their memory system, and their ability to recall or use it when operating language (receiving or producing it). In order to serve those purposes, the teacher conducts activities in the classroom. The provision of context, e.g. "life stages" is intended to clarify the meanings. By putting the target language, i.e. multi-word verbs, in the context of talking about life stages, it is expected that learners would get clearer idea about their meanings. In addition, when highlighting the forms, the teacher explains the meanings exerting various ways, e.g. putting the words in context sentences, rephrasing the words, and giving examples and their definitions. All these are intended to make the meanings clear.

To facilitate retention in memory, furthermore, some other tasks are given, such as drilling, matching the words with the blanks, reading, and filling up the missing words. In the teaching and learning process, the teacher prefers eliciting and prompting the words from the learners to giving them. By asking questions, the teacher manages to activate learners' involvement in the thinking process. In

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that way, it is deemed that their memory would be scratched; thus strengthening retention.

Knowing the meanings and long retention in the mind are not enough. Vocabulary is said to have been mastered if it becomes active acquisition, meaning that it is ready at the tip of the tongue and the acquirer is capable of using it whenever needed, for productive uses, when s/he is speaking or writing, for example. In order to serve that purpose, the teacher conducts activities by which learners use the vocabulary productively, such as filling up the blanks. However, as is admitted by the teacher in his post-teaching reflections, such an active production activity could have been maximized. He says,

> Apart from those strong points, I feel that I still have some teaching aspects that I need to work on to improve my future teaching practice. Most teaching activities I performed in the taught lesson are focused heavily on form and vocabulary and lacked communicative activities. As a result, the class is not as lively as I expected (Masduqi, 2007b).

Techniques and Interactional Strategies

Viewing the lesson as a whole, there are two significant points worth noting: techniques and interactional strategies. In view of the teaching techniques, it is clear that the teacher implements various ways in order to achieve his teaching aim. This is reflected by the variety of activities conducted in the lesson, a guessing game as a warmer, classifying competition, describing, matching, reading, gap-filling, and highlighting forms. Those tasks are oriented to improving learners' mastery of vocabulary. Considering those facts: before, during, and after teaching, there are some pedagogical values that could be cited:

(1) In a language lesson, there should be a language focus. In this case, the focus is multi-word verbs. With this focus stated explicitly in the statement of the aim, the teacher knows exactly what linguistic point is to be presented to the learners. To make it more learner-centered, in other words, what target language is to be learned by them. Being familiar with the core content of the lesson, the teacher is capable of developing activities relevant with the focal content.

(2) In order to make the language point more meaningful and useful, furthermore, it is normally put in a certain context. In this case, the context is life stages. The statement of the context is important so that learners know the relevance of the learning points with their surrounding experiences. By knowing the

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context of the language teaching points it is easier for the learners to understand the meanings of the learned expressions.

(3) The lesson is oriented to improving learners' skill or use of the target language. In this line, the aim is learners' understanding and using the learned vocabulary. Those points (1), (2), and (3) are explicitly written in the statement of the teaching aims, which is further developed into stages and activities. In short, the statement of language teaching objectives should ideally include three points: the language item as the focus of teaching, which learners are expected to learn, the skill in which learners are required to be able to practice the target language, and the context by which the use of the target language becomes more meaningful.

(4) To serve that purpose, the lesson is designed to consist of various activities, for examples: guessing, classifying, describing, matching, reading, gap-filling, and highlighting forms. The variety of activities is intended not only to minimize boredom and increase the learners' motivation, but also to enhance the effectiveness of the learning process. By carrying out varied activities of using the language, learners get direct experiences in practice. Such experiences theoretically construct a body of knowledge and skills. This goes in line with the idea of constructivism in learning theory. Quoting Vygotsky's idea of constructivism, Kaufman (2004:305) cites, "Learners benefit from multiplicity of approaches and learning experiences as they extract salient information in acquiring new knowledge".

(5) The lesson involves integrated skills. In this lesson, they are speaking and reading. Integrated skills represent authenticity and communicativeness because in real communication, language is normally used integratively rather than discretely. By integrating some skills, language learning communication becomes more authentic and not only accommodating divergent learning styles of the learners, but also stimulating more senses. The more senses are involved, the more effective language learning will be.

(6) To conduct the activities, there is a variety of interaction patterns performed by learners. In this lesson, there are whole-class, group-work, pair-work, and individual work. As has been cited by Harmer (2001:114) and Spratt, Pulverness, and Williams (2005:148), the diversity of interaction patterns gives some benefits to learners. Those with social learning style prefer to work in groups or in pairs, whereas those having individual style like to work on their own. With such a multiplicity of strategies, both the dominant and the quiet get equal chance to be actively involved in classroom activities.

(7) To evaluate the achievement of the aim, it is possible to conduct a continuous assessment. In this lesson, the teacher monitors learners' doing the tasks. By observing and monitoring learners' activities, the teacher could evaluate if the

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learners make some improvement, whether any of them need help, or if they call for individual coaching.

(8) Monitoring has twofold functions. On the one hand, it is used for classroom management, i.e. to see if the learners are doing the tasks properly, hence the teacher could provide immediate helps when necessary. On the other hand, it could be used to evaluate learners' achievement of the aims. Informal assessment such as continuous observation and monitoring throughout the lesson could be useful to complement information about the competence, attitude, and behavior of the learners. So, the assessment is more holistic and comprehensive.

(9) By conducting a variety of activities, learners get a lot of chance to practice using the language; thus, promoting language acquisition. Dulay, Burt, Krashen (1980) claim that frequency of practice is one of the key factors in promoting language acquisition. The more frequently learners practice using the target language, the better their acquisition will be. In the context of the lesson where this study is carried out, in order to maximize the acquisition of multi-word verbs, the target vocabulary, the lesson contains an array of activities.

(10) With a range of tasks, a variety of learners' learning styles can be accommodated. For example, kinesthetic learners are benefited with the game, visual with reading and picture exposures, auditory with lecturing, social with group work, individual with personal tasks, impulsive with guessing game. That the lesson comprises diverse tasks implies that it complies with one of the principles of learner-centered approach, i.e. accommodating variety of learners' characteristics; thus, compliant with the principle of strategic investment (Brown, 2000).

(11) In that lesson, where an array of strategies is implemented, teacher and learner roles vary. The teacher is not only as an informer and the learners as recorders of information. The teacher plays several roles, as a manager of the game, an involver of the discussion, a monitor of the group and pair works, a facilitator of the form focus, an assessor of the aim achievement. The learners, on the other hand, also perform some roles, e.g. as participants of the game and other activities, such as matching, classifying, and discussions, and as recorders of information in the form focus stage. Playing variety of roles, the teacher manages to minimize students' boredom and increases their motivation. This conforms one of Brown's (2000) principle of motivation.

(12) One of the activities is that learners are required to talk to their partners about the most important event in their lives. This is a personalization stage in which the teacher tries to relate the topic with the learners' life experience. The value of this stage is that the lesson topic is made relevant with learners' lives; thus, internalized more easily as it becomes a part of their live

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experiences. This goes in line with Brown's (2000) principle of strategic investment in language learning.

(13) After carrying out the teaching tasks, the teacher writes reflections on his teaching in which he tries to identify the strong and weak points of his lesson. This requires the teacher to be always aware of what he is doing during the lesson. Knowing his strength and weakness, it is easier for the teacher to make self-improvement for future tasks. So, making reflections after teaching is one way of teacher's professional development.

Pedagogical Values of Classroom Interaction

In addition to the benefits gained from the pre-, whilst-, and post-lesson performance, there are some other educational contributions that might be learned from the interactional strategies manifested in terms of classroom discourse produced during the performance of the lesson activities. Those values can be enumerated as follows.

At the beginning of the lesson, after greeting and before going further into the lesson, the teacher tries to create good rapport or closer relationship with the learners by showing that he pays respect to them and that the event is so special that he bought and is wearing a batik dress special for them.

(1) The pedagogical value is that establishing rapport at the initial stage of the lesson is significant in the sense that by having good relationship, the learners feel secure and are not put at the defensive; thus, lowering their affective filter, the condition of which is conducive to facilitate acquisition of language input (Krashen, 1985).

(2) Another point is that the teacher has laid a foundation since early at the beginning to make learners have psychological preparedness so that learning is to happen more effectively. He has put a basis for effective classroom management by means of which classroom participants, teacher and learners, may be able to interact whole-heartedly; thus making the lesson enjoyable. When teacher and learners have closer psychological relationship, it is easier for the teacher not only to put effect on the learners but also to manage the activities and to be obeyed. In short, with good rapport, there is no psychological barrier between learners and teacher, hence increasing the effectiveness of the lesson.

In conducting activities, there is a typical structure of discourse produced along the instructional interaction. The structure is as follows: (a) announcing the task or the activity to do, (b) giving instructions consisting of the

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explanation of detailed procedures of how to do the task, (c) giving examples or modeling, (d) checking learners' comprehension, and (e) commanding to start the activity or nominating. Considering those discoursal phenomena, some values could be taken.

(3) A lesson consists of logically ordered stages of activities that should be understood clearly by learners. Logical order refers to the fact that the activities conducted in the lesson are related, sequential, and graded. Learners need to be made aware of these sequentially related activities. Otherwise, they would be confused and could not see the relevance of what they are doing; thus, learning would hardly happen. This is consistent with Ausuble's theory (Brown, 2000) which says learning will happen only when it is meaningful and it also goes in line with Vygotzky's idea of constructivism which states that learning is a matter of constructing social experiences (Brown, 2000). Therefore, learners should be informed what and how the activity is to be conducted before they really do it.

(4) A lesson consists of well-controlled activities, all of which are oriented towards the achievement of the teaching aims. The teacher creates the condition in such as a way that learners do not violate the process. To serve that purpose, it is important that the teacher explain the rules of the game or give instructions as clearly as possible so that learners are assured to be able to do the tasks as expected.

(5) A class comprises learners with variety of abilities, learning styles, and personality traits. Some learn best through listening, while others through seeing. In order to accommodate such divergences on the one hand and to increase the clarity of instructions on the other, the teacher needs to give not only verbal instructions but also examples or modeling, use pictures, realia, and objects.

(6) Giving instructions and modeling is good, but it may sometimes be not enough. The teacher should make sure that learners really understand, know, and are able to do the task. Therefore, it is sometimes important to check learners' comprehension of the instructions, as to whether they really know what to do. This is particularly necessary when learners have low level of language ability. In order to establish and maintain the flow of communication, comprehensibility should be pursued. To assure this requirement, teacher needs to check learners' comprehension.

(7) Being sure that learners understand and really know what to do, the teacher commands or nominates a name. That is to mark the time when learners start doing the task. Nominating is done only when there is no volunteer, to ensure the smooth flow of the lesson proceedings, and not to waste time.

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(8) Offering is usually given prior to nominating. That is to provide equal chance to everybody to take active participation in the classroom process, to promote learners' personal internal drive to be volunteers, to provide them with the feelings of freedom and responsibility, and to give learners courage to give response. This may satisfy learners' ego and increase their self-esteem (Brown, 2000).

When learners are able to do the task well, the teacher often gives positive feedback in the form of praise. When they hesitate or are unable to perform well, the teacher often encourages them to try harder and keep going, or may even give clues to help them until they are capable of discovering the answer by themselves.

Regarding this finding, the pedagogical values are as follows.

(9) Praise has some psychological effects. It is a manifestation of positive feedback which may be used to reinforce the acquisition of a positive habit. Praise may also promote self-confidence because it brings about the feeling of pride in the person being praised. In the context of teaching and learning, praise helps the learners to know that what s/he does is correct and being appreciated; hence, increasing her/his motivation. Martin (2009) asserts, "specific praise increases motivation and helps learners build a positive self-image." This endeavor fulfils learners' anticipation of reward, one of the language learning principles suggested by Brown (2000).

(10) When the learners seem to have difficulty in doing the task, the teacher patiently encourages them to try harder. Sometimes, he even gives some clues so that learners can find the right answer by themselves. The value is that when learners manage to get the right answer by themselves, they will feel that they are successful; thus, increasing their self-confidence and motivation. In addition, self-discovery prolongs retention and memory more than being given. Therefore, it is important that the teacher always encourage the learners to make self-discovery, rather than feed them.

The teacher does a lot of questioning and learners a lot of answering or responding. The teacher uses question forms to perform a range of acts, namely: to elicit words or phrases. to check comprehension, to offer a chance, to give an order, to control topic, to nominate, to give confirmation, to stimulate speech, to give prompt, to ask for repetition, to give guidance, to give feedback, to check knowledge, to ask for information, and to ask for confirmation. Most of the teacher's utterances are in the forms of questions. The value of teacher's use of questions is as follows.

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(11) Questions are stimulating, mentally as well as verbally. By asking questions the teacher wants to get the learners to be involved in the thinking process. When he says, "What's the answer to number one?" addressed to the whole class for example, what s/he wants actually is that everybody, all learners, or as many learners as possible in the class are thinking about the answer. Actually, the teacher has already known the answer, and s/he could tell it to the learners. But, why does s/he ask about it? When the learners are involved in thinking, learning is likely to take place. As Graesser and Person (2009) state, "learning process is contained in the process of participating in classroom discourse. As learners engage in the discourse they acquire ways of talking and thinking that characterize a particular curriculum area."

(12) Another mental stimulation is conveyed by reflective questions. This kind of question requires the hearer to make reflections on what s/he has just done or said. For example, after a student gives an answer, the teacher probes further by asking, "Why did you say that?" This requires the answerer to think deeper about what s/he has just said. That makes her/him more aware; hence, promoting the learning process. Teacher should be encouraged to use this type of reflective questions as frequently as possible so that learners are accustomed to always building self-awareness and responsibility.

(13) In addition to mental stimulation, questions also normally require verbal responses. This is relevant with the language teaching and learning purposes, in which learners are required to have maximum chance to practice using or producing the target language. Being asked questions, learners would feel demanded to give verbal responses. The more frequently the learners produce the target language, the more effective the language acquisition will be. This is in line with Variable Competence Model proposed by Ellis (1986) which states that language develops "as a result of acquisition of L2 rules through participation in various types of discourse … and activation of L2 rules." This implies that language competence improves through not only reception of input but also production of linguistic output.

In performing verbal communication, interlocutors also simultaneously use non-verbal behaviors as is found in data, such as smiling, pointing, writing on the board, approaching and facing, and other hand gestures. The use of those body language forms is important in the following ways.

(14) Lots of smiles make the classroom situation relaxed, not tensed, and not anxious. Interaction flows freely and smoothly without much inhibition. T appears unthreatening and Ls feel worriless. Such a situation is conducive for learning, especially for language skill practice, because in such a condition, Ls have low affective filter (Krashen, 1985), hence they are courageous to

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voluntarily practice using the target language and not afraid of making errors. Pease and Pease (2004:84) state that "smiles and laughter are a way of bonding" meaning that the more smiles and laughter people make during interaction, the more sociable the relationship is indicated.

(15) Pointing contributes to increasing the clarity of verbal utterances. Ls know exactly what T means when s/he points to something while using certain deictic pronouns. Saying "Look at this" while pointing to a picture, for instance, T helps Ls to know that what s/he means by "this" is the picture. Pease and Pease (2004: 127) assert "Using hand gestures grabs attention, increases the impact of communication and helps individuals retain more of the information they are hearing."

(16) T's writing on the board is also beneficial not only to support the effectiveness of getting the meaning across but also to increase the efficiency of lesson proceedings. Ls may be able to remember the target language better because they perceive it through not only audio but also visual senses. This means more learners, both auditory and visual styles, are satisfied.

(17) When T approaches and faces to Ls, they feel being talked to in a personalized way. Thus, interaction becomes more intensive and communication is effective. Pease and Pease (2004:175) claim "it is only when you see 'eye to eye' with another person that a real basis for communication can be established."

Pedagogical Values of Teacher-Learner Power Relations

As learners-teacher interactional relationships go, the findings clearly indicate that power relations are manifested in the forms of both the practice of power and that of solidarity. The wield of power is manifested in terms of the amount of speech, the frequency of directive acts, the initiative of interaction, the control of topic, the teacher being questioner, the use of closed questions, the teacher's use of modeled extraction, and teacher's answering own questions. Such a practice of power is beneficial in the following extents.

(1) The classroom process is under full control of the teacher; hence, enabling her/him to achieve the lesson aims as is planned. In so far as the teacher is the general of the proceedings, in whose hand lie the plan, implementation, and evaluation, it is likely that s/he is capable of carrying out her/his responsibility in line with the curriculum area s/he is working out. In sum, with the practice of power, the implementation of the plans is assured. Such implementation of the plans entails several points, such as: the achievement of the aims within the allocated time, the performance of the activities based on the ordered stages, and the relevance of the materials based on the

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predetermined syllabi. In short, the practice of power warrants teaching efficiency.

(2) The teacher's production of relatively large amount of speech is beneficial especially to comply with the requirement of effective linguistic input as suggested by Krashen (1985). He states that input will be effective to promote acquisition when it is comprehensible and produced in sufficient quantity. Teacher's language functions not only as input to perceive, a model to imitate, informative knowledge to transfer, and stimuli to activate verbal responses, but also a means to regulate or manage the classroom and to initiate active interaction.

(3) The teacher's control of the topic is particularly advantageous in leading the learners to attain systematic presentation of the issues. When the topics of classroom interaction are controlled well, participants will gain several benefits. In teacher's point of view, s/he can get the ideas across effectively and efficiently in the sense that s/he can control the issues so as not to stray from the course of the teaching contents. Hence, the interacted topics can be kept relevant and lead towards the achievement of the aims. In learners' point of view, moreover, they can benefit from the logic of the presentation. When the topics are controlled in a logical sequence, learners would understand the points more effectively because they are organized systematically.

(4) Teacher's wielding of power ensures trust from learners. When the teacher practices power, s/he builds self-confidence and reliance by which s/he is able to hold full control over the class and the lesson. That brings about some impact on the learners in the sense that they become dependent on the teacher and obedient to her/him. In that way, classroom formal interaction is under control; hence making the class maximally conducive for learning. Learning, in this sense, refers to the learning which is distinguished from acquisition by Krashen (1985). As learning is classroom-based and form-oriented, rigid control is the key word to its success. That is achievable through the practice of power.

The practice of solidarity, moreover, is realized in the forms of the following phenomena: showing respect, using inclusive pronouns, using "please", using affirmative for directives, giving praises, asking for opinions, using permission head acts, apologizing, accepting criticism, thanking, and offering free choice. The main purpose of exercising solidarity is that the teacher, inherently possessing greater power, tries to put him/herself in the shoes of the learners, to show empathy, to give learners impression that they are equal, that they have egalitarian relationship, and that the class is open and democratic and not authoritarian. That is to give them the feeling of being secure, not putting them in the defensive, to provide them with freedom, autonomy, and responsibility, and to

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lower their anxiety. The pedagogical insights that could be inferred from the practice of solidarity are as follows.

(5) When the teacher is empathetic, learners feel that they have close and good relationship with the teacher; thus, giving them the feeling of security and lessening that of anxiety. That creates a conducive learning condition. Learners would feel free to talk to, consult the teacher, and express themselves; therefore, it is easier for the teacher to be more familiar with them and to know their strength and weakness. In that way, s/he could give the best and most effective help.

(6) When learners feel secure, they would also feel free to be creative, experimenting things that have never been done before. Hence, they become creative and innovative, and not pressed by the feeling of threats. In the context of language teaching and learning, the benefit is more obvious. Learners would feel courageous to practice using the language and not worried of making mistakes. The consequence is that they would practice more and develop more quickly.

(7) The feelings of autonomy and responsibility would make learners more confident and have greater motivation. In his speech at the RELC Conference in Singapore in 2006, under the topic of "Motivating the Unmotivated," Harmer (2006) said that one way to make learners motivated is by giving them autonomy and responsibility (Harmer, 2006 in his audiovisual speech). That is because everyone has an ego and keenness on being acknowledged. When one is given autonomy and responsibility, one would try hard to do one's best in order for one's existence to be admitted and praised.

(8) When the teacher exercises solidarity and manages to establish good rapport with the learners, learners feel secure and have lower anxiety. This results in the promotion of language acquisition. As Krashen (1985) claims that one of the requirements of effective acquisition is learners' lower affective filter.

When there is a fair and balanced practice of power and solidarity in the classroom, learning and acquisition are maximized; hence increasing the effectiveness of language teaching and learning process.

Final Remark

Each of the three aspects of a language class, i.e. the lesson, the classroom interaction, and the power relations has implied some pedagogical values that can be taken into account by language teaching practitioners in order to be implemented in their classes as much as conditions permit. That is expected to contribute insights in the effort of increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of a

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language teaching and learning process in the context of English as a foreign language.

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A New Tone in ELT – Positive Uses of Translation in Remedial Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

This research paper tries to bring out the status of the higher secondary students' language ability and translation skill. It is an outcome of the result of an experiment work conducted with a view to developing the learner's translation skill.

Language is essentially a tool for communication. The prime need of the learner is to acquire an ability to understand and be understood in his mother tongue as well as in the second language.

1. Error Analysis

Error analysis is a tool teachers may use to facilitate remedial learning. Error analysis helps the teacher to enrich his or her method of teaching. The teacher can understand the problem faced by the students and he or she can go in for remedial measures so that the students do better in subsequent attempts. The behaviorists warn teachers against allowing the learners to practice their mistakes.

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Learners' mistakes should be corrected and the correction should not be delayed or postponed. Otherwise such errors will be fossilized. The errors committed by a group of students can be collected and they can be categorized. The reason for these errors can be thought over. Finally a solution for remedial work can be chalked out.

2. Remedial Teaching

Successful teachers correct the errors of the students when they occur. Learning strategies must arrange for appropriate teaching situations so as to prevent errors. The principle of early detection, prevention and remediation should be followed to accelerate the process of language development.

It is prudent on the part of the teacher who performs remedial teaching to boost the students' morale and help them gain and improve self-confidence. Their success should be emphasized and failure minimized and corrected with a positive attitude.

Translation exercises done by the students can be exploited by the second language teacher for error analysis and remedial teaching.

3. Translation

Transferring the ideas found in the first language into the second language is translation. This requires a sound knowledge of L1 and L2.

The minimal elementary requirement is the ability to read and comprehend a language called "Source Language" (SL) from which the translation is made into the "Target Language" (TL). One must have some mastery of the mother tongue, and a fairly adequate mastery of the second language. One must also have what is called a 'feel for the language, language sensitivity'. In other words, the translator must have flair and feel for both the languages.

The translator must know the different techniques involved in the art of translation. Translation has a crucial role to play in aiding an understanding of the world. The translator is a traveler engaged in a journey from one source to another.

4. Project

The students at the higher secondary level were given exercises in their translation classes. Their performance says something about their achievement in learning L1 and L2.
From the errors the teacher can come to a conclusion about the method of teaching he has to follow.

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Hence, a research was conducted in this connection with students drawn from different schools.

The research was conducted to assess to the ability of the students at the higher secondary level to translate from Tamil to English. This was done by administering questionnaires. The students were found to make many mistakes such as:

1. Phonological errors
2. Morphological errors
3. Syntactical errors and
4. Semantic errors

5. Inference

The students were found to commit errors at phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic level.

The mistakes are listed below:

1. Using a wrong word.
2. Using wrong/missing inflected ends.
3. Using wrong/missing preposition.
4. Possessive, apostrophe error.
5. Tense shift.
6. Unnecessary shift in person.
7. Using wrong tense or verb form
8. Mistakes in subject verb agreement
9. Pronoun agreement error
10. *Its* versus *It's* error.

The reasons for their mistakes were discussed and suggestions made to improve their achievement.

Examples of the mistakes committed by the students:

S.NO	SL	TL	Student's Translation	Remarks
1	ஐந்து பாடங்கள்	Five subjects	Five subject	Singular-plural concept confusion
2	ஒவ்வொரு பாடத்திலும்	In every subject	In every subjects	Singular –plural concept confusion
3	அதனுடைய சமுதாய பொருளாதார நிலை	Its social economic status	It's social economic status	Confusion in using apostrophe

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4	அங்கு அதிக வசதிகள் உள்ளன	There are more facilities	There more facilities	Omission of be form verbs
5	அவர்கள் தேர்ந்தெடுத்தனர்	They chose	They choosed	Adding ed to irregular verb
6	அவன் உடைத்தான்	He broke	He broken	using past participate instead of past form of verb
7	மனப்பாடம் செய்தான்	Memorized	memoried	Using a word wrongly
8	தீடீரென்று சில விக்கட்டுகள் விழுந்தன	Suddenly some wickets fell	Suddenly some wickets were fall down	Using the verb form wrongly
9	எயிட்ஸ் என்ற சொல் நான்கு ஆங்கில சொற்களின் முதலெழுத்துகளின் தொகுப்பாகும்	The word AIDS is formed by collecting the first letters of the four English words	AIDS are is a word four English words	Unnecessary use of be form verbs-preposition missing
10	மாணவர்களாகிய நீங்கள் ஆறாம் வகுப்பிலிருந்து பத்தாம் வகுப்பு வரை ஐந்து ஆண்டுகள் பள்ளியில் படித்துள்ளீர்கள்	Students you have studied in school for five years from sixth to tenth class	Student were read in sixth class to tenth class in five years of school	Wrong use of verb, preposition missing
11	இது அனைத்து மாணவர்களுக்கும் ஒரே அளவினதாக இருக்குமா?	Is it equal for all the students?	Is the hole class students why?	Inability to make interrogative sentences

6. Word Order

'Tamil is a verbal final language'. The normal word order of a sentence in Tamil is: SOV (subject+ object+ verb). The word order in English is SVO (subject+ verb+ object). In Tamil, the adjective precedes the noun and adverb precedes the verb. In English, verb precedes adverb. This point has to be taught to our students so that they can do translation without mistakes.

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Contrastive analysis deals with the act of bringing out the differences of two systems. A successful teacher employs contrastive analysis to explain the differences between the first language and the second language.

7. Recursiveness

Language development does not occur in isolated classrooms. All school activities should be properly mobilized to acquaint the child with acceptable patterns of speech and there should be insistence upon the child to produce utterances with acceptable patterns of speech and there should be insistence upon the child's using language as a means to self and social communication.

In every language we find the same pattern being repeated. Linguists call this "recursiveness". It is because of the recurrence of the basic elements we are able to produce an infinite set of sentences.

Hence, the language teacher must teach the learner the basic patterns which will facilitate the production of similar sentences.

This enables the students to understand and produce different sentences. Learners are able to acquire this creative aspect by acquiring the set rules.

8. Arousing Motivation

Like any other teaching strategy, arousing motivation and interest of learners is the first important step on the road to success which is the key work of any remedial programme. Most language disordered children suffer from lack of confidence and tend to do more errors than the normal children.

9. Exercise

The errors committed by the students are to be corrected immediately. The learners are to be given a lot of mechanical drills for the purpose. Since focus must be on linguistic communication, learners' errors are to be taken care of through various steps. The rules involved should be explained and exercises should be given to eradicate the errors. Attempt should be made to consolidate as well as reinforce the learner's learning. This does not mean that our effort to correct the errors should come in the way of fluency. We must certainly seek fluency first, and then slowly and steadily introduce steps to correct the errors. Without such correction, student writing may not easily communicate what the student really wanted to communicate.

10. Curriculum and Remedial Teaching

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Neglect of remedial teaching has disastrous results. If incorrect habits are allowed to persist, they become so firmly established as to cut off their victims from all chance of ever using the language acceptably. Very often remedial teaching is more urgently required at a period in the course where there seems to be the least time for it.

11. Suggestions

On the strength of the observation and analysis, the following suggestions are made.

The four skills of language and translating ability of the student could be improved by:

1. Improving their vocabulary
2. Improving the basic knowledge of English grammar.
3. Giving the students more translation exercises.

This could be done by

4. Teaching the students the use of a bilingual dictionary.
5. Giving a refresher course to the students in English grammar.
6. Giving training to teachers to train the students in translation.
7. The activities in the language class should involve as much of oral translation as possible.

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Training Dilemma: Analysis of Positive/Negative Feedback from the Workplace Setting in Pakistan

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Abstract

Training courses usually enhance the proficiency of the trainees, be they of any field or of any area. Teaching, especially English language teaching, requires sustained training programs keeping in view the significance of English in the world in general and in the developing countries, in particular.

In Pakistan, HEC has launched ELTR (English Language Teaching Reforms) Project in 2004 to upgrade and update the efficiency of the teachers to exploit the latest methods of teaching English. But the objective conditions in our educational institutions perhaps do not fully provide the trained people to apply what they have learnt. However, there is no denying the fact that training does improve the efficacy of teachers in their respective institutions despite their facing least conducive environment.

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The present paper seeks the views of the heads of the institutions as feedback regarding the performance of the trained teachers. The paper looks at the provided feedback and analyses the progress of the trained English language teachers, keeping in view the hurdles which they encounter while teaching in their respective colleges.

The analysis of the qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews reveals that the training courses had been found partly effective. Perhaps this has been due to the fact that there usually remains a huge gap in the training and workplace settings. The trained teachers mostly are deprived of the state-of-the-art facilities that may be considered pre-requisites for the utilization of the courses. The trained teachers are made aware of the theoretical importance of the content, but they do not usually practice the methods and techniques they do learn.

Introduction

It is a generally acknowledged fact that, in order to make an educational process more viable or to improve its quality, the role of teachers, the quality of their preparation and professional excellence are very vital. Quality improvement in the educational process depends upon the process of professional development of teachers (Edge 2005; Sharma 1993; Avalos 1991). Similarly, it is also generally observed that teachers cannot play any of the assigned roles effectively unless they are provided with the opportunities to undergo quality professional development program(s).

Since teaching is a lifetime profession and there is a rapid explosion of knowledge, it is not sufficient to provide professional development to teachers once in their life span. Therefore, continuous education of teachers has become necessary (Richards and Farrell 2005; Thomas 1993).

The existing need for such an on-going professional development of English language teachers in Pakistan, at almost all levels, is no exception to the whole scenario of teacher education. Unfortunately, in Pakistan's educational context, it has generally been observed over the years that a significant proportion of the university/college ELT faculty has usually been kept deprived of professional development opportunities and networks that are crucial for the successful teaching outcomes at higher level.

Since its inception, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan has provided professional improvement facilities to college/university level teachers in different disciplines. For example, it has started English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR) Project to bring qualitative improvement in English Language Teaching, and to build opportunities for sustainable progress of English Language teachers.

Role of Monitoring and Subsequent Assessment of the Program

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Monitoring and subsequent assessment of the progress provided by the teachers is important in maintaining the efficiency of the trained teachers in their respective institutions. To improve the efficiency, the system of accountability is deemed as a key factor in upgrading quality of teaching (Brown 2004).

Abbas (2003) observes that follow-up, monitoring and assessment apparatus play a significant part in the execution of any program or project. These measures help in course improvement and sorting out plans and actions that could result in the achievement of the desired objectives. He further maintains that, unfortunately, in the education sector such mechanisms have not been developed and, hence, there are a very limited means of assessment to gauge the teachers' performance and the teaching approaches they apply.

Although, the annual results are considered performance markers, yet, due to many flaws in the examination system, these markers are valued comparatively less dependable. As a result, less attention is paid by the educators and teachers towards learning and enhancing their teaching expertise. This gives rise to inefficient teaching and slow downfall in the education standards (ibid).

Higher Education Commission's ELTR Project

HEC's ELTR Project has conducted the First Party (Self -Evaluation) and the Second Party (Peer-Evaluation) evaluations to gauge the efficacy of the teachers' professional development programs. The internal evaluations of such nature have provided recommendations to the HEC for strengthening the teachers' professional development courses and other academic activities on an on-going basis. Yet such internal evaluations may very easily be termed as the ones based on subjectivity and partiality, for the HEC, being the sole financier of these programs, is one of the supreme stakeholders in this regard.

We researchers, therefore, felt the need for undertaking the evaluation of the effectiveness of the teachers' professional development courses conducted under ELTR Project. Secondly and most importantly, since the HEC had invested Rs.35.390 million on the ELTR Project Phase -1, the theory of Value for Money (VFM) became one of the reasons of the evaluation of the effectiveness of the teachers' professional development courses of the ELTR Project.

Research Methodology

The present study has been conducted to measure the impact of the teachers' professional development courses. Semi-structured interviews were recorded from 05 heads of the English departments of colleges in Rawalpindi and Islamabad whose teachers have received ELT training.

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The present paper seeks the views of the heads of the English departments as feedback regarding the performance of the trained teachers. The paper looks at the feedback received and analyses the progress of the trained English language teachers keeping in view the hurdles which they encounter while teaching in their respective colleges.

Analysis of the Interviews

Following is the detailed interpretation and discussion of the descriptive analysis of the data collected through recording and transcribing the interviews of the heads of the departments whose teachers had been to professional development courses. The following questions in bold italics were asked in the order presented below:

Q. How far do you think the trained teachers of your department have been successful in benefitting from HEC's teachers' professional development courses that they had attended?

Answering to the question how far the teachers benefitted from the courses, the heads of the departments were divided in their perception regarding the effectiveness of the courses. Two out of the five heads of the departments interviewed gave positive feedback about the impact of the courses on the teachers. On the other hand, the rest of the three were not cherishing the same view about the teachers benefitting from the courses. Their respective responses are given as below:

A. *"They extremely benefitted from it in terms of discovering the theoretical and methodological approaches to teaching of English…"*
B. *"I can see a great difference in the teachers of my department who had been to a CALL course. They seem far better equipped than the others…they are using technology."*

C. *"Two of my junior colleagues had been to one of the CALL courses…Unfortunately I didn't find any change in their teaching methods though they know now more about the theoretical importance of computers in ELT…".*

D. *"Since my teachers mostly teach literature here in the college, I think, the trained teachers cannot practically benefit from the courses they attend..,"*

E. *"They have not benefitted from the training courses to a…a great extent…."*

From the above responses made by the heads of the departments, it can be inferred that the courses had been partly effective. This has been due to the fact that perhaps there is a huge gap in the training and workplace setting. The trained teachers are made aware of the theoretical importance of the content, but they do not usually practice the methods

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and techniques they learned. It also shows that there generally remains some sort of communication gap between the heads of the departments and their colleagues (trained teachers).

Q. *What institutional/departmental facilities could you provide them to utilize the training in their professional life?*

Answering to the question what departmental facilities they could provide to help the trained teachers in utilizing the training, the interviewee heads of the departments gave the following set of responses:

A. *"The one way in which the department could facilitate teachers was by arranging frequent sessions for them to share and improve...otherwise, the college does not possess photocopying/multimedia facilities…"*

B. *"We have got a CALL lab, multimedia and library available in our department."*

C. *"Our department could give the teachers computers, internet and books…"*

D. *"There are white boards, markers and newspapers that our department could facilitate them with…"*

E. *The available institutional facilities for trained teachers are reference books, board with markers…"*

From the above analysis, it is evident that the trained teachers mostly are deprived of the state of the art facilities that may be considered pre-requisites for the utilization of the courses. In most of the cases, our teachers do not make the use of training, for they do not have the needful paraphernalia. In our colleges, teachers are not provided with the milieu in which they may be encouraged to share the training with those teachers who do not attend it. Seminars and special sessions are not arranged for them where they can replicate the training.

Q. *Do you think that they would ever have shared the training with their fellow teachers?*

When they were asked whether according to them they would have shared the training with their fellow teachers, they responded as per the following set of responses:

A. *"Yes, I think, they do share and pass on what they have learnt..."*

B. *"I don't know about their ever sharing it with their colleagues…"*

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C. *"I don't remember their doing so in my presence…"*

D. *"I think, they would share it with them informally…"*

E. *"I don't know… therefore, I won't say anything on it…"*

The above brief and negative responses show that our trained teachers do not feel themselves responsible for imparting the training to others. It is evident from the above that trained teachers may feel themselves apart from those who do not go on training. They perhaps forget that they ought to learn from one another to teach. It also reveals the bitter situation that some heads of the departments may not be running the academic affairs properly. They ought to arrange seminars in their departments where in the teachers may exchange new things with one another.

Q. In what respect of their professional life do you think the training might have helped them the most….I mean, in their teaching method, knowledge, confidence etc.?

Answering to the question in what respect of their professional life the trained teachers would have improved, the interviewee heads of the departments gave the following set of responses:

A. *"I think that the course helped them in terms of knowledge about English language teaching. They openly declared that they had never thought of their profession in terms of objectives, learning outcomes, lesson planning etc.*

B. *"Yes, it has given them orientation about the art of teaching English language…It made them discover a brave new world….*

C. *"The course might have helped them in improving their personal and interpersonal skills but I don't know whether or not they are using these skills in their professional life…"*

D. *"Of course, the training might have helped them in their teaching methods and theoretical knowledge…"*

E. *"I don't see any marked difference in their teaching before and after the teaching methods though they have come know of the importance of technology in teaching English…"*

From the above set of responses, it is clear that most of the trained teachers have turned better teachers in terms of teaching methods. They had acquired new knowledge about the importance of teaching English language. They might have realized the importance of teaching with students-centered approach. It also shows that a majority of teachers in our

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country are recruited without having proper training in the teaching field. So they must be introduced to new ways and methods of teaching.

According to some heads of the departments, there was hardly any change that they could see in the teaching of the trained teachers.

On the whole, it can be inferred from the discussion that by attending the courses, the trained teachers came to know about new ways of teaching; the courses improved their self confidence; and finally they became more student-focused, having better interpersonal skills.

Q. What about their teaching load…? Do you think it would be a spur or check to them in utilization of the training?

When they were asked whether the teaching load of the teachers spur or check them in utilizing the training, the interviewee heads of the departments responded as per the following set of responses:

A. *"Teachers have to cope with large classes and probably they feel comfortable with the traditional methods because it is familiar…"*

B. *"I think due to heavy work load… most of the teachers find intimidating to implement a new method…"*

C. *"To me, workload itself is not a barrier…it is the desire to experiment that matters…"*

D. : *"Yes, their work load, large classes and lack of resources….all these act as a check for their utilization of the courses…"*

E. *"I think, the trained teachers are not made accountable by the training or funding agency…that's why they remain carefree…I believe that definitely the trained teachers learn from the courses…"*

From the above responses, it seems to appear that teachers have heavy work load and they usually face large classes due to which they are not able to make the use of training. Besides, they usually do not utilize the training, for the examination system makes them bound not to experiment in the classes.

However, apart from these external forces, there are definitely some internal factors too which stop them from doing so. These are affective filters working in them. They themselves do not take initiative to experiment. They do not show interest and

enthusiasm. They do not feel any sort of pressure from either the HEC or then from their seniors to work differently. They keep on teaching with traditional methods.

Q. What about your role in spurring or checking them to utilize the training?

Answering to the question what their role was in spurring or checking them to utilize the training, the interviewee heads of the departments gave the following set of responses:

A. *"Personally, I am very ambitious about improving the quality of teaching in my department.*

B. *"So members of the department frequently meet formally and informally and share ideas…"*

C. *"We sit together and assign tasks…In a recent meeting I assigned the task of preparing activities on the textbook of 1st and 2nd year…These assignments will be shared… and it would ensure that they bring their training into practice…"*

D. *"I run my department democratically…I have never stopped them from experimenting with the students…"*

E. *"It is not up to the chairman of the department to let or stop a teacher from teaching the way he or she does... I think, it is the examination system that dictates them…"*

F. *"I always facilitate my teachers to teach the way they like…"*

Again from the above responses, it is clear that the heads of the departments do not properly supervise their junior colleagues. The teachers have to cope up with the problem of heavy work load and large classes. They usually do not feel free to incorporate training, for the examination system makes them not to experiment in the classes.

As discussed above, besides these external forces, there are definitely some internal factors too which stop them from doing so. These are affective filters working in them. They neither intend to take initiative to experiment nor do they show any interest and enthusiasm. They do not feel any sort of pressure from either the HEC or then from their seniors to work differently. They keep on teaching with traditional methods.

However, there are a very few heads of the departments, who in order to keep the traditions of their institutions, do ask their subordinates to undertake novel approaches in their teaching methodologies. They convene meetings wherein they share and exchange

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newly acquired knowledge. But alas! Such a healthy practice of arranging meetings and seminars are very rare in Pakistan.

Q. Any suggestion to the HEC or Future Training Sponsors in Pakistan for better or more successful conduct of the teachers' professional courses/workshops?

Answering to the question what they would like to suggest to the HEC for better conduct of the teachers' professional courses/workshops, the interviewee heads of the departments gave the following set of responses:

A. *"I think it will be better if they train freshly appointed teachers at the outset…This would require good quality training institutions to be set up and most importantly to produce a batch of highly competent teacher trainers who can also carry on the task of in-service training…"*

B. *"Training courses should carry more practical work. I believe, no educational policy or curriculum design can be implemented effectively without trained teachers..."*

C. *"Whatever chances of improving as teachers are available; these must be communicated to the colleges well in time and the resource persons must be well selected…"*

D. *"The trainings should be curriculum based to make more easily and quickly applicable in classrooms…"*

E. *"The HEC should make available requisite technology and other resources for teachers to utilize the training at the workplaces…"*

It is clear from the above suggestions made by the heads of the departments that they asked for conducting more and more professional development courses. They were of the view that such refresher courses ought to be made a regular feature of the academic calendar. Mostly new teachers should be trained as they usually are novice. The trained teachers may be made accountable for attending the courses as one of the heads of the departments suggested to the sponsoring agency HEC to tighten the throttlehold on them in future as they never bother of implementing the training at workplaces. The courses should be set according to the academic needs of the prospective trainees. The trained teachers ought to be provided the necessary resources at workplaces so that they can try implementing the training at their workplaces.

Moreover, it is also felt that the courses would be more effective if content of the courses be set according to the proximate needs of the trainees. The heads of the departments may

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also sense their duty to make the trained teachers realize that they seriously work on maximum utilization of the training at their workplaces.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It can be inferred from the above analysis that the training courses had been found partly effective. This has been due to the fact that perhaps there is a huge gap in the training and workplace setting. The trained teachers mostly are deprived of the state of- the-art facilities that may be considered pre-requisites for the utilization of the courses. The trained teachers are made aware of the theoretical importance of the content, but they do not usually practice the methods and techniques they do learn. In most of our colleges and even universities, teachers are not provided with the milieu in which they may be encouraged to share the training with those teachers who do not attend it. Seminars and special sessions are not arranged for them where they can replicate the training. The trained teachers have heavy work load and they usually face large classes due to which they are not able to make use of the training. Besides, they usually do not utilize the training, for the examination system makes them bound not to experiment with their teaching methods, testing procedures, etc. in the classes.

In light of the above conclusions, it is recommended that the trained teachers may be made accountable for attending the courses. One of the heads of the departments also suggested to the sponsoring agency, i.e., HEC, to tighten their hold on the trainee teachers in future as they usually do not bother to implement the training they received at their workplaces. It is also recommended that the courses should be set according to the academic needs of the prospective trainees. The trained teachers should be provided with the necessary resources at workplaces so that they can at least try implementing the training at their workplaces. Moreover, it is also felt that the courses would be more effective if the contents of the courses were set according to the proximate needs of the trainees. On the other hand, the heads of the departments should also take responsibility to keep making the trained teachers realize that they have to seriously work for optimum utilization of the training they have received in their workplaces.

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Learning Styles and Teaching Strategies: Creating a Balance

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Abstract

Students learn in various ways, and one approach to teaching might not work for every student or even for most students (Hawk, Thomas, Shah, Amit, 2007). This paper investigates the learning styles of a small number of learners in a limited setting at the higher education level. The VARK inventory was administered to 18 M.S. students of the Department of English at the International Islamic University, Islamabad, Pakistan to determine their learning styles. Fellow teachers were then made aware of the results of the inventory.

Students were also trained through a workshop for the development of a holistic learning approach which integrates the four major learning styles to make them more reflective, absorptive and self aware. A teacher training session was organized for the development of innovative approaches to teaching by integrating different teaching styles into classroom instruction, curriculum development and procedures for evaluation, while taking cognizance of the preferred thinking patterns of the students.

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The study led to the findings that at the postgraduate level, (a) exposure to the possibilities of a holistic learning style helps students in their academic intake, and (b) development of a parallel holistic teaching approach helps in the creation of an effective academic environment.

Keywords: Learning styles, Higher Education students, Teaching strategies, VARK inventory.

Introduction

How can a student learn best? What is the role of learning styles in a teaching-learning situation? These are questions that teachers should take into account to address classroom issues related to a given academic programme. Learning is a dynamic, lifelong process. Individuals involved in the process of learning often develop attitudes and behaviors which determine preferences and expectations in the way they learn. These preferred ways are called learning styles.

Individuals acquire and pass knowledge in their own particular way (Fleming 2001, Fuller, Norby, Pearce, & Strand, 2000). They have their preferences which have been the basis of much research. According to Budny, a learning style is a set of personal characteristics that differentiate it from other learning styles (2000). Research demonstrates that students have learning preferences that have strong impact on their knowledge retention (Borchert, Jensen, Yates 1999). If the method of information delivery is in accordance to their particular learning style they learn better (Danish, Awan, 2008, Suskie, Robotham, 2009).

Taylor (2004) argues that traditional approaches to learning and teaching will not have the capacity to meet the increasing demands of higher education in future. This is mainly because of significant and ongoing societal and technological developments that have resulted in major changes in the field of higher education (Jochems, Merrienboer & Koper, 2004). These changes require instructions that meet the demand of international standards and fulfill the needs of global students. Such transformation is vital in the delivery of course materials worldwide (Kellner, 2004).

Schmeck 1988 defines learning style as follows:

> Learning style can be distinguished from learning strategy. Learning style relates more to the way the learner has, over time and because of experience, adapted to a particular learning context…Style resides within the person and relates to genetics and prior experience.

This definition reveals that learning styles are a result of complex interactions through a number of experiences. People bear different styles of receiving information, depending on their surroundings, as well as on the methods of instruction. Students' learning styles should be taken into consideration while teaching.

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According to Dunn and Dunn (1992; 1993; 1999), learning style is the style through which each learner starts concentrating on, processing, absorbing, and retaining new and difficult information. The interaction of these elements appears differently in every individual. Therefore, it is necessary to determine what is most likely to trigger each student's concentration, how to sustain it, and how to address his or her natural processing style while teaching to produce retention of the taught contents.

According to Miller (2001) and Wolfe (1985), we can improve student's performance by adapting teaching approaches according to the different learning style preferences of our students. Tanner and Allan (2004) say that an understanding of learning style preferences can aid teaching approaches. A number of quality improvement methodologies have been developed and practiced by educators. This article provides a brief review of the relationship between the modified forms of learning and teaching styles in order to improve the academic achievement of the students.

Fleming's VARK Model

Fleming's VARK model has been adapted for this study to identify students' preferred learning styles.

VARK is an acronym for Visual, Aural, Read/Write, and Kinesthetic sensory modalities that are utilized for learning information. This model is based on a simple 13-question test inquiring how the student prefers to receive and process information.

The model proposed by Fleming describes learning styles into four categories; it is the most widely used learning model. Test VARK is based upon 4 different modes of getting information from the environment: Visual (Iconic), Auditory (Echoic), Read/write and Kinesthetic. The latest VARK descriptors now test for a fifth mode, Multi-modality, but the previous one has been used for the present study. Visually orientated students prefer to receive information via optics in charts, graphs, flow charts, and symbols. Aurally orientated students prefer to receive information through the auditory organs. Read/write orientated students prefer getting information displayed as words, and Kinesthetic orientated students depend upon "learning by doing", learning by simulated real-world experience and practice (Borchert, Jensen, Yates 1999).

Method

To investigate the learning style preferences, the VARK learning style model developed by Fleming (version 7), a survey instrument comprised of thirteen multiple-choice questions with three to four answer selections corresponding to the four sensory modalities, was administered to MS (English) second semester students of International Islamic University, Islamabad, for the

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subject of Linguistics, to investigate their preferred learning styles. All eighteen of them formed the sample of the study.

The instrument was administered to them during their midterm examination in order to experiment with modified learning and teaching styles based on a holistic approach soon after their mid term examination so that the difference of the learning experiences of the learners can support the findings of the research.

The purpose of the survey was explained before the distribution of the VARK questionnaire. Filled questionnaires were collected, evaluated and the students were provided feedback about their preferred learning styles. The teacher concerned was also informed about the findings. Students were trained through a 3-day workshop for the development of a holistic learning style to make them more receptive to different kinds of teaching styles. A 3-day teacher training session was organized for the development of an innovative approach to teaching by integrating different teaching styles and multiple learning styles into classroom instruction.

The details of the workshops and their execution are as follows:

1. Workshop for the development of a Holistic Learning Style

Titles of Presentations:

·Learning style preferences as the basis for academic development
·Learning style as a guide to the development of effective learning strategies
· Strong and weak learning styles
· Personal development plans for effective learning
·Activity and presentation session

2. Workshop for the development of a Holistic Teaching Style

Titles of Presentations:

·Introduction to learning styles
·Introduction to Instructional designs
· Presentation of Instructional materials
· Connecting Instructional design and learning styles
·Designing a Holistic Teaching Style

After these workshops of one day each, a teaching of 24 hours divided in 8 sessions of 3 hours each served the purpose of treatment for the group. The model developed for holistic teaching was based upon a taxonomy that consisted on the matching of the learning styles with the

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component and teaching strategies. Bloom's taxonomy was selected as the base of organization and sequencing of the contents and activities.

The emphasis of the present model relies on the designing, programming and presentation of the teaching content. Teaching strategies for this study were based on the results of the learning style inventory.

The present study revealed a student range of 7 auditory, 4 visual, 4 reading/writing and 3 kinaesthetic preferred learning styles, so the presentation schemes for the contents of teaching were designed by the integration of the four modes of presentation by setting a ratio of 2:1:1:1 approximately, so that all types of cognitive behaviours of the learners could be accommodated and the objectives of the teaching accomplished. Multimedia, whiteboard and handouts were used as teaching aids.

Why and How to Connect Learning Styles with Classroom Instructions

The question is: whether the knowledge of learning style helps determining a practical teaching approach? Yes, there exists a strong relationship between the learning style and the method employed for teaching.

The notion of acceptance of new knowledge is always presentation dependent. If it matches the preferred style of learning then the reception of knowledge becomes faster. It is quite possible to match teaching strategies with the learning styles and this, too, is desirable. Sometimes it becomes necessary to present new knowledge according to the preferred learning styles of the learners but at other times it certainly becomes challenging for the teacher to follow the design: for example conceptual knowledge is better presented through explanation than through other modes of presentation.

Knowing learning styles does not mean that a teacher should always follow related teaching strategies. The knowledge of learning styles should be used as a guide rather than a fixed prescription for teaching strategies.

Learners should also be encouraged to develop flexibility in their learning styles. Acceptability to a degree that makes one comfortable to the reception of knowledge from any mode of presentation is recommended. This would enable learners to deal with a wider range of teaching-learning situations effectively and at ease and will enable the leaner to absorb a larger quantum of knowledge. Becoming flexible can only be facilitated by the teachers, so it is more useful to provide the learners with the opportunities that can make them effective learners with diverse teaching styles rather than pampering them according to their preferred learning styles and narrowing down their scope of absorption.

Learning Style Instruments

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Learning style instruments may be used as a diagnostic aid to investigate the strengths and weaknesses of the learners and as a guide for planning appropriate teaching strategies. Essentially the information drawn from the identification of the preferred learning styles of the learners provides teachers with the knowledge which will be useful for planning and teaching, keeping in view the available resources.

The concept is not to teach each student separately, but to strive for a balanced approach towards teaching. For example, at the higher education level, some teachers rely on lecture method, some make use of group and pair work, some focus on applications of the theories and others suggest comprehension through memory.

Situation in Developing World

It would be impractical to take care of individual learning styles especially in the developing world situation, where there is a paucity of space, scarcity of teaching aids and above all, inaccessibility to modern techniques of teaching and learning.

A very good idea is to prepare a lesson plan, keeping in view the learning styles of the learners with their existing ratio in the class and then integrate the strategies using a balanced form of representation of the required modes of presentation. Along with this, the second thing needed is to identify the preferred learning styles of the learners and let the information pass to the learners and try to enhance their cognitive and self-awareness moving on to the development of autonomous learning.

Knowledge of the learning style will help the student become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses which will further take them to a higher mode of taking input and processing information devoid of dependence upon a specific learning style and restricting human ability to receive knowledge through one sensory organ rather than bringing into practice all five and proving to be the superior creature on earth.

An Outline of Instructional Plan

The Madeline Hunter's (1989) lesson plan model was adapted with minor changes to plan lessons for the present study**.** After declaring the teaching objectives in the classroom the teacher puts the students into a receptive frame of mind to create an atmosphere where the students' advance organizers can come into practice by the use of examples, analogies and activities via audio, video and integrated forms of teaching aids.

Presentation of the contents included Input, Modeling, and Checking for Understanding. Input was used to provide the information for the students to transfer the knowledge or skill through lecture, film, tape, video, pictures or realia.

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The lesson was modeled through examples. The critical aspects were explained through classification, comparison, contrast and explanation. The learners were then taken to the application level through problem-solving activities based on constructivist educational view.

For the determination of students' understanding and comprehension, question answer session was conducted and the doubted parts of the presented knowledge were re-taught. Then the teacher entered the practice stage by working through an activity under direct supervision. The teacher moved around the classroom to determine the level of reception and to provide individual remediation as per need to eliminate ambiguities, confusions and frustrations. Once pupils had mastered the content or skill, reinforcement was made possible through practice which again was done through repetition of activities based on different forms of presentation in order to create a comfort zone for the recipients of different learning styles.

Example of Method Application

Introduction to Linguistics course for the Masters programme was used to test the utility of the method. Only one segment of the course is selected here as an example.

In the first phase of the method, VARK's inventory questionnaire was given to 18 students. 7 students came out to be auditory, 4 visual, 4 reading/writing and 3 kinaesthetic as to have their preferred learning styles. In the second phase of the model, workshops for students and teacher were arranged separately in order to expose them to the desired strategies which were supposed to enhance the compatibility component of the teaching-learning styles with a better outcome of objectives of learning. In the third phase the skills learnt at workshops were brought into play.

Students after having acquired holistic learning style were exposed to a holistic teaching style with an integrated approach for the presentation of teaching contents. The content in itself was practical; the material was linked to the real world through examples from realia and activities based on the application of the learnt knowledge. The following table describes the methodised strategy:

Table 1

Topic: An Introduction to IPA Phonetic System

Stages of the Lesson Plan	Teaching Strategies and Teaching Aids
Objective: To introduce IPA phonetic symbols to work with languages to make	White board writing, Verbal statement of the objective in order to make the learners

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generalizations and analyze the provided linguistic content.	aware of the expectations out of the whole teaching exercise.
Input: Your information today will be derived from your own observations while you experiment with your native languages, National land International ones.	Brainstorming activity, Observations regarding the native languages, the experiences of the teacher herself.
Modeling: listen carefully what is said in the recorded text and try to relate it with the sounds of your native languages.	Chart of Phonetic symbols, Recorded sounds, handouts
Checking for understanding: Look at your handouts and determine which sounds are there in the given lexical items.	Questioning and quizzes
Guided or monitored practice: I'll be moving among your lab groups. Signal me if you have questions or need assistance...	Speech recordings and activities based upon solved examples for the sake of drill and practice.
Independent practice: Identify a question that you have about your native language. Then conduct an experiment that would answer the question".	Assignment based on the class discussion and practical learning based on data collection, organization and presentation.

This example deals with a specific subject; it can be replicated for other subjects provided the procedure is applied. This way, if implemented, personalization of the learning process may be achieved.

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Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to identify students' learning styles and suggest teachers to take into account those preferred learning styles while developing instructional methodology in teaching language programmes.

It is concluded from the study that to help students to do well in language programmes, teacher must understand their learning styles, so that the teacher can plan appropriate teaching strategies to accommodate individual strengths and needs. It is very important for teacher to share information with students about their learning styles and the preferred teaching strategies to accommodate those styles.

The researchers are sharply aware that inferences derived from a sample of 18 subjects may be questioned. However, they feel that the sampling is fairly representative of the average intake of students in universities at this level in Pakistan, and that the ratios indicated in it would be confirmed within reasonable limits in similar experiments done with other batches of students. Some kind of guarded generalization should be possible. Even if differences emerged from other experiments, the basic assumption, that students have different learning preferences, would remain valid. Also, factors such as age, gender numbers and educational background would probably affect findings in other experiments, but these factors have not been considered here. Ratios may be used as guidelines, so that the teacher can weight her teaching style to accommodate the varied learning expectations of a given group of students.

From the researcher's point of view, the ratios derived from this limited experiment are less important than the confirmation of the primary premise *that different learning preferences exist within groups of students, small or large*. The teacher's approach should be characterized by the expectation of heterogeneity, not of homogeneity.

In conclusion, language courses would do well to suggest models that accommodate different types of learners. It is desirable to provide a number of learning options that take into account diverse learning styles. Combining a mixture of approaches and methods allows students to react to instructional styles that best fit their individual learning styles. Effective teaching arises when she successfully reaches out to students whose preferred ways of learning are otherwise mismatched with the general style of teaching.

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A Study on Evaluating the Discourse Skills of Engineering Students in Coimbatore, Tamilnadu, India

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Abstract

The focus of this paper is the application of written discourse with special reference to technical English writing skill of the engineering students in Coimbatore. The discourse theories of writing are focused upon in this research. Writing is an important part of the engineering course and is an area where students often need plenty of training. The analysis of written discourse is based on Unity, Coherence and Paragraph development. A test was conducted to see how far the students were able to write paragraphs coherently by using discourse markers.

Key words: Discourse markers, Unity, Coherence, Transitional devices, contrastive markers, Inferential markers.

Introduction

Engineering students learn the use of technical English through using their engineering and technical texts. They are exposed to a variety of formats in technical English in their

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textbooks. The study and analysis of technical discourse is part of both linguistics and applied linguistics. Linguistic scholars concentrate on the description of the discourse and the teachers on learning and teaching the discourse. The teaching of technical English in the engineering colleges is utility-based as the technical discourse by nature is application-oriented. The 'how' and 'why' of the comprehension and application of technical discourse is not unconsciously learnt unlike the way in which the mother tongue is mastered. Even the students with adequate proficiency in English language fail to fare well in technical English writing skill as it involves several models, concepts and technical themes. All these have a systematic structure and pattern and students and teachers need to master these.

Generally, the technical discourse is more formal and demands precise contextual reference. The experimental technical facts are normally written in analytical tone which is actually revealed by the occurrence of discourse markers. The wide and extensive usage of cause and effect, purpose and function besides compare and contrast, process description and sequencing markers make the standard of technical English more complex. Perhaps, the descriptive, narrative and introspective and argumentative styles of the technical writing are induced by the usage of discourse markers. Briefly speaking, the occurrence of specific jargon, discourse markers, impersonal tone and objective styles are considered to be the indispensable trademarks of technical discourse.

Discourse Markers

Writing is an art and has to be acquired by constant practice. In formal contexts, we are required to express our thoughts and ideas both in spoken and written forms in a logical sequence, avoiding ambiguity. For that purpose, we make use of certain linguistic devices called discourse markers or transitional devices.

The main function of discourse markers is to bring out the logical connection between ideas, between sentences and between paragraphs. These discourse markers indicate specific relationships such as compare, contrast, cause, effect, etc.

Paragraph

A paragraph does not mean merely putting a few sentences together. There is an order in the construction of a sentence. There is also a proper sequence in the designing of a paragraph. A paragraph has to revolve around a central idea in such a way that the sentences within the paragraph strengthen it.

In an ideal paragraph, the central idea should be so explicit that it can be expressed in a single sentence which is called the topic sentence. The sentences in the paragraph function as supporting ideas.

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A good and organized text or composition is the locomotive train and the railroad is discourse markers. If the train works well, then the train is able to move on the rail. If the engineer or driver of the train, that is, the writer who leads the train knows the interpretation of signs along the rails, then he is able to keep the train on the right track.

On the whole, the construction of knowledge of discourse markers can take place accurately if students are given the chance to work actively and continuously to recognize and use the effectiveness of the language for academic purposes. Engineering students are expected to read and write a lot of scientific and technical writings, they need to know the structuring of paragraphs and correct usage of these discourse markers.

To evaluate the linguistic knowledge in discourse and what could be done to improve, the present study is made.

Methodology

To examine and evaluate the discourse skills of engineering students, a test was conducted manually. Sixty students were selected at random from different branches of engineering. The focus of the questionnaire is to examine the proficiency level of the engineering students in written technical discourse.

Under Part-I,   three questions - fill ups with discourse markers, fill ups with most suitable words (appropriateness of words) and connecting the sentences with suitable connectors or transitional device were asked.

Under Part-II, five questions comprising the subdivisions 'a' and 'b' focused on transcoding, identifying the topic sentence and supporting details, sequencing of sentences, paragraph writing and evaluating the different styles adopted in paragraphs were given. The test examined three significant areas of the knowledge level of students in handling the written technical discourse:

i) Transcoding the technical discourse (table format) which includes dual skills, namely, the information has to be comprehended well and it has to be transcoded into a passage or into graphics.

ii) Conversion of technical details into discourse.

iii) Paragraph writing and application of apposite discourse markers.

Analysis

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Details	Fill-Ups (DMs)	Fill-Ups (appropriate words)	Connecting Sentences	Encryption	Decryption	Paragraph Writing	Idnetifying topic and supporting details	Sequencing of sentences	Evaluating the style
No. of Students 60	**22**	**20**	**30**	**35**	**20**	**25**	**30**	**40**	**30**

No.of Students (60)

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Part -1   Part -2

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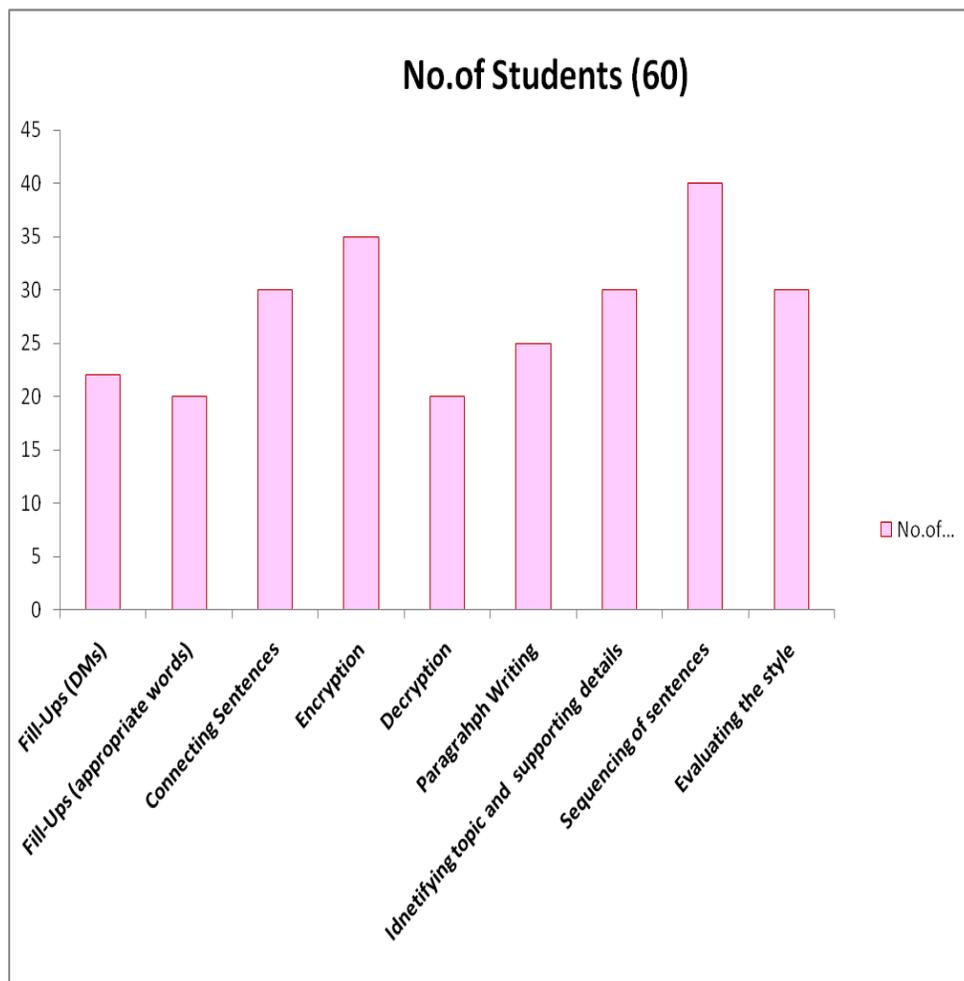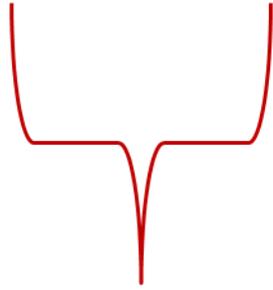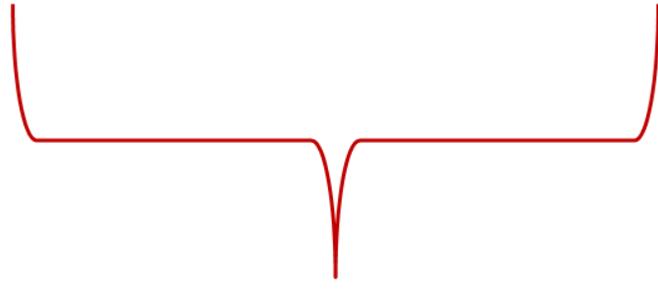
Under Part- II, a tabulated data on the comparison of two different kinds of people – left-handed and right handed persons were given and the students were asked to write a passage comparing both. Most of the answers exhibited contrastive tone.

Invariably, this error had occurred due to the usage of contrastive discourse markers like '*depite*', 'although', 'where as', 'yet',' but', and 'however,' etc. On the other hand, 30/60 students have linked the given data into a passage using correct comparative discourse markers like 'similarly',' comparatively', 'in fact', 'indeed',' and 'at the same time', etc.

In the second question, a passage was given and students were asked to convert a passage into a flow chart. The encryption exercise actually aimed at examining the intense comprehension capacity of the target group through conversion of it into a diagrammatic form. Maximum students stood above the level of average in encrypting this data into a flow chart. At the same time, the erroneous graphical encryptions like line graphs and tree diagram were also tried by some of the students. To comprehend a discourse, the learners need to recover the relationship between the discourse elements contextually. Inadequate skill in diagnosing the flow of discourse, perhaps, leads to several errors.

In fact, this was evidently witnessed in the transcoding exercises given to the students. Maximum number of errors was found in 'decryption' of the tabulated information into a comparative passage when compared to the 'encryption' of the given passage into a flow chart. The percentage of 'encryption' as a wholesome unit is one-third of 'decryption' (20/60). Some of the answers revealed the broken discourse of the students, especially students who came from Tamil medium students coming from a very rural back ground. Apparently, less exposure and mother tongue influence may be the causes for the broken discourse witnessed in their written discourse. Some of the students failed in the 'encryption' test, because they had picked up a word or phrase at random from every sentence of the given passage and had drawn the flow chart.

In the next question, the knowledge level of the students in the appropriate contextual usage of discourse markers and their proficiency in application of different kinds of technical discourse were explored. The question asked the students to write a descriptive paragraph about the process of preparing tea. The objective of this question was to analyse the proficiency of the target group in the application of discourse markers. The style of discourse is usually determined by the appropriate usage of descriptive discourse markers. The paragraph writing exercise revealed the broken syntax and discourse caused by incorrect positioning of discourse markers. Some answers revealed that the errors were due to the lack of exposure to the language itself.

In the qualitative analysis, it was found that there was a difference in the discourse markers between the better writers and the weaker ones. The former, in general, tended to

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use a larger variety of markers in their writings whereas the latter tended to repeat the same markers, which make the text dull. This is the example extracted from the test.

Example for appropriate composition

First, I took three tea bags for making tea and placed them in a jug**. Second**, I added boiling water to it and stirred the content. **Then** I allowed the tea to settle for five minutes. **After that** I added milk and sugar in sufficient quantity to suit my taste. **Finally** I poured the prepared tea in three cups. The tea is now ready for drinking purpose.

Example for the weaker composition

I took tea bags for making tea and kept them in a jug. **Then** I added hot water to it and stirred the mixture. **Then** I allowed five minutes to settle down. **Then** I added milk and sugar. **Then** I poured the prepared tea in cups. The tea is now ready to serve.

Results of the study have found a strong association between discourse markers and the quality of writing. Use of discourse markers enhances the subjects' writing quality as some of the students have performed far more successfully. This may be due to the fact that the participants were able to generate different kinds of discourse markers. In other words, these discourse markers, besides other textual characteristics, help us to identify good and poor writings and, more importantly, the quality of writing is enhanced by the use of well-functioned and appropriate discourse markers. It was also observed that students' writing had a large variety of discourse markers in their good paragraphs and this resulted in better cohesion. The repetition of the same markers indicates dull and poor composition.

Sequencing of sentences is an exercise that tests a person's ability to arrange sentences that have been jumbled, that is, arranged in a random order in a logical sequence. Some students have faired well but most of the students were not able to think of the logical occurrence of a process or event. They had difficulty in looking for the connectives or discourse markers that were signposts of the logical occurrence of a process. Another reason was when the set of sentences contained sequencing markers like 'firstly', 'secondly', 'thirdly', 'finally', etc., students were able to sequence the sentences quickly. When the set of sentences contained other markers like, 'for example', 'however', 'whereas', 'latter', 'also', etc., they find it difficult to arrange the sentences because they need to exercise more analytical and logical thinking.

A paragraph is a unit of writing that consists of one or more sentences focusing on a single idea or topic. In fact a well-written paragraph comprises the following features: topic sentence, supporting details or examples, and conclusion sentences. In this 40/60 students were able to identify. Other students were not able to identify because of their

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difficulty in comprehending the passage. Some students were not able to understand the meanings of some words. So, they had skipped the particular point or sentence. This is the reason for not identifying the topic and supporting sentences and they had given irrelevant sentences.

In the next question, a lengthy passage comprising four paragraphs with four different styles such as expository, argumentative, descriptive and narrative was given. Students were asked to identify and write the style adopted in each paragraph. In this only 30/60 students were able to identify and others were totally confused and wrong answers were given. Students from Tamil medium were not able to identify and most of them didn't attempt the question at all.

Under Part-I, questions comprising of Fill-Ups with discourse markers and another question with filling appropriate words were given. Some good composition with a larger variety of markers applied different kinds of elaborative markers.

 Note the example of a well written paragraph for this question:

Students have ideas. They know what to say in their own language. They do not **however**, know how to put their views in English. They can get over this difficulty, if they follow a few tips. **Firstly,** they can express themselves reasonably, clearly, using simple sentences. **Secondly**, they must try to think in English rather than translate from their own mother tongue. **This** is possible only if their use of English becomes natural and automatic. **For that purpose,** they should speak English and listen as much English as possible. **In general**, they should practice the four language skills and try to imitate the kind of English and its structures that educated people. These tips solve their problem to a greater extent.

Other students had used inappropriate discourse markers with no coherence at all. Most cases of overuse, inappropriate or misuse of discourse markers suggest that discourse markers were used in their writing as a result of translation from their mother tongue to second language. Some of the students in this group wrote a text with excessive use of discourse markers which overshadowed the text and made it difficult to read. Some students wrote their passage without discourse markers. The lack of these discourse markers also made the text more difficult to read. This also suggests that the second language proficiency or insufficient L2 skills accounts for the lack of attention to organization, use of simple text structures, ineffectiveness in connecting sentences or inadequate paragraphing.

Of all the cohesive devices we have discussed so far, transitional devices play a major role in providing a smooth flow to the paragraphs. They help to establish a relationship between ideas in a paragraph and to create a logical progression of those ideas in a

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paragraph. Effective coherence can be achieved if we connect one sentence with the other using certain linguistic devices which help in the smooth transition of ideas. Without transitions, the paragraph will not be unified, coherent or well developed. Unconnected matter and diffused thoughts adversely affect by the use of inappropriate words. The writer has the freedom to choose any style he prefers but he has to strictly adhere to the principle of appropriateness. Wrong choice of words is likely to mislead the reader. This is obviously seen in the answers given by the students.

In choosing the most appropriate words, 20/60 had performed satisfactorily. In the place of 'eminent', 'compliment' and 'proceed' they had chosen 'imminent', 'complement', and 'precede' respectively.

Conclusion

The analysis was carried out to explore the proficiency of the target group in technical discourse on three different technical English writing skills, namely, transcoding graphical representation, conversion of details into discourse and paragraph writing and to find out how the unity, coherence and paragraph development is affected by the usage of discourse markers. From the findings, we could find out that these are destroyed for the following reasons:

i) Repetitive and redundant words.
ii) Presenting more than one central idea.
iii) Central idea not fully developed.
iv) Irrelevant supporting ideas.
v) Repetition of ideas clothed in a different way.
vi) Usage of inappropriate discourse markers.

Remedial Measures

i) Teachers can choose to make sure that the students are prepared as well as trained about the functions of certain discourse markers and employ the appropriate discourse markers by providing them model texts and exercises. Through this, the students will begin to explore available examples of discourse marker types other than those they frequently use. Thus, not only is critical awareness activated among the students but also the need to create variety in their linguistic choices.

ii) One of the eye catching differences among the students was the degree of knowing when to omit discourse markers and knowing where discourse markers do not serve any useful purpose. Lack of practice and reading and one's own inadequate level of experience in language use contribute to this situation. So, students should be encouraged to overcome these shortcomings.

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iii) As a matter of fact, the English texts prescribed in the school education till higher secondary level exclusively comprise various genres of literature such as prose, poetry, short story, autobiography, etc. But the English texts prescribed in the Engineering colleges do not exhibit any such literary genres. So, these students do not have opportunities to learn the use of general language and thus have limited linguistic knowledge. Linguistic aspects of writing should be taught to these students.

iv) Functional aspect of language should be explained to the students.

v) Students should be taught that there are a number of other linguistic devices that affect the extent to which groups of sentences hold together and form a complete and cohesive text such as reference words (pronouns, ellipses, etc), and lexical sets (lexical repetition as well as conjunction). Students need to understand that the absence of discourse markers does not necessarily render a sentence or paragraph ungrammatical or unintelligible but it removes a powerful clue about what commitment the speaker makes regarding the relationship between the current utterance and the prior discourse. They need to know and understand the lack of discourse markers results in lack of cohesion the paragraph and contributes to the incomprehensibility of the passages.

vi) Discourse markers seem to be acquired developmentally stage by stage beginning with elaborative, followed by inferential, contrastive, causative, etc. Some types are given priority over the others. The distinction present between successful and less successful learners corresponds to the degree of flexibility that learners demonstrate when they select discourse markers, and when they utilize them appropriately. The use of discourse markers requires very special and long attention.

vii) More experienced writers seem to write more reader-oriented texts and use discourse markers as facilitating devices to make their text more comprehensible. So, students need to accumulate more experience in writing compositions. They should cultivate self-awareness of discourse markers in addition to the explicit instruction they might receive in technical writing.

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Syntax and Semantics Interface of Verbs

A. Sathikulameen, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

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Introduction

Language is the best communicative tool through which writer's emotions, thoughts and creative ideas get expressed. A creativity process of any literary genre can be analyzed through lexicons, lexical phrases, semantics and syntax. So, if we analyze these components properly, we will get the creativity process of the writer.

Verbs play a vital role in syntax and semantics interface. I begin with the importance of 'input' lexicons which play a vital role in revealing creative and subtle ideas with the aid of lexical categories which interface with one another to give the 'output'.

We will examine how lexicons are arranged in a particular order to reveal the semantic interpretation of the writer in the sentence. If there is any change in this particular order, then the sentence will result in an ill-formed sentence.

Connection between Semantics and Syntax

We need to construct the sentence with an interface between semantics and syntax. It is clear that there is always a connection between semantics and syntax in word recognition and in

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framing arguments in sentences with the aid of lexical categories. The word *recognition* plays a vital role in the arguments in the form of an utterance which is a complex process. TonDijkstra states that:

> First word identification must depend on the characteristics of the lexical item itself, for instance, on how often it has been encountered in the past (e.g. does it have a high or low frequency of usage?) and on whether it is ambiguous with respect to its syntactic category (is *dance* used as a noun or verb?) or semantics (e.g. does *bank* refer to the river side or the institution?). In addition, a word's recognition process could be affected by the syntactic and semantic aspect of the preceding sentence context which may be more or less constraining or predictive. (Dijkstra 129)

Functions of Lexical Items/Lexicon in Creative Process

The lexicons are arranged syntactically in a particular order that communicate the semantic interpretation which evolves out from the input (lexicons). The writer presents his creative ideas in different dimensions with lexicons which are displayed in the form of an utterance, than when they are in isolation. So, it is clear that the lexicons and lexical items are impregnated with creative ideas that can be analyzed for different functions with the help of human linguistic knowledge and these functions are tools that go into the creative process.

The lexical items are fully loaded with the ideas of the writer in a particular order which is presented with the help of the writer's linguistic knowledge which we have to decode with our linguistic competency. "In having a lexical item, a person has remarkably detailed and specific linguistic knowledge" (McGilvray 213). McGilvray points out:

> In effect, they represent (contain) detailed linguistic knowledge, "information" that appears at SEM. Chomsky mentions many examples without – understandably – being definite about how to represent lexical detail. (McGilvray 213)

Verbs

Verbs play a major role in bringing a thematic perspective role in the semantic layer; the role distinction can be done in three levels: (i) The verb specific semantic roles, for example, hearer, lover, thinker, speaker, believer, hater, walker, etc. (ii) The thematic relations based on the verb-specific roles. For example, agent, instrument, experiencer, theme, patient.

The boy kicked the ball with his right leg.

(AGENT)   (THEME)   (INTRUMENT)

When a noun phrase designates an entity as the person who has a feeling, a perception or a state, it fills the role of experience. For example, *Raja saw a mosquito on the wall*. In this

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sentence, Raja plays the role of an experiencer. When an entity fills the role of location, it displays location, and when an entity moves from a point it functions as the source and when it moves to an end point it is technically known as the source.

Raja saw   a mosquito   on the wall.
 (EXPERIENCER)   (THEME)   (LOCATION)

Rajah transfers his money from savings to checking.
(EXPERIENCER) (THEME)   (SOURCE) (GOAL)

Generalized semantic roles, the semantic macro roles, and actor and undergoer are generalizations across thematic relations. Actor is a generalization across agent, experiencer, instrument and other roles, while undergoer is a generalization subsuming patient, theme, recipient and other roles. Agent is the prototype for actor, and patient is the prototype for undergoer. Agent and experiencer are called to be Actor and remaining recipient, stimulus, theme, patient are called to be Undergoer.

Verb Brings out Thematic Perspective

The verbs play a vital role in bringing a thematic perspective role in the semantic layer; the role distinction can be done in three levels, but the writer shares his linguistic knowledge through the syntactic structures which form as a bridge between source and target, that is, the writer and the reader. In *The History of English Syntax*, Elizabeth Close Traugott shares her ideas that "syntactic system forms the bridge between language users' conceptual structure and its manifestation in sound sequences." (Traugott 22)

A Theory of Verb Classes

According to Van Valin, "The lexical representation for verbs and other predicators, implicitly or explicitly, is a theory of verb classes" (Van Valin 31). If we analyse these verb classes, then we will be provided with a different lexical choice to render different semantic value as a result.

Robert D.Van Valin has given the classification of verbs as follows: states, activity, achievement, semelfactive, accomplishment and active accomplishment. States are static verbs which projects the status of a person, certain feelings, for example, be tall, be dead, be sick etc. which are inherently not bounded by time;

I can't believe it, she whispered, wiping her eyes on his skin. (Ghosh 70)

The word 'believe' is not bounded by time. Achievements are instantaneous (explode, shatter, etc.) but accomplishments are not but both are inherently temporally bounded (wet, damp, freeze, dry etc.);

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With everyone **squatting** and every face covered, there followed a sizing-up that was as awkward and inconclusive as the examination of a new bride by her husband's neighbors. (Ghosh 108)

Activities are dynamic inherently temporally not bounded (squat, walk etc.); "semelfactives are punctual events which have no result state" (Van Valin 32) as in verbs like flash, cough, sneeze etc;

Here, Zachary's eyes strayed back to Paulette, who flashed him a smile of gratitude. (Ghosh 72)

Active accomplishments are dynamic. The fundamental distinction that has to be taken in account is whether the verb is static or non- static on one hand and whether the verb is dynamic involving activity and if so whether it is telic or non- telic. So we can say that basically there is a close connection which lies between syntax and semantics of verbs. Verbs are highly impregnated with syntactic and semantic information of the writer in the form of sentence. Verb is inserted into the syntactic component in the sentence to bolster the argument with other constituents. For example,

During the negotiations, she examined (VP) the visitors carefully, through a crack in a wall (Ghosh 16)

We have to analyse how these constituents help to form the verb phrase and give the semantic meaning for the sentence with the syntactic structures. For example,

Firstly, in this sentence, 'examine' is the verb which is added with morpheme of the verb '+ed' to give the semantic interpretation for the word 'examined'. 'Examined' is 'state' verb (Van Valin 32) according to Akionsart based classification of verbs which depicts static situations which are inherently temporally unbounded, for example, 'examined' is the word which clearly states that (+static),(+dynamic), (i.e.) durative, static.

Secondly, 'examined' represents the action of past tense and 'she' plays a semantic role of 'experiencer' who examines 'the visitors' where there is no change is the object (the visitors). The sentence is formed with the verb 'examined' to give the semantic layer of that sentence which is the verb phrase (VP). The lexicon 'examined' has become a major component for that sentence with the aid of other lexical representations like, 'carefully'(adverb), 'in'(preposition), 'the visitors'(noun phrase), 'through'(preposition) and 'in a wall'(prepositional phrase). We can also further say that there are fourteen constituents which join together to form a well formed sentence. Finally, we get the meaning for that sentence with the help of syntactic and semantic interface.

She **examines** a poem. (+static)
She **examines** the visitors. (+static)
She **eats** the apple. (-static)

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She **kicks** the ball. (-static)

She undergoes as an actor who may or may not alter the object in the above sentences, for example, 'she examines a poem' in this sentence, resulative object is –static, then second sentence, -static and the remaining two sentences are +static, which result in resulative objects.

If we enlighten ourselves with a very good knowledge of these classifications of verb, then our analysis gains a deeper insight and we can easily find out the value of verbs with respect to other lexicons. However, it is really complex to identify collocations which are used to organize the knowledge of lexicons. In the following sentences,

He **runs** slowly.
He **writes** slowly.
He **knows** slowly.
*He **feels** slowly.

The verbs 'runs' and 'writes' belong to the same category, but 'knows' is entirely different type and therefore the choice of the adverbs cannot be the same for all verbs. The last sentence clearly indicates that the verb 'feel' fails to give semantic interpretation Verbs utilize the different types of adverbs in the sentence for the semantic descriptions. For example,

She **sings** beautifully.
I **believe** beautifully.

'State verb' like 'believe' depicts static situations (-dynamic, -telic, -punctual) which is temporally unbound. The verb never accepts the adverb 'beautifully' because it fails to give the semantic interpretation. But activity verb 'sings' accepts 'beautifully' (+dynamic) and gives out the meaning.

The boy is afraid slowly. (State)(-dynamic)
The boy is walking slowly. (Present Continuous)(+dynamic)
The boy walks slowly.
The boy has walked slowly.

The first one is not constructed grammatically well and 'slowly' is the adverb which fails to communicate in that context with the aid of 'state verb' 'is afraid'. In the second sentence, 'is walking' clearly brings out the grammatical notion of time, which represents present continuous action, which accepts 'slowly' because it is 'activity verb'. Even though the morpheme 'walk' is similar in all the above sentences, but 'walk' is changed into 'walks', 'walking' and 'walked', which are inflected with '-s' '-ed', '-ing' and the meaning differs in all the above sentences.

It is clear that the semantic connection between words is much stronger and an inflectional semantic category like 'walk' into 'walking' that is highly relevant to the verb, which changes the greatest change in the verb's meaning. For example,

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Deeti is **reading** a book.
Deeti **reads** a book.

First sentence is the present continuous tense, which tells about the immediate action of the agent (Deeti) whereas the second sentence gives the information of the habitual nature of the agent (Deeti). We can state here that verbs decide the syntax of the language with regard to the focus on theme and also to share an informative structure of the language which is constructed in a linear order.

Raju **jumps** high.
Raju **is jumping** high.
***Jump** high.

In the first sentence, it is clear with the agent jumps high which brings out the focus and information and in the second, agent is jumping which are the immediate action. But the last sentence, 'Jump high' which is the command which is to be obeyed, and gives the semantic interpretation in a different way.

To further analyse the connection between syntax and semantics, we need to find out how verbs form and how the writer encodes his argument with the help of verbs in each components. Basically research on verbs in lexical semantics, generative semantics and theoretical syntax has ultimately converged on a compositional approach to verb formation.

The above empirical analysis on verbs bring out the significant relationship that exist between semantics and syntax which interfaces in creating English language which is true to any other language also. The writer, who wants to present his ideas in different dimensions of his sentence structures with the help of the semantic layers, lexicons, lexical phrases and syntax are vital. The input ideas and its output representations are purely based on all the above verb categories.

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History Revisited in *Oral History* by Nadine Gordimer

Gulab Singh, Ph.D.
Divija Kumari, M.A.

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South Africa's History Acts Upon Nadine Gordimer

Robert Green had once remarked:

> "Finally, when the history of the Nationalist
> Governments from 1948 to the end comes to be
> written, Nadine Gordimer's shelf of novels will
> provide the future historian with all the evidence
> needed to assess the price that has been paid." (Green156)

What Green had felt about Nadine Gordimer's novels is perfectly true about her short stories too. Her works are believed to have "a massive historical and political significance as a developing and shifting response to events in modern South Africa, spanning over forty years and reaching into six decades, from the 1940s to the 1990s" (Dominic 2) . In the Introduction to the *Selected Stories*, Gordimer has herself acknowledged that in her writing 'she acts upon her society, while, in this relationship of mutual influence' (Dominic 3), history acts upon her. In her own words:

> "The creative act is not pure .History evidences

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it. Ideology demands it. Society exacts it. " (Tanner 3)

Oral History – a Short Story of Nadine Gordimer

The short stories of Nadine Gordimer are known and appreciated for the artistic and touching exhibition of the problems and compromises faced by the racially marginalized people of South Africa. "Oral History" is one such story which figures in the collection *A Soldier's Embrace*.

The story, as the very title suggests, projects the point of view of black Africans whose oral history it seems to relate. It has the privilege of being one of the seven short stories filmed in 1982 to be broadcast on television.

The story is an explicit criticism of apartheid and it reveals how racial segregation can corrupt the "superior race" and victimize the "inferior" one. Probably what leaves the readers ill at ease after going through the whole story is their realization that the story is truth, not fiction. The story, which is the last one in the collection, 'has preserved and concentrated its strength and is capable of releasing it even after a long time'. (Seyhan 41)

Suggestive Title

As the very title suggests, the story actually recreates the history of South Africa. Gordimer has carefully used the word 'oral' in the title to suggest that it is not one story but the whole experience undergone and shared by the tribal people generation after generation in Africa. The title "Oral History" also suggests a branch of study in history, where it not only refers to folklore, gossip, hear-say or rumor, but is defined by historian Donald A. Ritchie as a systematic documentation 'to uncover the past and preserve it for the future.' He suggests that,

> "Oral history derives its value not from resisting the
> unexpected, but from relishing it. By adding an
> ever wider range of voices to the story,oral history
> does not simplify the historical narrative but makes
> it more complex and more interesting." (Ritchi 13)

A Story of Common People

Stories have always had a special appeal for listeners and readers. People love to tell and hear stories. It is our memory which often organizes to take the shape of a story. The stories of rich and powerful people like Kings, Politicians, Sports men, Actors and Social Workers often find places in magazines, columns of newspapers and shelves of libraries.

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But it is the day to day experience of common people which is much more important for an oral historian and this is precisely what Gordimer has done in this particular story.

New Historicism

"Oral History" is one of the most touching stories created by her. When the American critic Stephen Greenblatt used the term New-historicism for an approach that advocated the parallel reading of literary and non-literary texts it was perhaps for such stories as this that he used this term. New-historicism emphasizes the power-structures in the state, the patriarchal structures in the society and the effects of colonization as suggested by Michel Foucault.

"Oral History," very subtly takes up all these issues. Although another story "Town and Country Lovers" in the same collection of stories, *A Soldier's Embrace* also brings out the fatal nuances of the Apartheid era and focuses on the doubly marginalized status of women in the colonial South Africa, yet it is "Oral History" which has a more lasting appeal and which keeps haunting the mind of the sensible reader, long after he has gone through it.

Issues Dealt with in the Story

The story manages to dwell upon a number of issues like the divide and rule policy of the whites, the war of Zimbabwe, the interpersonal relationships, the patriarchal set-up with men having a legitimate right to have more than one wife, the hierarchy of power-structure, the racial discrimination and the psychological upheavals going through the mind of the protagonist and the unrest among the youth and ultimately the sense of guilt and redemption through suicide.

The Setting

The setting of the story is a village, Dilolo. At the very outset, the omniscient third person narrator reveals that the house of the chief is different from that of other people's homes and it is the only house made of brick, the rest of them having thatched roofs and mud for their walls. The luxurious life of the whites and the privileges bestowed on the chiefs of the village are quite evident through the fact that cars were also given to the chiefs. The divide and rule policy of the colonizers is even more apparent in the statement that the chiefs were usually given regular stipends by the government.

Historic Context

The new-historicist tends to understand and comprehend a work through its historical context. At the same time they believe in "the historicity of texts and textuality of history" (Montrose 20) as suggested by Louis Montrose. The present story is also deeply rooted in its historic context. It is set against the backdrop of the war of Zimbabwe and

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the situation created in the story is that the natives have revolted against the oppressors and the government has decided to put such revolutionaries and their supporters in prisons and a curfew is imposed in the late hours of the day. If anybody is found roaming towards or around borders, he is shot dead there and then. A huge unrest prevailed among the people of the village. As the narrator remarks:

> "The young go away: once it was to the mines,
> now- the radio said-it was over the border to
> learn how to fight" (Gordimer 135).

A Text Situated within the Totality of the Context and Institutions

While defining new-historicism, M.H. Abrams says that "a text is conceived as a discourse which, although it may seem to present, or reflect, an external reality, in fact consists of what are called representations, that is, verbal formations which are ideological products or cultural constructs of the historical conditions specific to an era."(Abrams191) He further explains the term by adding that 'new-historicists conceive of a literary text as situated within the totality of the institutions, social practices, and discourses that constitute the culture of a particular time and place, and with which the literary text interacts as both a product and a producer of cultural energies and codes.'(Abrams 189)

Cultural Practices Depicted in the Story

Gordimer has also given a peep into the then cultural practices of the tribal people in the story. "Oral History" brings out the customs and the culture of the people in a very dynamic way. The Church of the Mopane, the white flag flowing after the funeral service of a person, the arrival of the protestant missionaries in the village, the combining of the old rituals to the new ones for handing over the dead to their ancestors -- give a peep into the culture of the people of Dilolo. The christening of the children in consultation with the priests also refers to the customs prevalent in the village. The superstitious notions and beliefs of the people are highlighted through the ways in which the prophecies were made:

> "The children were baptized with names chosen
> by portent in consultation between the mother and
> an old man who read immutable fate in the fall of
> small bones cast like the dice from a horn cup." (Gordimer 135)

Relating Events from History

That Gordimer has narrated the story as if she is relating events from history are evident by the very way she chooses her words and the manner in which she frames her sentences. For instance:

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> "It is also the way of the tribe to which the clan
> belongs, from Matadi in the west to Mombasa in the
> east, from Entebbe in the north to Empangene in
> south, that everyone is welcome at a beer-drink."(Gordimer 135)

Gordimer is careful enough to refer to the fact that on both the sides of the village, every person is having a dark complexion and most of them share the same language and customs. The policy and the steps taken by the government for crushing and suppressing the revolutionaries are also referred to highlight the terror created by the instruments of the government:

> "He told the chief of things that were happening not
> far from the village; not far at all .The road that passed
> five kilometers away had been blown up. 'Someone plants
> land-mines in the road and as soon as we (whites) repair it
> they put them there again…They wreck our vehicles and
> kill people'" (Gordimer 138).

The Social Hierarchy

The hierarchy of the less privileged, privileged and more privileged is suggested through the behaviour of the black soldier towards the chief and by the submissive attitude of the chief towards the white soldier. The divide and rule policy of the administrators is further exposed by the way they create terror in the minds of the blacks in general and the chief in particular:

> "They will kill you, too-burn your huts, all of you
> -if you let them stay with you" (Gordimer 138).

The economic disparity between the colonizers and the natives and further among the natives themselves is evident by the reference to the big steel watch on the wrist of the chief, the big house he owned and the stipend he received from the government. If the whites had the authority over the blacks, there were also some blacks who held their authority over other blacks. The Chief's wife, for instance, is quite happy to report her husband about the coming of an Army Patrol Land Rover to inspect the village. To quote her words: "The government is coming to see you" (Gordimer 137).

The society observes patriarchy and women are given little importance. The Chief himself has got many wives. Women are doubly marginalized and they are not considered wise. When the white soldier threatened the villagers that they might be killed; the latest wife of the Chief inquired the reason for his threatening thus. But her husband got angry with her inquisitiveness and rebuked her:

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> "You talk about things you don't know.
>   Don't speak for the sake of making noise" (Gordimer 138).

In yet another incident, the Chief goes to his mother's hut. Although the mother of the Chief is wiser than Chief himself yet the Chief doesn't pay any heed to her advice and lands himself in trouble. It is she who suggests her son that he should not inquire people about the whereabouts of their sons:

> "Do you know where your sons are?
>   […]
> 'Good. You can be glad of all that. But
> Don't ask other people about theirs" (Gordimer 139).

She, although old, is the one who doesn't want her son to betray their clan. But the Chief went to the army post, waited for the white soldier like 'a beggar' and gave the information that plenty of revolutionaries have started intruding in the village. When the Chief returns to his village, he is dumb-founded to find his village blown-up. Ironically, it was not the act of revolutionaries but that of the government. The whole village was destroyed and the government didn't spare even a single person in the village, not even Chief's mother and wife. Both of them had also become the victims of the operation carried out by the government and this brutal step was the outcome of the report of the Chief.

Chinua Achebe's Okonkwo

The character of the Chief reminds the readers of the character Okonkwo created by Chinua Achebe in *Things Fall Apart*. Both loved and respected their respective clans and tribes while they were yet alive and both eventually committed suicide. While Okonkwo committed suicide because his people failed him; the Chief hanged himself because he failed his people. But the pain and the psychological upheavals they underwent were common.

Selective History and Darkness

Hegel in 1830 observed that "there is only the history of Europeans in Africa. The rest is darkness […] and darkness is not a subject of history."(Benjamin 9) Gordimer has made use of history as the subject of this story in an exemplary manner. She believed with Karl Japers that community is a historical concept. In her essay, "The Novel and the Nation in South Africa," she agrees with Japers that:

> Community is a historical concept. Each separate community is
> unique, rooted in an unfathomable past that has determined it, and that
> has been handed down through oral teaching, books, usages, customs,

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habits, and above all, through the institutions   of the family and the religion.(Killam 34)

Anatole Broyard has rightly observed that, "Since Nadine Gordimer writes more knowingly about South Africa than anyone else, this may be history in the making that we are reading." Gordimer has faithfully related the community life of the village Dilolo in this short story and through this imaginary village, she has actually related the history, the customs, the nature of institutions like family and religion of Africa, thereby making the story a microcosm of the life of people in the continent at large.

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Provision for Linguistic Diversity and Linguistic Minorities in India

Vanishree V.M., MAPL and ELT, M.A., PGDHRM.

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of MA in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching, St. Mary's University College, Strawberry Hill, London.

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India is one of the most linguistically diverse countries in the world. Most languages in India belong to one of the four language families: Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Tibeto-Burmese and Austro-Asiatic. According to the 2001 Indian Census there are a total of 122 languages and 234 mother tongues. However, these figures cannot be accepted as final as the Census does not report languages spoken by fewer than 10,000 speakers (for instance, in 1961 around 1652 mother tongues were returned in the Census but only 193 languages were classified).

When India gained its Independence in 1947, the framers of the Constitution had a tremendous task to do. They had to put together a Constitution that not only preserved political unity, but also acknowledged and promoted cultural and linguistic diversity. Constitutional safeguards were put in place in order to protect and nurture linguistic diversity, such as the "Eighth Schedule" (ES); this was included in the Constitution in order to provide official status to many Indian languages. The initial proposal to adopt Hindi as National Language was dropped, as it provoked conflict in a country in which language differences often reinforced ethnic or religious divisions. The Education Policy was devised to provide for link languages that would aid in the assimilation of minority language groups. In addition, the states were re-organised on the basis of dominant regional languages in order to protect the interests of linguistically diverse communities. However all this has led to a complex situation in which the 22 languages listed under the Eighth Schedule have a special status, which allows them dominance over *other* minority languages. Furthermore, some languages are the majority in one state and a minority in another, leading to two different types of minority languages: a) minorities that are a majority in some other state and b) minor minorities that are not dominant in any state. In addition, the Constitutional safeguards prescribed are also only declarative in nature and therefore cast no burden on the State to implement them.

Then how has India managed to sustain as a unified country despite this? It is only because of its willingness to adapt and recognise the considerable variation that exists.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Here is Mark Twain's rather "fabulous" description of India:

> The land of dreams and romance, of fabulous wealth and fabulous poverty, of splendour and rags, of palaces and hovels, of famine and pestilence, of genii and giants and Aladdin lamps, of tigers and elephants, the cobra and the jungle, the country of hundred nations and a hundred tongues, of a thousand religions and two million gods, cradle of the human race, birthplace of human speech, mother of history, grandmother of legend, great-grandmother of traditions, whose yesterday's (sic) bear date with the modering (sic) antiquities for the rest of nations-the one sole country under the sun that is endowed with an imperishable interest for alien prince and alien peasant, for lettered and ignorant, wise and fool, rich and poor, bond and free, the one land that all men desire to see, and having seen once, by even a glimpse, would not give that glimpse for the shows of all the rest of the world combined (Pratheep, 2006-2008).

Almost everything is exaggerated except the number of languages, which is seriously under-estimated. The 2001 Census shows that there are in total 122 languages in India out of which 22 languages are spoken by over one million people, while a remaining 100 languages are spoken by more than 10,000 people. Then again, there are languages that are not even recorded because they are spoken by less than 10,000. However, this is a serious under-reporting of the actual number of languages as well because the Census also recorded over 1,500 "mother tongues" used in India (*Census India*, 2010-2011). This discrepancy can be explained by the criteria used that only languages with more than 10,000 speakers (officially) are given official recognition.

This dissertation examines the provision for linguistic diversity and linguistic minorities in India by presenting an overview of the existing linguistic diversity in India and the historical

background that has contributed to the present diversity. It also examines the National Language Policy and the States Re-organisation which have contributed to the political identification of majority-minority linguistic groups. In addition to this it also outlines the Constitutional rights and safeguards guaranteed by the Constitution. Furthermore, it also evaluates the difficulty in defining "a minority" in India and also the misrepresentation of the minority languages in the censuses. It also assesses the effectiveness of the Three Language Formula in education adopted by the Government in order to help people communicate through link languages. Finally, it looks at the representation of the linguistic minorities in the domains of Public Administration, Media and Information Technology.

MAP ONE
INDIA AND ITS STATES

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(Baldridge, 2002)

* Three new states were formed in November 2000, Chattisgarh was carved out of the Madhya Pradesh state, Uttranchal out of the Uttar Pradesh state and Jarkhand out of the Bihar state.

Mahajan (2010:112), who writes extensively on politics states that "Unity in Diversity" is what India stands for. The underlying sentiment of its people is that ''India can be a strong and unified country while simultaneously affirming its cultural diversity'' (Mahajan, 2010: 112). Hence, cultural homogeneity is not considered to be prerequisite for a country such as India to forge a political identity as a nation state (Mahajan, 2010: 112). However, linguistic diversity is an ever-present challenge to the desired unity. She also points out, "The route India embarked upon at the time of independence has been a difficult and arduous journey" (Mahajan, 2010: 112). When India gained its Independence in 1947, the Government and the framers of the Constitution had a tremendous task to do, keeping in mind the existing diversity and formulating a desirable framework that would help build "a unified but culturally diverse nation state" (Mahajan, 2010: 111). Therefore, what we have today is a framework of democracy that tries to accommodate culturally and linguistically diverse people.

What lies at the core of Indian Constitution is that all communities should co-exist as equals despite cultural backgrounds. But, just by granting equality to people would by no means solve the problem. The minority communities needed special Constitutional rights to lead a life of liberty in order to follow and to protect their own cultural identity (Mahajan, 2010: 112). For instance, the minority religious communities and linguistic minority communities needed liberty and protection to follow their own religious practices and beliefs and to promote their identity through their respective languages. Therefore the Constitution linked "equality for the individual with equality for diverse communities" (Mahajan, 2010: 112).

However, a major cause of concern is even though the Indian Constitution provides many safeguards for linguistic minorities, a recent UNESCO report identifies 196 languages that are endangered in India. The list includes 84 languages that are "unsafe", 62 languages that are "definitely endangered", 6 languages that are "severely endangered", 33 languages that are "critically endangered" respectively, and 9 languages have become "extinct" in India since the 1950's (*UNESCO*,1995-2010). This concludes that India officially has the highest number of

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endangered languages in the world, closely followed by the Unites States (192) and Brazil (190) respectively.

Table-1

Countries with the Most Endangered Languages

<div align="right">(Sengupta, 2009: 17)</div>

Country	Degree Of Vitality					
	Unsafe	Definitely Endangered	Severely Endangered	Critically Endangered	Extinct	Total Endangered
India	84	62	6	35	9	196
United States	11	25	32	71	53	192
Brazil	97	17	19	45	12	190
Indonesia	56	30	19	32	10	147
China	41	49	22	23	9	144
Mexico	52	38	33	21	-	144
Russian Federation	21	47	29	20	19	136
Australia	17	13	30	42	6	108
Papua New Guinea	24	15	29	20	10	98
Canada	24	14	16	32	2	88

From the two categories with the least degree of vitality, "critically" and "severely" endangered, 28 out of 37 languages (75%) have fewer than 5,000 speakers. Within the same two categories 92% of the languages have fewer than 20,000 speakers. On the other hand, in the category which has the highest vitality within the endangerment schema, the "unsafe", about 85% of these languages have more than 20,000 speakers (Sengupta, 2009: 18).

The Indian languages can be broadly categorised under five major groups 1) Indo–Aryan 2) Dravidian 3) Austro–Asiatic 4) Tibeto–Burmese and 5) Semito–Hamitic.

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TABLE-2

GROUPING BY FAMILY OF THE 122 SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED LANGUAGES –2001

Language Families	Number of Languages	Persons who returned the languages as their mother tongue	Per centage to total population
1	2	3	4
1. Indo-European (a) Indo-Aryan	21	790,627,060	76.86
(b) Iranian	2	22,774	0.00
(c) Germanic	1	226,449	0.02
2. Dravidian	17	214,172,874	20.82
3. Austro-Asiatic	14	11,442,029	1.11
4. Tibeto-Burmese	66	10,305,026	1.00
5. Semito-Hamitic	1	51,728	0.01
Total	**122**	**1,026,847,940***	**99.82***

(*Census India*, 2010-11)

* These languages are further grouped as **Scheduled Languages (22)** or the Official Language of the States that are considered as major languages of India and **Non-Scheduled (100)** the other languages used for administrative purposes (Sarangi, 2009: 18).

* The remainder of 1,762,388 (0.17%) population, out of total Indian population, is composed of speakers of those languages and mother tongues that were not identifiable or were less than 10000 speakers at all Indian level and the population (127,108 persons) of Manipur, which was not included in the language data since the Census results were cancelled in 3 sub-divisions of Senapati district of the Manipur state in 2001 (*Census India*, 2010-11).

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TABLE-3

Names of 122 Scheduled (S) and Non-Scheduled Languages -2001

INDO-ARYAN			DRAVIDIAN	AUSTRO-ASIATIC	TIBETO-BURMESE		SEMITO-HAMITIC
INDO-ARYAN	**IRANIAN**	**GERMANIC**	1.Coorgi/ Kodagu,	1.Bhumij,	1.Adi,	35. Manipuri(S),	1. Arabic/ Arbi
1. Assamese (S),	1. Afghani/ Kabuli/ Pashto,	1.English	2. Gondi,	2. Gadaba,	2. Anal,	36. Maram,	
2. Bengali(S),	2. Persian		3. Jatapu,	3. Ho,	3. Angami,	37. Maring,	
3.Bhili/Bhilodi,			4. Kannada(S),	4. Juang,	4. Ao,	38.Miri/ Mishing,	
4.Bishnupuriya,			5.Khond/Kondh,	5. Kharia,	5. Balti,	39. Mishmi,	
5. Dogri(S)			6. Kisan,	6. Khasi,	6. Bhotia,	40. Mogh,	
6. Gujarati(S),			7. Kolami,	7. Koda/Kora,	7. Bodo (S),	41. Monpa,	
7. Halabi,			8. Konda,	8. Korku,	8. Chakesang,	42. Nissi/Dafla,	
8. Hindi(S),			9.Koya,	9. Korwa,	9. Chakru/Chokri,	43. Nocte,	
9. Kashmiri(S),			10. Kui,	10. Munda,	10. Chang,	44. Paite,	
10. Khandeshi,			11. Kurukh/Oraon,	11.Mundari,	11. Deori,	45. Pawi,	
11. Konkani(S),			12. Malayalam(S),	12. Nicobarese,	12. Dimasa,	46. Phom,	
12. Lahnda,			13. Malto,	13. Santali(S)	13. Gangte,	47. Pochury,	
13. Maithili(S),			14. Parji,	14.Savara.	14. Garo,	48. Rabha,	
14. Marathi(S),			15 Tamil(S),		15. Halam,	49. Rai	
15. Nepali(S),			16. Telugu(S),		16. Hmar,	50.Rengma,	
16. Oriya(S),			17.Tulu.		17. Kabui,	51. Sangtam,	
17. Punjabi(S),					18. Karbi/Mikir,	52. Sema,	
18. Sanskrit(S),					19. Khezha,	53. Sherpa,	
19. Shina,					20. Khiemnungan,	54. Simte,	
20. Sindhi(S),					21.Kinnauri,	55. Tamang	
21. Urdu(S),					22. Koch,	56. Tangkhul,	
					23. Kom,	57. Tangsa,	
					24. Konyak,	58. Thado,	
					25. Kuki,	59. Tibetan,	
					26. Ladakhi,	60. Tripuri,	
					27. Lahauli,	61. Vaiphei,	
					28. Lakher,	62. Wancho,	
					29. Lalung,	63.Yimchungr,	
					30. Lepcha,	64.Zeliang,	
					31. Liangmei,	65. Zemi,	
					32. Limbu,	66. Zou.	
					33.Lotha,		
					34. Lushai/Mizo,		

(*Census India*, 2010-11)

Chapter 2 reviews the historical background and development of the Indian languages. Chapter 3 focuses on issues such as the National Language Policy, the Linguistic Re-organisation of the Indian states and the formulation of Constitution with respect to the language provisions made to

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safeguard the interests of linguistic minorities in India. Furthermore, it touches on the issues relating to the definition of a minority in Indian context and also presents an alternative means of approaching the definition of a minority. Chapter 4 looks at practical implementation of the Constitution, further changes to the Constitution, and the introduction of language policies designed to preserve unity and linguistic diversity.

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CHAPTER 2
Ancient and Colonial History

Ancient History

Indo-Aryan Family

Before the arrival of Aryans in 1500 BC, India was linguistically diverse, with other linguistic community inhabitants such as Sino-Mongoloids, Austroloids, Negritos and languages of other settlers who came to India from time to time (Daniel, 1999-2005). But, much of the information about the exact origins of languages prior to Aryan era still remains quite unclear. The arrival of the Aryans also marked the arrival of Vedic Sanskrit in India in 1500 BC or even earlier, much before the writing was introduced in India. Vedic Sanskrit continued to be in use up until 200 BC and was then followed by the Classical Sanskrit (Baldridge, 2002). Classical Sanskrit was developed from the Vedic Sanskrit by Panini, a great grammarian of his time in 400 BC and was used as a standard court language. Classical Sanskrit then gave rise to a range of dialects known as Prakrit which literally means "common" or "unpolished" as opposed to Sanskrit which means "refined" or "purified" (Nayar in Baldridge, 2002) and is commonly described as the regional or vernacular dialects of Classical Sanskrit during the Middle Indo-Aryan period (600 BC to 1000 AD). Prakrits were popular forms of speech but some developed into literary languages such as Sauraseni Prakrit, which was the chief language of northern Medieval India. Magadi Prakrit was spoken in the eastern Indian sub-continent; and Maharashtri was written in the Devanagari script and was the most popular amongst all Prakrit languages and was spoken in north and south of India (*Answers Corporation*, 2010). These Middle Indo-Aryan languages were gradually transformed into Apabhramasas which before the end of the 1300 AD had began to evolve into the Modern Indo-Aryan languages such as Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Marathi and so on (Baldridge, 2002). At present around 77 per cent of the Indian population, approximately 800 million people based on the 2001 Census report, speak one of the Indo-Aryan groups of languages (*Census India*, 2010-11).

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Dravidian Family

Unlike the Indo-Aryan languages, the exact origin of Dravidian languages is under a great deal of speculation and much less is known about the ancient history of the Dravidian family, though some connections with Uralic and Altic have been posited (Baldridge, 2002). Based on the available written evidence, many Indian linguists believe that the oldest Dravidian language is Tamil which can be traced back to the 1st century AD. It is believed that two other languages like Kannada and Telugu seemed to have developed only after the 6th century. Malayalam spilt from Tamil as a literary language and was developed as an independent language by around the 12th century (Baldridge, 2002). Presently, around 20 per cent of the Indian population, about 215 million people speak Dravidian languages (*Census India*, 2010-11). This language does not have any relationship with other languages outside the Indian sub-continent. The majority of the Dravidian speakers are from the southern part of India, mainly from the states of Tamil Nadu (Tamil), Andhra Pradesh (Telugu), Karnataka (Kannada) and Kerala (Malayalam). However, a few speakers are scattered in the north as well, for instance the Gonds in Madhya Pradesh, the Orissa, and the Kurukhs in Madhya Pradesh and Bihar.

Tibeto-Burmese and Austro-Asiatic Family

Languages that belong to these two language families are considered to be much older than the Indo-Aryan languages by linguists. Like in the case of Dravidian languages, the exact time of origin of these languages too remains unclear. There is a reference to these languages in ancient Sanskrit literature, therefore it could indicate that these languages are either much older than the Indo-Aryan language family or may have existed at around the same time. In the Sanskrit literature, the Tibeto-Burmese languages were referred to as "Kiratas" and the Austro-Asiatic languages were referred to as "Nisadas" (*Culturopedia,* 2010). The Tibeto-Burmese languages can be divided into four groups namely Tibetan, Himalayan, North-Assam and Assam-Burmese and can be found along the Himalayan fringe from the states of Jammu and Kashmir to eastern Assam. These langauages make up for 1 per cent, around 10.3 million of the population (*Census India*, 2010-11). The Austro-Asiatic languages composed of the Munda tongues and others thought to be related to them, are spoken by groups of tribal people spread across the states of West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh (Heitzman & Worden, 1995). These groups

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make up approximately 1.11 per cent, about 11.4 million people of the population (*Census India*, 2010-11). The most important language of this language group is Santhali, which is spoken by over 5 million people (refer table 3 for other important Tibeto-Burmese and Austro-Asiatic languages).

Colonial History

After the downfall of the Mughal Empire (the last Muslim Empire in India), when the British inherited India from the previous rulers, they had a "daunting task of administering a huge and ethnically diverse territory" (Page, 2003: 331). Therefore, in order to understand the "linguisitic-cultural composition of India" (Sarangi, 2009: 13), the British used a number of enumerative methods such as censuses, gazetters, lingustic survey reports such as the Grierson's Linguistic Survey of India in 1896, and ethnographical accounts in order to classify and categorise the lingusitic demography of the country. This was done mainly to gain an insight into the diversity, that could, in turn, help them "control over the vast and heterogeneous Indian social structure" (Sarangi, 2009: 13).

English replaced Persian as the language of administration in 1835. Persian and Hindi were retained only at the lower administrative levels thereafter, whereas English became the language of the elite and the intellectual due to the Macaulay's Minute on Indian Education in 1835. After this Minute, the oriental education was slowly replaced by western education and was also crucial in placing English as a medium of instruction within the realm of higher education. The following quote from Macaulay's speech best summarises how English gained a strong foot hold in India.

> It is impossible for us, with our limited means, to attempt to educate the body of the people. We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect. To that class we may leave it to refine the vernacular dialects of the country, to enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the Western nomenclature, and to render them by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population (Thirumalai, 2003).

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Even to this day, English enjoys a special status in India and those who are educated in English are considered superior to those who are not. At present, English is spoken by 3-4 per cent of the Indian population as first, second or third language (Baldridge, 2002).

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CHAPTER 3

Post-Independence and the Constitution

"How shall we promote the unity of India and yet preserve the rich diversity of our inheritance?"

(Jawaharlal Nehru the first Prime Minister of India in Austin, 2009:41)

What was most pressing at the time of Independence was the task of keeping a diverse country like India intact and at the same time making sure that the diversity was promoted and even upheld (Austin, 2009: 41).

3 (a) National vs. Official Language

After gaining Independence from the British in 1947, the leaders of the new nation saw an opportunity to unite India under a common language. Mahatma Gandhi felt that this was essential for India to emerge as a "bona fide nation" (Baldridge, 2002). Furthermore, there was an immediate need to replace English which was seen as "a symbol of slavery" (Nayar in Baldridge, 2002) by the leaders. Gandhi pointed out five requirements for any language to be accepted as the national language:

1. It should be easy to learn for government officials
2. It should be capable of serving as a medium of religious, economic, and political intercourse throughout India
3. It should be the speech of the majority of the inhabitants of India.
4. It should be easy to learn for the whole country.
5. In choosing this language, considerations of temporary or passing interests should not count (Gupta in Baldridge, 2002).

But, choosing a national language was not such an easy task for the Government due to the following reasons:

1. There were several Indian languages and their dialects with a rich historical and literary background.

2. None of the languages had a clear cut majority status. This meant that the government would have to choose from one of the Indian languages and accord it special status.

3. It would be difficult to get the public to accept any particular language because they had pride in their own languages (Austin, 2009: 42).

Several years before independence, Gandhi had tirelessly supported Hindustani, which was a combination of Hindi and Urdu and could be written in either Devanagri (a Sanskrit) script or Perso-Arabic script as the best choice for a national language. However, after partition of India Muslims emigrated to Pakistan while Hindus continued to live in India (Baldridge, 2002). As a result, according to Baldridge (2002) "Hindu leaders in Congress saw little need for Gandhi's concession to the Muslims". So, the focus there after shifted from Hindustani to Hindi, which was spoken only by Hindus.

Even though, Hindi was not a majority language at the time of Independence, it was mainly favoured and supported by Congress leaders from the northern and central India where it was most widely spoken. This support grew even stronger when the draft of constitution was being framed and resulted in a split within the Congress (Austin, 2009: 45). Consequently, two groups emerged, a group who supported Hindi as a national language because they believed "that the use of English was incompatible with India's independence" (Austin, 2009: 45) and were referred to at that time as "Hindi wallas", and another group who believed that Hindi should not be imposed on people as a National Language, although they agreed that English should be replaced, but slowly with a great deal of planning, and in a way that allowed the other languages of India to be considered equally important (Austin, 2009: 45). This latter group included Nehru and other Assembly members who came from southern India, Bombay, and Bengal regions where the link language (a language that is most convenient and suitable and enables different states in a federation to communicate) was English and not 'Hindi' (Austin, 2009: 45).

Why did the language issue become so important and controversial? Austin (2009) points out that the language issue was controversial because it was felt to be an important fundamental right.

> Federalism was a question for politicians. But in a nation composed of linguistic minorities, where even provinces were not linguistically homogeneous and there were, for example, Tamil enclaves existing in Oriya-speaking areas, problems of language were an everyday affair. Language meant the issue of mother tongue

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instruction in primary schools-an issue well known in every country where there are substantial minority groups-as well as the medium of instruction in universities. The language of the union and provincial civil services meant money and social status to the middle and upper classes, for the services were their primary source of prestigious employment. Politicians and administrators would be no less affected by the language provisions. The language provision was also made real because it involved the cultural and historical pride of the linguistic groups and in the case of Muslims and Sikhs particularly religious sentiments (Austin, 2009: 45).

After six weeks of intense debate between the two groups, there was a vote. If the Hindi wallas won, it would have meant that Hindi would have to become the National Language. In the event, the vote was tied 77-77 (Austin, 2009: 84), and the Constituent Assembly finally decided that Hindi would be an Official Language of the Union and not the National Language of India because it was seen as an imposition that attempted to erase the cultures of other language speakers (Daniel, 1999-2000). The following quote by Austin (2009: 92) best summarises why the Assembly eventually believed that the notion of National Language was impossible, at least in the near future and thereby had to be replaced with an Official Language.

Assembly members believed that India should, ideally, have an indigenous national language; Hindi (or Hindustani) was the most suitable, so it was named for the role. Yet for Hindi to be in practice the national language was impossible, for the only language in national use was English. Moreover, the other sub-nations feared the introduction of Hindi and had pride in their own languages. Hence the Constitution makes clear what the national ideal is, and then, realistically, compromises, lying down how the nation is to function, linguistically speaking, until the ideal is achieved (2009: 92).

In addition, it was also decided that English would continue as an Associate Official Language for a period of 15 years or until the parliament would decide otherwise (Austin, 2009: 42). Article 351 of the Constitution was also included to promote Hindi. The Assembly also decided that the State Governments were permitted to choose one of their regional languages plus Hindi or English for inter-state communication; thereby, making space for all the other important state/regional languages.

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3 (b) Linguistic Re-organisation of the States

The next issue of paramount importance was the re-organisation of India into linguistic states. Congress had always been in favour of establishing linguistic provinces since the 1920's (Schwartzberg, 2009: 143) because "Gandhi placed the language issue at the heart of independence movement" (Sarangi, 2009: 47). He said in 1918 "that unless we give Hindi its national status and the provincial languages their due place in the life of the people, all the talk of Swaraj [literally means home-rule] is useless" (Sarangi, 2009: 47). Two years after this, in 1920, the Congress Party went to people in their own languages (Sarangi, 2009: 48). A new Congress Party Constitution that was adopted in the same year formed the party into Provincial Congress Committees based on linguistic areas instead of the existing provinces based on the administrative boundaries. The new Provincial Congress Committees were then encouraged to use the local languages in their affairs (Sarangi, 2009: 48). Soon after India gained its Independence, demands for new political map which was based on the linguistic principles began. Congress, which had endorsed the establishing of linguistic provinces, was now overwhelmed by other responsibilities such as putting the new nation into a working order, dealing with millions of refugees who were displaced during the partition of India, integrating and consolidating the country into new governable units, and on top of all framing the Constitution (Schwartzberg, 2009: 154). All of these became a priority for the new government. Nevertheless, the demands for re-organisation had to be acknowledged. So, Nehru appointed a Linguistic Provinces Commission in 1948 to look into the matter of re-organisation. The following extract is taken from paragraph 125 of the report submitted by the commission.

> Linguistic homogeneity in the formation of new provinces is certainly attainable within certain limits but only at the cost of creating a fresh minority problem. More than half the Malayalam and Kannada speaking people are living in Indian States, and only a little less than half of Telugu and Marathi speaking people are living either in Indian States or in Union Provinces from which they cannot be transferred to new linguistic provinces either for want of geographical contiguity or want of their consent to be so transferred. These must remain, at least for many years to come, outside the sphere of linguistic province. Even in the limited areas of Union, which can be made homogeneous linguistically, broader districts on each side and the capital cities of Bombay and Madras will remain bilingual or multilingual. And, nowhere will it be possible to form a linguistic province of more than 70 to 80 per cent of the people speaking the same language, thus

leaving in each province a minority of at least 20 per cent of people speaking other languages (Ram Gopal in Schwartzberg, 2009: 154-55).

The Commission pointed out that complete homogeneity was not possible. Every state would have only 70 to 80 per cent of the population speaking a majority while the remaining 20 to 30 per cent of the population would still consist of linguistic minority groups even after a linguistic re-organisation (Schwartzberg, 2009: 155). However, in spite of these negative findings by the Linguistic Provinces Commission of 1948, the government went ahead and carved the state of Andhra as a Telugu speaking state from the province of Madras in October, 1953. Since the pressure for additional demands for re-organisation was ever increasing, a States Re-organisation Commission was established in December of same year to re-examine the whole issue. The feelings towards the linguistic re-organisation were so strong among people that in 1955, the New Commission received around 152,250 documents in support of or in opposition to specific changes (Schwartzberg, 2009: 159). The commission in some cases did consider the recommendations and the Seventh Amendment to the Indian Constitution and the Nation's political map was re-ordered (Schwartzberg, 2009: 160).

Even though linguistic considerations were not the sole basis for the changes made, it was however a very important aspect in the decision making (Schwartzberg, 2009: 160). Apart from attaining linguistic homogeneity the other factors that were taken into consideration was that the proposed linguistic state had to have a population and economic base large enough to make it viable (Schwartzberg, 2009: 170). In culturally diverse country like India factors like ethnic and religious composition and geographical factors like distance from the capital and economic and social backwardness of the regions played a major part in carving out states (Benedikter, 2010: 43).

The main outcomes of the 1956 re-organisation was the elimination of the categories of states as A, B and C. The small class C states either became 'Union Territories' or were merged with larger units speaking the same language. The class B states, former large princely states or state unions (territories under British control with a local ruler or King), were considered in same terms as Class A states which were formed from the old major British provinces (territories that were completely under British control) (Schwartzberg, 2009: 160). Following the States Reorganisation "for the first time in India's modern history there was not a single state or

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province in the country in which all linguistic minorities combined comprised more than half of the total population" (Schwartzberg, 2009: 161). In the first place the claim is doubtful because it was based on the 1951 Census data. But as already mentioned earlier, the numbers of languages spoken are generally misrepresented in the Census. In addition, the Census does not report the languages spoken by fewer than 10,000 speakers. Also, manipulation of data for political reasons cannot be overlooked. Furthermore, "the process of making a minority community into a majority community on the basis of regional distribution can never resolve the problems of linguistic minorities" (Dua, 1986: 4). For example, the state of Punjab in 1961, had a population that consisted of 56.6% of Hindi speakers and 41.1% Punjabi speakers but after the linguistic re-organisation the per centage of Punjabi speakers went up to 79.49%, while the per centage of Hindi speakers reduced drastically to 20.01%. Therefore, this left the Hindi speakers a minority community in Punjab (Dua, 1986: 4). Dua reasons why linguistic re-organisation of the states fails to bring out the desired homogeneity.

> First, as the language diversity shows, there are so many distinct language groups in India that the principle of language territoriality and linguistic homogeneity can never be fully operational. Second, as the Punjab situation shows, even after the reorganization there remains a significant minority of Hindi speakers in Punjab. Finally, the free inter-state migration due to industrialization, urbanization or other factors has been attested in earlier periods and seems to be further reinforced by mobility due to social and professional reasons. Thus, the existence of linguistic minorities of different types and nature form an integral part of the multilingual situation in India (Dua, 1986: 4).

All types of linguistic minorities can be found in all States and Union territories: Scheduled, Non-Scheduled, Tribal and Non-Tribal speech communities (Dua, 1986: 4). The 1971 Census enumerated about 19 million people residing in states that they were not born in; these were the inter-state immigrants who formed one of the linguistic minority groups. A second group of minorities, about 12.4 million, were people who had settled in particular regions for generations. A third group of linguistic minorities belonged to the Scheduled Tribes (indigenous or aboriginal groups) (Schwartzberg, 2009: 176-77).

With such large number of minorities scattered throughout India, the demand for linguistic states and their regional specification did not end in 1956 and ever since then the re-organisation process has continued (Schwartzberg, 2009: 182). The latest adjustment was in 2000, when three

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new states Chattisgarh, Jharkhand and Uttarakhand were added (Sarangi, 2009: 19). Since independence, language questions have time and again put both the Central and State governments into difficult situations. Making territorial changes in favour of some linguistic groups aspiring to have their own land (or more land); at the same time protecting the rights of the minorities speaking other languages can be difficult for any government. In India most of these changes regarding the re-organisation have had to be made under tremendous pressure, often when linguistic groups are agitated and have the potential for mass violence (Schwartzberg, 2009: 182).

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3 (c) "Scheduled" Languages and the Constitution

The Constitution was first drafted in 1948 and finally came into force in January 1950. All the provisions related to language can be found in Part Seventeen in 243-51 of the Indian Constitution. Article 343 declares that the official language of the Union would be Hindi in the Devanagari script. Article 345 permits the states and Union Territories to have their own official language that could be used for all official purposes of the states. However, the language in use in the state should be the one that at least 15 per cent of the population speaks (Sarangi, 2009: 24). This article also guarantees that "provided that until the Legislature of the State otherwise provides by law, the English language shall continue to be used for those official purposes within the State for which it was being used immediately before the commencement of this Constitution" (Sarangi, 2009:25). Article 346 on the other hand states that "if two or more states agree that the Hindi language should be the official language for communication between such States, that language may be used for such communication" (Sarangi, 2009:25). Furthermore, according to Article 347, special provisions can be made by the President, if he is satisfied that substantial proportion of the population of a State desire the use of any language spoken by them to be recognised by the State, direct that such language shall be officially recognised throughout the State or any part thereof for such purposes as the president chooses to specify. This rule thereby, allows other minority languages for official use in any province. In addition, it declares that a state should be recognised as "unilingual" if only when any one language group constitutes 70 per cent or more of the total population and should be recognised bilingual if any minority group is over 30 per cent for administrative purposes (Sarangi, 2009: 25-6). Finally, Article 351 states that "it shall be the duty of the Union to promote the spread of Hindi language, to develop it so that it may serve as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India and to secure its enrichment by assimilating without interfering with its genius, the forms, style and expressions used in Hindustani and in the other languages of India specified in the Eighth Schedule, and by drawing, wherever necessary or desirable, for its vocabulary, primarily on Sanskrit and secondarily on other languages" (*Government National Portal of India*, 2010).

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Eighth Schedule (ES) [Articles 344 (1) and 351]

The Eighth Schedule was included in the Constitution in 1950 and provides formal and Constitutional recognition to dominant regional languages in the spheres of administration, education, economy and social status (Sarangi, 2009: 27). In the beginning the ES listed 14 languages as the official languages of Indian states.

TABLE - 4

ES Languages at the time of formation of the Constitution

1. Assamese	6. Kashmiri	11. Sanskrit
2. Bengali	7. Malayalam	12. Tamil
3. Gujarati	8. Marathi	13. Telugu
4. Hindi	9. Oriya	14. Urdu
5. Kannada	10. Punjabi	

(Groff, 2003: 5)

One important thing to note here is that even though English was given an Associate Official Language status, it was not included in the ES. The move to include English in the ES was resisted by many Constituent Assembly Members on the grounds that English was not an Indian language and therefore they believed it would be inappropriate to include it in the ES (Sarangi, 2009: 27).

At present there are 22 languages listed under the ES. The number of languages listed under the ES has increased due to the increasing demands from various language groups to be included in the ES as it offers special status. Three languages, namely Manipuri, Konkani, and Nepali, were included in ES in 1992 through the Seventy-First Amendment. Later, in 2004 another three languages Dogri, Maithili and Santhali were included. What is interesting is that all these languages were included in the ES after several years of cultural and social movements by

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leaders and people belonging to the various language groups (Sarangi, 2009: 28). The following table shows the present list of languages under ES.

TABLE - 5

Present ES Languages

1. Assamese	7. Kannada	. 13. Marathi.	19. Sindhi.
2. Bengali	8. Kashmiri.	14. Nepali.	20. Tamil.
3. Bodo	9. Konkani.	15. Oriya.	21. Telugu.
4. Dogri	10. Maithili.	16. Punjabi.	22. Urdu
5. Gujarati	11. Malayalam.	17. Sanskrit.	
6. Hindi	12. Manipuri.	18. Santhali	

(*Government National Portal of India*, 2010)

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3 (d) Linguistic Minorities and the Constitution

Article 29

Article 29 promises protection of interests of minorities by declaring that the minorities have a right to conserve their culture, language and script. It also prohibits any kind of discrimination on the basis of religion, race, caste and language.

Protection of interests of minorities

1. Any section of the citizens residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same.
2. No citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them (Benedikter, 2009: 65).

Article 30

Article 30 provides protection against discrimination in receiving government grants for the purpose of education. It also guarantees religious and linguistic groups the right to set up and provide education in their own languages. This article also enables the linguistic minorities to claim state aid in order to set up and run educational institutions effectively.

Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions.

(1) All minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.

1 (a) In making any law providing for the compulsory acquisition of any property of any educational institution established and administered by a minority, referred to in clause 1, the State shall ensure that the amount fixed by or determined under such law for the acquisition of such property is such as would not restrict or abrogate the right guaranteed under that clause.

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The State shall not, in granting aid to educational institutions, discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority, whether based on religion or language (Benedikter, 2009: 66).

Owing to the ambiguity of this article, The Supreme Court of India on October 31, 2002 decided that 'minority' within the meaning of Article 30 is as follows, "for the purpose of determining the minority, the unit will be the State and not the whole of India. Thus, religious and linguistic minorities, who have been put at par in Article 30, have to be considered State-wise" (Mallikarjun, 2004)

Article 30 is a special right conferred on the religious and linguistic minorities because of their numerical handicap and to instill in them a sense of security and confidence, even though the minorities cannot be per se regarded as weaker sections or underprivileged segments of the society (Mallikarjun, 2004).

However, unfortunately both these articles provide linguistic minorities with minimal protection. Furthermore, the articles are only declarative in nature therefore it does not mean that states must recognise that language. Hence, there is no official pressure whatsoever on the states to either establish educational institutions or provide education to linguistic minorities through their mother tongue (Benedikter, 2009:66).

Article 347

Article 347 specifies that if there is a demand from a linguistic minority community, then the President can invite the respective State to recognise their language as a co-official language, but does not clearly explain what is meant by a "substantial proportion". This article also declares that minority languages can also be used for official purposes (Benedikter, 2009: 67).

Special provision relating to language spoken by a section of the population of a State

On a demand being made in that behalf the President may, if he is satisfied that a substantial proportion of the population of a State desires the use of any language spoken by them to be

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recognised by that State, such language shall also be officially recognised throughout that State or any part thereof for such purpose as he may specify (Benedikter, 2009: 67).

Article 350

Language to be used in representations for redress of grievances

This article guarantees the linguistic minorities the right to use a language they understand for redress of grievances.

> Every person shall be entitled to submit a representation for the redress of any grievance to any officer or authority of the Union or a State in any of the languages used in the Union or in the State, as the case may be (*Government National Portal of India,* 2010).

In addition to this right, in 1956, through the 7th Amendment, two articles addressing the linguistic minority issues were further added.

Article 350 (A)

Facilities for instruction in mother-tongue at primary stage

It shall be the endeavour of every State and of every local authority within the State to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups; and the President may issue such directions to any State as he considers necessary or proper for securing the provision of such facilities (Benedikter, 2009: 68).

Article 350 (B)

Special Officer for linguistic minorities

1. There shall be a Special Officer for linguistic minorities to be appointed by the President.

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2. It shall be the duty of the Special Officer to investigate all matters relating to the safeguards provided for linguistic minorities under this Constitution and report to the President upon those matters at such intervals as the President may direct, and the President shall cause all such reports to be laid before each House of Parliament, and sent to the Governments of the States concerned (Benedikter, 2009: 68).

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CHAPTER 4

Practical Implementation of the Constitution

Dua (2007: 95) points out that "mere recognition of language rights is not enough." He is of the opinion that the present state of affairs of the language rights in the world shows that the countries can be differentiated a) in terms of whether the language rights are explicitly or implicitly recognised b) whether they are prohibition or promotion oriented. In India, even though the language rights are explicitly recognised and are promotion oriented; they have failed to fulfill the purpose because these rights have not been implemented well by the Government. According to Dua (2007), in the case of minor languages it would be pointless to guarantee them language rights without providing the facilities to satisfy their own social, cultural, administrative or political needs or interests on par with those used by the majority language communities (2007: 95). He also emphasises that language rights "need to be supplemented by the principles of equality as well as differential treatment which provide a sound ground for the maintenance of minor/majority languages as well as enrichment of multilingualism" (Dua 2007: 95).

Mahajan also points out that in India diversity is acknowledged in the Constitution and in the legal structure; however, the policy measures needed to back them up "have often fallen short of expectation" (2010: 117). For example, according to the Constitution, in areas where the population of a minority community is more than 30 per cent, then education should be provided in the language of the minority (Mahajan, 2010: 118). But, this provision has not always been implemented. One major reason for this is numbers such as 30 per cent can be easily manipulated by the State Governments. In short, it is just not enough to make provisions in the Constitution but sufficient policies need to back these provisions and make sure that these policies are also implemented well.

The Eighth Schedule (ES) as mentioned earlier (refer pg. 22) has been criticised by many like Abbi, (2000), Sarangi (2009), and Pattanayak (1995). In her criticism against ES Abbi (2000: 14)

argues that "ES was never based on the ideology of fundamental rights or on the principle of equality of opportunity nor was it based on the ideology of national integration or invasive assimilation." Furthermore she points out that, the very creation of ES was an act of discrimination by itself as a list of 14 languages (now 22) were given official status, special recognition and power from a host of over 1600 languages that were listed in the 1961 Census (Abbi, 2000:14). Therefore, in her opinion such a catergorisation "impoverishes and marginalises the other languages" (Abbi, 2000: 14). On the other hand, Sarnagi (2009) and Pattanayak (1995) question the criteria used to list the languages under ES, which is not always consistent. At times the inclusion of languages in ES seems to be based on sheer numerical majority of a language group and other times it is not considered at all, as in the case of Sanskrit and Sindhi where the number of speakers was not taken into consideration at all.

TABLE-6

An example of disparity between numbers of speakers of Major and Minor languages:

Major Indian Languages		Minor Indian Languages	
Name of the Lang.	Number of Speakers	Name of the Lang.	Number of Speakers
Sindhi	2,535,485	Bhili	9,582,957
Sanskrit	14,135	Gondi	2,713,790

(*Census India,* 2010-11)

This table once again emphasises that the categorisation of languages as Scheduled Languages (SL are the major official languages listed under Eighth Schedule) and Non-Scheduled Languages (NSL are the other languages used only for administration purposes in states) is not based on the numerical strength of a language as there can be some minor linguistic communities whose numbers exceed the numbers of some major languages. However, they are minor in terms of socio-economic power and social prestige. Pattanayak (1995) in his work on Eighth Schedule goes a step further than the others and thinks that ES should be abolished completely from the Constitution.

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As in the case of ES, when the State endorses one language community over several others that exist side by side, then the other language communities within the polity become disadvantaged (Mahajan, 2010: 118). For instance, in a multilingual country like India, administration, education, judiciary, main stream trade and commerce, and national communication networks use the languages mentioned in the ES and "only marginally employ certain other languages on the periphery and totally ignore the vast majority of Indian mother-tongues" (Abbi, 2000: 14). This kind of discrimination has often become a source of ethnic conflict at the national and state/regional level. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for the State to explore ways of "accommodating all communities as equals" and "according formal recognition to the language of minorities can be an important way of opening opportunities and giving access to valued social and economic positions in society" (Mahajan, 2010: 118).

Abbi (2000: 20) evaluating the ES points out that

> Hierarchical ordering, deliberately created by the policy makers has brought about a situation in which the demand by a language for inclusion in the ES subsumes the socio-cultural, economic and political aspirations of people belonging to different groups and regions (Gupta in Abbi, 2000: 20).

Elangiyan (2007: 104) gives a good description of the kind of hierarchy that the ES has led to in India in the following table:

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TABLE-7

Hierarchical ordering of Languages

First Tier (Official Languages of the Union)	Hindi and English	English enjoys a special status even though it is an associate official language. In spite of consistent efforts by the union to replace Hindi as the pan India official language. Even after 6 3 years of Independence English is still used in all public domains.
Second Tier	State official languages listed under ES e.g. Bengali, Tamil, Kannada etc. and Hindi due to its role as an official language in some Northern States of India e.g. Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar etc.	These languages are powerful in their respective states/regions. These languages in due course are the ones that enforce absolute compliance from all the other speech communities in their region. These are the languages that actually threaten the survival of the languages that are mentioned in the fourth tier
Third Tier	Other language communities in a state but not the official state languages because they have fewer speakers than the dominant state/regional languages. E.g. Tulu, Coorgi speakers in Karnataka state	Even though these languages only come second to the dominant state/regional language they still enjoy a special status and recognition from the State Governments because the members of these speech communities have better socioeconomic conditions and in some case a considerable literary history.
Fourth Tier	Indigenous Languages spoken by the aboriginal communities in India E.g Naga, Ho etc.	These speech communities are generally influenced by the dominant languages and cultures leading to bilingualism and multilingualism. The use of the mother tongue is generally restricted to fewer domains decreasing the opportunities for speakers to use their own mother tongue and gradually get assimilated into dominant languages if enough care is not taken by the state.

(Source Elangiyan, 2007: 104)

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4 (a) Difficulty in Defining a Minority

> The division of languages into 'major' and 'minor' is arbitrary and relative in nature; yet it has become a stark reality in the country that advertently or inadvertently adopted a language policy that is discriminatory (Abbi, 2000: 13).

As mentioned earlier, the hierarchical ordering of languages due to the ES led to the creation of majority-minority languages. Furthermore, the re-organisation of the states according to the concentration of languages in different parts of India was done in order to reduce the number of linguistic minorities and hence the obligations on the Indian Government. Even though, to some extent this did work, it also created new minorities because in spite of the linguistic re-organisation the states failed to be unilingual. In a diverse country like India minorities need to be understood within the hierarchies of caste, class, region, religion and gender relations (Sarangi, 2009: 29). According to Abbi (2000:13), the very notion of minority would give one a picture of a group of underprivileged, dominated and subservient people. Even though the Indian Constitution recognises the minorities in India by making special provisions and outlining safeguards, it has neither been able to define minority nor has it been able to provide a criteria for determining a majority (Dua, 1986: 5). Mallikarjun points out that since the Constitution of India does not define who the linguistic minorities are but provides safeguards, "the definition of linguistic minorities is generally taken for granted as a known common sense fact than a concept to be defined or identified. The definition used to identify the linguistic minorities is largely context bound" (Mallikarjun, 2004) and hence often varies.

Benedikter (2009) and Pandharipande (2002) outline two different ways of defining a minority language. According to Benedikter (2009: 47), minority languages are those languages whose speakers are numerically less in number in comparison to the majority languages spoken in that State and do not occupy a dominant position. But, in India defining minorities by numerical strength alone is not appropriate because no language in India can be called a majority language; even Hindi, the National Official Language is only spoken by around 40 per cent of the population in India (Benedikter, 2009: 47). On the other hand, Pandharipande points out that (2002:216) in India (a) a language could be powerful and at the same time a majority language, e.g. Marathi in the state of Maharashtra (b) powerless but a majority language, e.g. Kashmiri in

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the state of Jammu Kashmir (c) a minority but powerful language, e.g. English in all states (d) powerless and minority e.g. tribal languages (or indigenous languages) in all states (Pandharipande, 2002:216). So, Pandharipande (2002: 213) argues that the minority languages can be defined on the basis of their "functional load" and "functional transparency". According to her "functional load" is the ability of a language to successfully function in one or more social domains in a society. Thus, the load is considered to be higher or lower on the basis of the number of domains it covers. The higher the number of domains, the higher the load is. For instance, in India English language covers almost all the major public domains such as business, education, national and international communication, science and technology. In contrast, the tribal or the indigenous languages control only one (rapidly diminishing) domain, that of home and the regional languages cover private domains such as home, as well as public domains such as intra-state communication, education, government and law (Pandharipande, 2002: 213). The "functional transparency" on the other hand refers to the autonomy and controls that a language has in a particular domain (Pandharipande, 2002: 214). In other words "functional load" is higher if the language does not share the function with the other languages. For example, Sanskrit is most transparent to its function as a language of expressing Hinduism. Similarly, state/regional official languages are transparent to their function in State Government. Conversely, if the function is shared by other languages, the transparency is lowered and consequently the functional load is also lowered. For instance, the function of regional languages in the domain of education or business is shared by English in many states and this lowers the transparency of their function and subsequently lowers their functional load (Pandharipande, 2002: 213).

TABLE-8

The Hierarchy of Functional Load

+ functional transparency	+ number of domains	High functional load	Example: English and official regional languages
+ functional transparency	- number of domains	Higher functional load	Example: Sanskrit

(Pandharipande, 2002: 213)

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With this it can be said that there is a hierarchy of functional load and this hierarchy of languages coincides with the power hierarchy of languages. In this sense it can be concluded that minority languages are those languages that carry a lower functional load and thereby hold a lower position in the power hierarchy. Therefore, this existing hierarchy of power, including socio-political, economical power and so on, should be taken into consideration in order to define and explain the status of the minority languages (Pandharipande, 2002: 214). Furthermore, she agrees that all of the definitions of minority languages have one thing in common; that is, all the minority languages whether numerically minority or not definitely carry a "marginal functional load" or none at all in the public domains of society. Due to this, English, though numerically a minority language cannot be called a minority language because it carries a heavy functional load in the public domain (Pandharipande, 2002: 217). Therefore, the concepts of "functional load" and "functional transparency" proposed by Pandharipande (2002) provide a clear framework through which a clearer definition of a minority language can be presented apart from the apparent numerical inferiority of a language which is also taken into consideration popularly by the Indian Government.

Then who is a Minority?

Benedikter points out that, India is a mosaic of "major and minor linguistic groups and communities" (2009:56). What he means by this is that majority and minority groups or speech communities can be distinguished at different government levels like State, District, Taluk (sub-division of a District). Also, as mentioned earlier, the numerical criteria or the size of a speech community is not sufficient to describe the minority situation in India. Besides, a simple criterion of language dominance also cannot be applied in India as different languages are dominant in different domains, as well as in different geographical regions. Therefore, in such a situation both the size of the speech community and the functional load and its distribution indicating the dominance of a language must be taken into account in order to explain the status of a minority language within the multilingual Indian context (Benedikter, 2009: 57). Clearly, the complexity of such a situation makes great difficulties for anyone trying to prescribe a legal status for different languages.

For instance, it is important to note that not all languages that come under the SL have a specific territory, such as, for instance, Kannada has in the state of Karnataka or Malayalam has in the

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state of Kerala. Languages such as Sanskrit or Urdu are best examples of languages whose territorial location is unspecified. Furthermore, there are some SLs that are not the principal language of a state; for example Santhali is spoken in the states of West Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Jharkhand and Assam, although it is not the state/regional official language of any these states (Benedikter, 2009: 58). The dialects of each of these SLs enjoy special status as well (like the 48 dialects grouped under Hindi: Refer table 11). On the other hand Non-Scheduled Languages (NSLs) are all the other languages that are "qualified as languages by prominent linguistic and State institutions (Census authorities)" (Benedikter, 2009:60). According to the 2001 Census there were 100 languages under this list (refer table 2 for list of SL and NSL). In Abbi's (2009: 303-4) opinion it is these 100 NSLs and their 149 dialects along with all those numerous languages represented by less than 10,000 speakers that constitute the "minor languages" in India. She further explains that languages that occupy the lowest position in the hierarchy are those that have less than 10,000 speakers. These languages are even omitted from being reported and these are the ones that are on the verge of being linguistically lost forever. However, this doesn't mean that the status of the other minor languages i.e. the 100 NSL and their 149 dialects is any better (Abbi, 2009: 304).

TABLE-9

Hierarchical ordering by status of the Indian languages and their dialects, with those in the bottom 3 categories being most in danger.

| *English |
| SL (22) |
| Dialects of SL (69) |
| Non SL (100) |
| Dialects of Non SL (149) |
| Languages not recognized |

(Abbi, 2009: 302)

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*English occupies a special status due to its socio-economic status as well as the role it plays in education. The 22 languages and their 65 dialects are considered as prestigious (Abbi, 2009: 302)

In Development of Tribal and Minor Languages, Reddy (2000: 46) approaches the problem of the definition too, but in a slightly different manner. He points out that in India minority languages are those that are Constitutionally recognised (in this case 22 SL, see the table above) but spoken in the regions other than their respective states like Punjabi in the state of Punjab, Telugu in the state of Andhra Pradesh and so on. To put it simply, such minority languages enjoy the status of a major language in some geographical region or the other. These language communities are socio-politically and culturally dominant than the others. Therefore, the rest of the languages can be considered as minor languages as mentioned earlier by Abbi. In addition, Benedikter (2009: 57) suggests another distinction which is also useful, when a language of a minority language is spoken as an official language in any other state then it can be called a "Relative Minority". But, if a minority language is not accepted by any other state as an official language and is not a Scheduled Language then the language becomes an "Absolute Minority" (Benedikter, 2009: 57).

Most of the minor languages are spoken by the aboriginal/indigenous populations termed as "adivaasis" or "tribals" (Reddy, 2000: 46). Tribe commonly called as the Scheduled Tribe in Indian context is an administrative and legal term to label some ethnic groups based on their socio-economic status, and religious and cultural customs in order to give special attention to them as mandated by the Constitution (Annamalai in Reddy, 2000:46). The Scheduled Tribes constitute about 8 per cent of the total population or 68 million people (*Census India*, 2009-10). Article 46 refers to tribals as "weaker sections of the society". The tribal literacy rates are significantly low in comparison to that of the majority languages (47.1 which is far below the National literacy rate at 64.84). As mentioned earlier (refer table 7and 9) the tribal languages occupy the lowest position among the linguistic hierarchy. The tribal languages are not recognised as languages but rather dialects by the non tribals. Often tribals are ridiculed for using their mother tongue in the public places (Gnanasundaram and Elangaiyan, 2000: 39). Furthermore, it is the tribals who learn the dominant language and it is very rare the other way round (Ishtiaq in Gnanasundaram and Elangaiyan, 2000: 39). There is a sense of inferiority, awareness of a lowly status of their own mother tongues among the tribals and this often discourages them to declare their mother tongue (Abbi, 2000: 25) even when they use it in the

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home domain. This is quite common during the Census returns during which the tribals return Hindi or any other official regional language as their mother tongue instead (Gnanasundaram and Elangaiyan, 2000: 38).

4 (b) Use, Adaptation and Manipulation of the Constitution

Census and Representation of Minorities:

The Government, ever since Independence has always relied on whatever data that is available on linguistic diversity in order to plan and formulate policies. The best source in Indian context is the Census data which has been collected since 1881. In 'Languages in India' Bhattacharya (2002: 54), puts forth that, in a linguistically diverse country like India with over a billion speakers distributed in 28 states (including 3 more newly created states in 2000) and in 7 Union Territories, language identification is not a simple task for any government. Things get even more complicated when there is no definitive inventory of languages possessing linguistically autonomous systems recognised by the linguists. So far, most of the information relating to the languages is collected through the Census conducted by the Indian Government (Bhattacharya, 2002: 54). The latest published inventory on language was in 2001 and from this Census it can be noted that there are 22 Scheduled Languages and 100 Non-Scheduled languages and 234 identifiable mother tongues with at least 10,000 speakers in 2001 (*Census India*, 2010-11).

The information on language at all India level was collected for the first time in 1881 Census when the British Government presented statistics on language and birthplace (Bhattacharya, 2002: 54). In all, 162 languages were reported, of which 116 were Indian and 46 were foreign languages. Following the Census, Grierson proposed to the Government an overall Linguistic Survey of India (LSI) in 1887, which was finally accepted by the government in1896. However, in the meanwhile the 1891 Census took place and hundreds of mother tongue names were returned but these were reduced to 150 identifiable ones (Bhattacharya, 2002: 55). In 1901, the Census revised the number of languages from the Census 10 years earlier and reported around 147 distinct languages. From this time on until 1931 all the Censuses followed the classification proposed by the LSI. Grieson's LSI report was finally ready by 1927 and listed a total number of 179 languages and 544 dialects. In 1941, due to World War II, tabulations for language could not

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be done. The first Census after independence was conducted in 1951 but this again failed to give precise data, but in any case 781 languages including 63 Non-Indian languages were reported. Later, in 1961 information relating to languages was presented in a more systematic way (Bhattacharya, 2002: 55). This time also the Census was based on LSI and a list of 193 languages was drawn from 1652 mother tongues that were returned. The 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 Census presented mother tongue data in terms of languages but was slightly different from Grierson's method (Bhattacharya, 2002: 55). The details collected in the Census varied depending on the inquiry made on mother tongue.

The persistent inability to find anything like consistency in the estimates of languages in India is owing to a range of different survey methods and assumptions:

1. In the 1881and 1891 it was the language ordinarily spoken in the household of each person's parent.
2. In the Census conducted in 1901 it was language ordinarily used.
3. In 1911 and 1921 it was the language which each person ordinarily used at home.
4. In 1931, 1941 and in 1951 it was the language first spoken from the cradle.
5. In the 1961 it was the language spoken in childhood by the person's mother to the person, mainly spoken in the household.
6. During 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001 it was the language spoken in childhood by the person's mother to the person. If the mother died in infancy then it was the language spoken in the person's home during the childhood (Bhattacharya, 2002: 56).

The number of mother tongues listed in Census has always varied significantly in every Census. For instance, in 1961, the 1652 mother tongues that were returned were classified into 193 languages with more than 10,000 speakers, and 184 languages with fewer than 10,000 speakers. The latter were then disregarded in language planning for minority languages. By 1971 only 105 languages were recognised and in 1981 about 109 languages were recognised. Therefore, each census has served to reduce the number of minor languages (Bhattacharya, 2002: 55). The following table illustrates the variations and the consistent reduction of languages in different censuses.

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TABLE-10

Counting Languages in the Indian Censuses

Year	Returned Mother Tongues	Rationalized Mother Tongues	Number of Languages
1881			162
1891		723 (?)	150
1951		781	
1961	3,000	1652	193
1971	3,000		105
1981	7,000		109
1991	10,000	1576	114
2001			122

(Groff, 2003: 3; Bhattacharya, 2002: 55-6; *Census India*, 2010-11)

Abbi (2000: 14) is of the opinion that, "the reductionist policy" of the Government of India, with fewer languages listed each year, has left a large number of communities speaking languages that are not even listed (Abbi, 2000: 14). Furthermore, the Government also tries to fit as many languages as possible under one of the Scheduled Languages thus "creating an arbitrary cleavage between major and minor languages" (Abbi, 2000: 14). For instance, about 48 languages are grouped under Hindi therefore reducing them to mere dialects or minor languages.

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TABLE-11

1991 Census: Varieties of Hindi

Name of the language & mother tongue (s) grouped under each language	Number of persons who returned the language (and the mother tongues grouped under each) as their mother tongue.
1	2
Hindi	33,72,72,114
1	Awadhi	4,81,316
2	Bagheli/Baghelkhandi	13,87,160
3	Bagri Rajasthani	5,93,730
4	Banjari	8,87,632
5	Bharmarui/Gaddi	18,919
6	Bhojpuri	2,31,02,050
7	Braj Bhasha	85,230
8	Bundeli/Bundelkhandi	16,57,473
9	Chambeali	63,408
10	Chhattisgarhi	1,05,95,199
11	Churahi	45,107
12	Dhundhari	9,65,006
13	Garhwali	18,72,578
14	Harauti	12,35,252
15	Haryanvi	3,62,476
16	Hindi	23,34,32,285
17	Jaunsuri	96,995
18	kangri	4,87,999
19	Khariari	14,307
20	Khortha/khotta	10,49,655
21	Kulvi	1,52,442
22	Kumauni	17,17,191
23	Kurmali Thar	2,36,856
24	Labani	13,772
25	Lamani / Lambani	20,54,537
26	Laria	64,903
27	Lodhi	68,145
28	Magadhi/Magahi	1,05,66,842
29	Maithili	77,66,597
30	Malvi	29,70,103
31	Mandeali	4,40,421
32	Marwari	46,73,276
33	Mewari	21,14,622

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34	Mewati	1,02,916
35	Nagpuria	7,77,738
36	Nismadi	14,20,051
37	Pahari	21,79,832
38	Panchpargania	1,51,599
39	Pangwali	14,780
40	Pawari/Powari	2,13,874
41	Rajasthani	1,33,28,581
42	Sadan/sadri	15,69,066
43	Sonari	11,537
44	Sirmauri	18,280
45	Sondwari	37,958
46	Sugali	1,13,491
47	Surgujia	10,45,455
48	Surjapuri	3,70,558
	Others	46,42,904

(Abbi, 2000: 15-16)

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TABLE-12

The statistical representation of Hindi with other mother tongues clubbed under it.

Hindi v/s Other Languages

- 20.22
- 49.02
- 22.00
- 2.60 6.16

Legend:
- Hindi with other MTs
- Hindi Mothertongue
- Hindi Bilingual
- Hindi Trilingual
- Other Languages
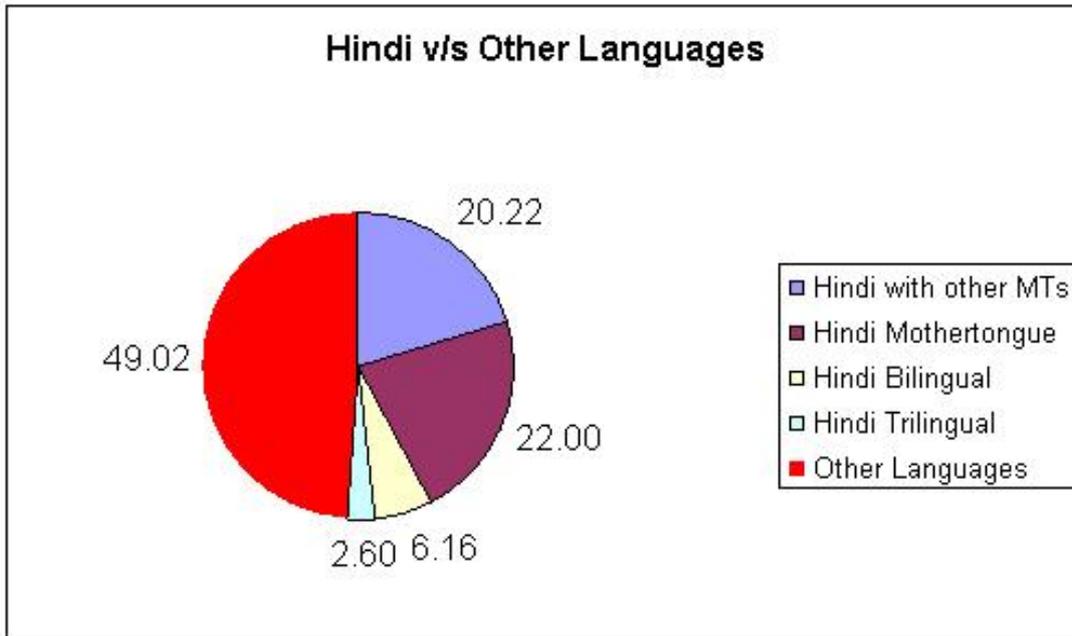
(Mallikarjun, 2004)

The graph seems to suggest that Hindi speakers form a majority of speakers in India, by classifying under Hindi all other languages whose speakers also speak Hindi as a second or third language. This is clearly manipulation of the data for political purposes. When one looks at data like this it can be said that deliberate suppression of linguistic data on the extent of Indian Multilingualism is another aspect of the linguistic diversity in India (Mahapatra, 2007:9) and the umbrella policy adopted by the government is nothing but a way of assimilating minor languages into the major ones under which they usually are labeled (Abbi, 2000: 14).

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Education and Minorities

According to Article 350 (A) it is the duty of the Nation to provide Education for Minority Communities. Dua (2007: 87) points out in Education Planning for Multilingual countries,

> From the point of view of educational planning the language-status decisions about language allocation and use in the domain of education have far-reaching consequences for developing multilingual countries. They determine not only the function, status and the development of the indigenous languages but also the pattern of communication and socio-economic and political processes of change and modernisation since patterns of language choice and use are related to distribution of knowledge resources and power in the society (Dua, 2007: 87).

In brief, the quality of educational planning and the future of multilingualism in multilingual countries depend largely on the nature and scope of decisions based on the function of languages and their use especially in the domain of education (Dua, 2007: 90).

Article 350 (A) also specifies that Education had to be provided for the two types of linguistic minorities a) speakers of a state official language who live in other states with a different official language and therefore become a minority b) speakers of minor languages like the tribal languages. The facilities for teaching in their mother tongue have to be made available for linguistic minorities as per the provisions made by the Constitution in order to accommodate them into the realm of education. The National Policy on Education, following several reports from high powered committees and conferences (such as Secondary Education Commission, 1953, Central Advisory Board of Education, 1956, The Conference of the Chief Ministers, 1961 and Education Commission 1964-66) proposed the Three Language Formula:

> The Three Language Formula (TLF) gradually developed as a national consensus duly approved by the Parliament in order to promote national integration and provide wider language choice in the school curriculum. It is an educational strategy for communication between people at the national, regional and local levels (Srivastava, 2007: 43).

The National Policy on Education also laid down the following principles of the TLF for the study of the languages in schools:

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At the Secondary stage, the State Governments should adopt, and vigorously implement, the three language formula which includes the study of a modern Indian language, preferably one of the southern languages, apart from Hindi and English in the Hindi speaking states, and of Hindi along with the regional language and English in the non-Hindi speaking states. Suitable courses in Hindi and/ or English should also be available in universities and colleges with a view to improving the proficiency of students in these languages up t the prescribed university standards (The National Policy on Education, 1968: XVII in Srivastava, 2007: 44).

Three Language Formula in Education (TLF)

The Council for Secondary Education first proposed the Three Language Formula (TLF) in 1956 and divided it into parts (Singh, 2000: 192):

i. Mother tongue, Hindi and English for non-Hindi regions

ii. Hindi, any other Indian language, and English for the Hindi regions

The main aim of TLF was to solve the problems of link language for communication and thereby promote National integration and unity. With some modifications it was accepted at the Conference of Chief Ministers of various States in 1961. According to Singh (2000: 192), "In terms of implementation of the policy, there were obvious pedagogic and curricular problems once such policy was adopted". It was severely opposed by the minor minorities whose mother tongues were different from the state language. The problem was for children who came from minor minority linguistic background; for them, it became a four language formula with their mother tongue, regional language, Hindi and English. Furthermore, in the Hindi speaking regions there was lack of motivation in learning a Dravidian language and in non-Hindi speaking states it was seen as ploy to impose Hindi (Singh, 2000: 192). Due to these reasons in 1966, the Education Commission once again reviewed and "liberalised" the formula so that by the end of the middle school, i.e. the lower secondary stage, a student will have acquired sufficient control over three languages: the mother tongue and two non-native modern languages, Hindi and English: Hindi as an official and link language, English as an associate official language as well as language for higher education and international communication. Furthermore, the individual states and Union Territories could decide whether to give Hindi a second or third language position (Singh 2000: 193).

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TABLE-13

The revised TLF proposed the length of contact years for languages as follows:

Languages to be taught under TLF	No of years to taught
Mother tongue/ Regional language	10 years
Official language (Hindi/ English)	6 years (starting from class V onwards)
Modern Languages not covered under the two	3 years minimum

(Source from Singh 2000: 193)

Drawbacks of TLF:

In the course of implementing the TLF it was interpreted differently by the states to suit their own needs and requirements. Eventually two dominant patterns of implementations emerged with regards to TLF (Viswanatham, in Koul and Devaki 2000: 121).

a) In the Non-Hindi States:

First Language	The State Language that is the mother tongue of the majority population in the state.
Second Language	Hindi/ English
Third Language	English/ Hindi

b) In the Hindi speaking States:

First Language	Hindi
Second Language	English/Urdu/ Sanskrit
Third Language	English/Urdu/ Sanskrit

(Viswanatham, in Koul and Devaki 2000: 121-2)

The most crucial problem with TLF is that even though "it takes into account the language diversity and pluri-linguistic and pluri-cultural society that India represents, yet it fails to take cognizance of various minor languages and their learning either as a subject or as a medium of

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instruction" (Abbi, 2009: 305). This invariably means that it does not provide for teaching in mother tongue for minor minority groups because it equates regional languages with mother tongues. Such languages are rejected on the basis of lack of standardised scripts and are believed to be not fully developed to become the language of education (Koul and Devaki 2000: 121). According to the Constitutional ideal, these languages should introduce children to the school and at the same time allow for their gradual transition to the regional language of their state (Srivastava, 2007:46-7). But the State Government's apathy towards these languages hinders their development and can lead to the erosion of minor languages.

Another problem was, even though it was agreed that if there are 10 students in any class or 40 students in a school who desire to learn in their mother tongue which is different from the regional language, provision for teaching in that language should be made by the State Governments (Mallikarjun, 2004). However, the State Governments, in order to cut down the costs incurred for appointing teachers, printing text books and so on, avoid their obligations by denying that the school has the required number of students, and thus they deny the right of mother tongue instruction.

> As agreed to in the Chief Ministers Conference in 1961, whenever there are 40 students in a school, or 10 in a class-room, desiring to learn in their mother tongue at the primary level, teaching will have to be done by appointing one teacher. Here normally the mother tongue of the child is different from the regional language and generally a minority language in the numerical sense (Mallikarjun, 2004).

Here, it can be noted that even though TLF was fully approved and supported by the Chief Ministers of various states; it faced severe setbacks at the time of implementation and has been uneven ever since. According to Seventh Schedule of the Constitution, the language policy formulation for education and implementation is left to the State Governments under the broad guidelines cited by Constitution. Since it is the responsibility of each State to provide for the education, each state has its own State policy for education (Mallikarjun, 2004). As a result, the duration for the compulsory study of the three languages has varied from state to state. Furthermore, the Hindi speaking states do not teach a modern Indian language, for example a southern language such as Kannada or Malayalam and substitute Sanskrit in its place even though it is a classical language. Another reason for poor execution of TLF was that the State

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Governments did not seem to be clear about, and the policy did not prescribe stages at which all the three languages had to be introduced (Mallikarjun, 2004).

The following extract from The National Curriculum Framework for School Education: A Discussion Document released on January 1, 2000, while reviewing the Three Language Formula, best summarises the setbacks of TLF mentioned above.

> In a number of states/organizations/ boards, however, the spirit of the formula has not been followed and the mother tongue of the people has been denied the status of the first language … because of the changed socio-economic scenario, the difference between the second and the third languages has dwindled. Thus, in reality, there may be two-second languages for all purposes and functions. Some states follow only a two-language formula whereas in some others classical languages like Sanskrit and Arabic are being studied in lieu of a modern Indian language. Some boards/institutions permit even European languages like French and German in place of Hindi. In this scenario, the three-language formula exists only in our curriculum documents and other policy statements (in Mallikarjun, 2004).

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TABLE-14

The Implementation of the Three Language Formula by States

State	First Language	Second Language	Third Language
1. Andhra Pradesh	Telugu, Hindi, Urdu, Kannada, Tamil, Oriya, Marathi, Gujarati, or composite courses of these languages (I-X)	For those who have not Hindi as first: Hindi For those who have not Telugu : Telugu Any other modern Indian language	English
2. Arunachal Pradesh	English	Hindi	Assamese
3. Assam	Mother tongue or regional language	English	Hindi (for Assamese mother tongue speakers) Assamese (for non-Assamese speakers)
4. Bihar	Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Oriya, Maithili, Nepali, English	English	Hindi (for not mother tongue speakers), Sanskrit, Bengali, Oriya, Urdu (for others)
5. Delhi	Hindi (or any other modern Indian language)	English	Hindi/Sanskrit
6. Goa	Marathi, Konkani, Urdu, Kannada, English, Gujarati	Marathi, Konkani, Urdu, Kannada, English, Hindi	Marathi, English, Gujarati, Konkani
7. Gujarat	Gujarati (or any other mother tongue)	Hindi	English
8. Haryana	Hindi	English	Punjabi, Sanskrit, Telugu
9. Himachal Pradesh	Hindi	English	Urdu, Telugu, Tamil
10. Jammu Kashmir	Urdu or Hindi	English	Urdu in Hindi medium school, Hindi in Urdu medium school
11. Karnataka	Kannada	Two other languages from the following: Urdu, Tamil, Telugu, Marathi, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Malayalam, Kannada	
12. Kerala	Malayalam (for minorities Kannada or Tamil)	English	Hindi
13. Madhya Pradesh	Mother Tongue	Hindi (for non-Hindi-speakers) and Sanskrit (for Hindi-speakers)	English
14. Maharashtra	Marathi	Hindi	English
15. Nagaland	Mother tongue	English	Hindi
16. Orissa	Oriya	English	Hindi
17. Punjab	Punjabi	Hindi	English
18. Rajasthan	Hindi	English	Sanskrit, Urdu, Sindhi, Bengali, Gujarati, Punjabi, Malayalam, Tamil
19. Sikkim	English	Hindi	Nepali, Tibetan, Lepcha, Limbu
20. Tamil Nadu	Tamil or mother tongue, when different from Tamil	English or any other non-Indian language	
21. Tripura	Bengali	English	Hindi, Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian etc.
22. Uttar Pradesh	Hindi	One of languages of 8th Schedule	English, modern European language
23. West Bengal	Assamese, Bengali, English, Gujarati, Hindi, Lishi, Malayalam, Marathi, Modern Tibetan, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Gurumukhi, Santhali, Telugu, Tamil, Urdu	English, if any language other than English is first language. Bengali, if English is first language	A classical language, a modern foreign language other than English, a modern Indian Language other than the first language
24. Mizoram	Mizo	English	Hindi

(Benedikter: 2009: 137-8)

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TLF also increases the burden of learning a language by the linguistic minorities whose language is not included in the educational curricula of the state. As mentioned earlier, while the students from the majority linguistic background learn three languages (or even 2 in some states because of the State Education Policy like in state of Tamil Nadu and Mizoram) students from minority linguistic background end up learning four languages including mother tongue so it becomes a 3+1 formula for the linguistic minorities (Sarangi, 2009: 34).

Finally, even with all these provisions for education in multiple languages and mother tongues promised by the Constitution, The Sixth All India Education Survey (1993) illustrates that in spite of having 122 Scheduled and Non-Scheduled Languages plus a few hundred mother tongues only 41 languages are taught as school languages and 19 of them are used as media of instruction at different levels (Mallikarjun, 2004). The following tables present the number of languages taught in school, the number of languages used as medium of instruction in schools and the list of languages taught in schools (Mallikarjun, 2004).

TABLE-15

Number of School Languages Taught as First/Second/Third Languages

All India Education Survey	Third Survey 1973	Fifth Survey 1986	Sixth Survey 1993
Number of languages	67	44	41

(Mallikarjun, 2004; Mehata, 2010)

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TABLE-16

Medium of Instruction (Number of Languages)

Stage	Fifth Survey	Sixth Survey
Primary	43	33
Upper primary	31	25
Secondary	22	21
Higher Secondary	20	18

(Mallikarjun, 2004)

TABLE-17

These are the 41 languages listed in the Sixth Survey in 1993.

Angami	Gujarati	Lotha	Punjabi
Ao	Hindi	Malayalam	Sanskrit
Arabic	Kokborok	Manipuri	Sema
Assamese	Kannada	Marathi	Tamil
Bengali	Kashmiri	Maithili	Telugu
Bhutia	Khasi	Mizo	Tibetan
Bodo	Konkani	Nepali	Urdu
Dogri	Konyak	Nicobari	Zeliang
English	Ladakhi	Oriya	
French	Lepcha	Persian	
Garo	Limbu	Portuguese	

(Mallikarjun, 2004)

Although as mentioned earlier the Constitution guarantees the use of mother tongue in Education, majority of the minor languages are not used in primary and middle schools any more. There seems to be no space for the lesser used languages in the framework of TLF (Benedikter, 2009: 149).

What does this then lead to? Abbi (2009: 306) points out that minority and minor minority communities whose languages are not considered as medium of instruction or even recognised as

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a subject to be taught will be forced either to forget their mother tongues or retain/maintain their respective mother tongues only in the home domain with increasing pressures from peer groups as well as from the seniors of the community to move over to dominant regional language for intra-community communication (2009: 306). This then often results in two kinds of submerging identities:

a) Firstly, at the State level, when speakers of a language, in the absence of their language being recognised for education purposes, try to identify themselves only at home domain

b) Secondly, the children are discouraged and at times, punished for using their mother tongues (Abbi, 2009: 307)

Public Administration and Minorities:

In India, even though not all languages are used in the public sphere there is definitely a clear distinction between the official languages (of the country) and languages used in administration (Mallikarjun, 2004). For instance, the Official Language Act of Andhra Pradesh in 1966 recognises Telugu as the Official Language for use in its territory, and also permits the use of English, Urdu, Kannada, Tamil and Oriya (but no others) for administration purposes (Mallikarjun, 2004).

Benedikter (2009: 156) summarises Article 347 of the Constitution that provides certain safeguards that govern the use of minor languages for official purposes such as:

a)   At district level and below (such as municipality, tehsil (taluk), etc.), wherever a linguistic minority constitutes between 15 to 20 per cent of the population, important Government notices, rules and other publications should also be published in minority languages.

b)   At the district level, where 60 per cent of the population in a district use a language other than the Official Language of the State, that language should be recognised as an additional official language in that district. Recognition for this purpose should ordinarily be given to the major languages mentioned in the Eighth Schedule.

c)   At the State headquarters, a translation bureau should be set up where arrangements may be made for translation and publication of the substance of important laws, rules, regulations,

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etc., into minority languages in States or districts or wherever a linguistic minority constitutes 15 to 20 per cent of the population.

d) In correspondence with the public, petitions/representations received in languages other than the Official Language should be replied to wherever possible, in the language of petition/representation. The translation and publication of important rules, regulations, notices, etc., into all languages, spoken by the least 15 per cent of the total population at district or sub district level, is provided by special "translation bureaus", provided by the States' central administration. It is up to the discretion of the respective Governments to decide whether a notice, a rule or other official publication is so important as to be translated into minority languages (Benedikter, 2009: 156).

The last sentence makes it clear how weak these provisions are. They are merely statements on paper, as pointed out by Abbi (2009: 305) in her review of the Constitutional rights for linguistic minorities. Furthermore, according to Benedikter (2009:156), all of these provisions are only declarative in nature and therefore, creates "a certain margin of discretion for the State Governments in deciding on the recognition of local official languages" (Benedikter, 2009:156). Presently the use of minority languages in the administration at district level has been largely ignored by the State governments.

Therefore even though, each State and Union Territory, including the Union Government, has declared at least one or more languages as the official languages of the state only a few languages are being used as administrative languages at the district or taluk levels (sub-division of district). In a report submitted by the National Commission for Linguistic Minorities (NCLM) it complains that, there is no machinery at the state and district levels to redress grievances in matters of the protection of linguistic minorities, and comments as follows:

> In the beginning the concern was repeatedly expressed and whenever there was a deviation, remedial steps taken. As the system evolved, attention wavered and all these concerns became commonplace. Gradually a slackening was noted and, needless to say, the implementation of the safeguards at present is not uniform over the various states. With the passing of time the priorities have changed. A general sense of apathy seems to have taken hold of the states for various reasons. Perhaps one of the reasons is growing complexity of the administration. The harassed administer is far too much occupied with fire fighting operations to take a look at the other issues which can be left alone to take care of themselves. At the

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higher level, there are other problems which are of much more urgency to them (NLCM quoted in Benedikter, 2009: 157).

In addition, very often the petitions are written by petition writers who translate everything into the official language and consequently several State Governments claim that no representations are received in minority languages (Benedikter, 2009: 157). The actual reason is that petitions in non-official languages could be just discouraged (as was alleged by some persons in Tamil Nadu and elsewhere). Moreover, even where it has been admitted that representations are received in languages different from the State Official Languages, it is said that replies are usually sent in English or the state official language. According to NCLM, a variety of reasons "which appear to be more of excuses rather than explanations, are given such as lack of equipment whereas actually it is lack of will" (NCLM in Benedikter, 2009: 157).

The NCLM also points out that whenever "a substantial number of people desire and describe a certain language to be their mother tongue, their wishes should be respected and they should be given the same treatment as other residents of the state" (NCLM in Benedikter, 2009: 157) as per the Constitutional rights. Also, it has been noticed that the safeguards are considered to be the concern of minority departments set up by the Union like welfare department or the minority education department rather than the entire administration itself. A look at the requests raised by the representatives of linguistic minorities makes their concerns evident. The followings requests were made at Union and State levels.

1) *At the level of Union:*

a) Providing a slot for broadcasting programmes in the minority language.
b) Printing the Money Order forms, railway tickets also in the language of the minority.
c) Printing voter lists and ballot papers also in the minority language.
d) Providing a postman who can read the language written in the address of certain localities where the linguistic minorities reside.
e) Avoiding delay in delivery of mail because of ignorance of the postman of the language of the address, etc. (Benedikter, 2009: 158).

2) *At the level of State:*

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a) Receipt of application in minority languages and responses in the language concerned. The NCLM reports, some Governments are reluctant to accept such applications in all the minority languages, and assert that they have difficulty in answering them in that language. Furthermore, while some States respond to the petitions in the language in which the people have signed (usually that of the petition writer), others claim that the Official State language is understood by all the residents of the State, so there cannot be any grievance. Currently only a few states agree to accept and respond to the petitions in the language of the minority.

b) Interaction with public officers in the State and district administration should be in the minority languages.

c) Posting signboards in the offices in the language of the minority. Typically when one uses any public transport service in India one could always notice that the signboards and instructions of any sort are only in any of the Official State Languages or National Languages because some Governments believe that the Official Language is understood by all (Benedikter, 2009: 158).

3) *Behaviour of the public officers:*

a) Some employees, whose mother tongue is not the minority language, should also possess a working knowledge of the minority language.

b) Officers in the office may know the language of the minority, but the clerks, who actually deal with ordinary people speaking the minority language, do not know the language of the public.

c) Officials, who are posted in areas where large number or linguistic minorities reside should have knowledge of the minority community otherwise it will not be possible for them to function properly.

d) Officials, who are in the minority regions, may not be considered for promotion in the same area, but officials from other areas, who do not know the minority language, are promoted and posted to minority areas (Benedikter, 2009: 159).

One of the major causes of concern is the lack of representation of linguistic minorities in the political sphere at state or district level in spite of repeated requests made by them to from committees (Benedikter, 2009: 159). Another cause of concern is also the issue of employment

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and recruitment into the State Employment Services. In India, in order to work in the public sector an examination must be passed at Union or state level. In the beginning, the examination does not require knowledge of the respective State's Official Language at the time of the applicant's recruitment (Benedikter, 2009: 160). The test of proficiency in the State's Official Language can be held before the completion of the probation period. Some of the requests made for recruitment into State Services are:

a) Knowledge of the State official language should not be a prerequisite for recruitment to State Services.

b) A candidate should have the option of either using Hindi or English as a medium of examination for State services, as alternative to Official language of the State.

c) In addition, the other requests included an extension of time limits to pass the departmental language examination, elimination of oral examination in the departmental language examination and lastly appointment of a proper share of linguistic minorities (Benedikter, 2009: 160).

These requests were put forth because the State Governments besides the minimal educational qualification required for the jobs, generally followed the State Language Policy in recruitment of the staff.

Bilingualism/Multilingualism-Language Shift and Language Maintenance among Linguistic Minorities in India:

In a country like India, policies like the National Language Policy, Educational Policy and so on, were all formulated in order to accommodate diversity and harness multilingualism. These policies have however, led to a functional relation which is not linear but rather hierarchical in nature (Srivastava, 2007: 42). As a result, the speakers of Scheduled Languages enjoy a special status that has been bestowed on them while minor minority and minority linguistic groups are forced to acquire the Official (National or state) languages in order to gain access to the modern institutional spaces. According to Mahajan (2010:111), in developing countries like India, identities can be mobilised in order to gain access to valued social and economic goods on one hand. But, at the same time on the other hand minor minority and minority language

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communities might also strive for "revivalism" and "revitalization" in order to establish an independent identity despite other multilingual factors that try to influence and motivate these speakers to shift to dominant state/regional languages (Abbi, 2000: 23). Therefore, it can be seen that both retention and shift co-exist within the same language group. Abbi, also points out that even though language shift is a common phenomenon among the minority communities it does not have a uniform pattern all over India (Abbi, 2000: 23). For instance, the tribals of Dravidian language family seem to manage shift easily, while the Tibeto-Burman family put up with a considerable resistance. The incidence of retention among the Tibeto-Burman could be due to the self-sufficient economic structure and also the absence of dominance of a particular regional language group (Abbi, 2000: 23). The following table presents the per centage of Language Shift among the Tribals.

TABLE-18

Language Shift among Tribals in Various States

Less than 1%	Sikkim, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Andaman and Nicobar
1-10%	Jammu and Kashmir
10-20%	Bihar
20-40%	Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Assam
40-80%	Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh
More than 80%	Gujarat, Kerala, Tamilnadu, Lakshadweep, Uttar Pradesh, Goa, Diu, Daman

(Abbi, 2000: 24)

In addition Abbi (2000:24) points out that,

> The people of minority communities live in perpetual state of bi/multilingualism, with the result that these communities are always at a higher level on the 'scale of bilingualism proficiency' than their dominant majority communities. The contact-induced changes in such minority languages lead to typological homogeneity on the one hand, and to a tendency of language attrition on the other. In the tug of war between language maintenance (retention of ancestral language) and language proficiency in the dominant/contact languages/s the tribal languages have begun passing through a transition period of language change and language convergence,

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postponing or avoiding the expected language obsolescence situation (Abbi, 2000:24).

This has resulted in language loss and shift on one hand and language maintenance on the other. This kind of a paradoxical situation according to Abbi (2000: 24) is more visible in the urban area than in rural area maybe because the motivation to shift language is much stronger in the urban areas as a result of extensive contact and the prestige attached to the contact language (Abbi, 2000:24).

Gnanasundram and Elangaiyan (2000: 31) note the Linguistic and Non-Linguistic factors that contribute in Language shift:

Linguistic factors:

a) Stylistic shrinkage that is from Polystylism to Monostylism
b) Frequent code switching
c) Pidginisation
d) Limited Vocabulary
e) Literary

Non-Linguistic factors:

a) Population size
b) Setting of the speaker
c) Institutional support
d) Economic factor
e) Political factor
f) Self esteem of the group

Abbi (2000:25) also examines the causes of language shift and maintenance. An in depth study undertaken by her on some linguistic minority communities like Kurux in 1991 and1994 indicate that these minority languages go through a process of "language shrink", "language contraction" and "language conflation" simultaneously (Abbi, 2000: 25).

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a) Language Shrink: It is associated with gratuitous borrowing, replacement of basic vocabulary, simplification of linguistic structures, reduction or loss of tradition/indigenous morphological and syntactic structures.

b) Language Contraction is associated with reduction in the use of, and number of speakers of the language. The former refers to the reduction of domains and contexts of language use.

c) Language conflation is associated with expansion of lexical items borrowed or adopted, borrowing of linguistic structures not existing earlier, filling semantic voids by new structures.

The depleting socio-economic conditions have led several tribal languages to either shrink or contract. But, the same factors when coupled with pressures like domination of regional language and a sense of "community identity" have contributed in minority languages conflating (Abbi, 2000:25).

Scripts and Minority Languages:

Choice of scripts in minority languages also effects how widely they can be easily taught or well recognised. Some languages, of course, are not written at all, and some are written in different scripts, often suggesting different political allegiances. Most scripts are derivatives of Brahmi, Arabic and Roman resulting in 10 major scripts namely Nagari, Perso-Arabic, Gurumukhi, Gujarati, Bengali-Assami-Manipuri, Oriya, Telugu-Kannada, Tamil, Malayalam, Roman. In a few cases of alphabetisation, entire new scripts were invented to write languages and some languages continue to be written in more than one script (Benedikter, 2009: 52). For instance, Sindhi which could be written in either using the Devanagari or Perso-Arabic script, Konkani can be written in Devanagari, Kannada, Malayalam or Roman scripts. So the language scenario in India according to Bhattacharya can be summarised as follows:

a) There are a number of languages without a written equivalent.
b) Languages that have only recently acquired it.
c) Those with a long standing written traditions and
d) The languages/dialects that once had a written tradition but subsequently dialectalised (Bhattacharya, 2002: 65).

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Sarangi (2009:32) points out that the question of choice of a script has been very contentious in India as the speakers of a linguistic community identify themselves "with specific scripts as symbolic of their historical, cultural and religious identifications" (Sarangi, 2009: 32). It is noticed that minority languages that have recently adopted a script largely favoured Devanagari (script used to write Hindi) while some others have adopted other major scripts. The reason for favouring major scripts by the linguistic minority communities is because these have advantages of being well-established scripts with "technological equipment" already in place (Benedikter, 2009: 53). But nevertheless, acceptance of a major script can also be considered as another form of political domination too (Sarangi, 2009: 31).

Media and Minority languages:

TV and Radio Broadcasting

In India there is no connection between education and the use of languages in Media. For example, news and programmes are broadcast in Tangsa, Noote, Indu-Mishmi and so on in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and Kulvi, Bilaspuri, Kangri and others in the state of Himachal Pradesh but none of them are used in education (Benedikter, 2009: 163). On the other hand, in some cases minority languages are used in education but not in broadcasting. Furthermore, Benedikter (2009: 163) points out that media coverage is not provided to the minority languages on a large scale. This is because, firstly, the key personnel in the production are more likely to be drawn from the majority communities rather than from the minority interests; and this implies that majority attitude and values are likely to get prominence rather than minority interests; and secondly, the news and programmes broadcast in minority languages are over-shadowed by programmes in the majority languages. A sociolinguistic survey conducted in the state of Himachal Pradesh showed that minority dialect speakers have less preference for programmes in their mother tongue than for programs in Hindi.

"All India Radio" (AIR) is a government funded radio broadcasting service that covers all of India with an objective to spread information and culture to illiterate people (Benedikter, 2009: 165). According to the official AIR website, it only covers 24 Languages and 146 dialects in home services (*All India Radio*, 2006). However, the 2001 Census reported that there are a total of 122 languages and 234 mother tongues (*Census India*, 2010-11). This again goes on to show that minority languages are ignored even in radio broadcasting too.

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Print Media

In India there is no bar on starting newspapers or periodicals in any language in the country. According to the 2002 Survey newspapers and periodicals were published in 101 languages (Mallikarjun, 2004). One aspect of this that is very interesting is the number of publications in foreign languages, which include German, Arabic, French, Greek, Spanish, Chinese, Latin Esperanto and so on.

The main problem is that resources for running newspapers which are available for majority groups are hardly available to minority groups. The support from the governments is scanty and inadequate (Benedikter, 2009: 164). Another problem is the mass circulation of minority papers is a rare phenomenon. For instance, among newspapers printed in 42 languages other than the languages of the Eighth Schedule, the circulation of dailies, weeklies, monthlies and others in 1976 did not exceed 3,000 copies each, except in the case of Manipuri, Khasi, Nepali, Konkani and Lushani (Dua in Benedikter, 2009: 164). Furthermore, the educated minorities do not subscribe to the minority papers as their needs and interest are not catered for by the limited range of topics covered. Moreover, the minority papers cannot compete with the papers in majority languages in terms of coverage of topics and circulation there by making them naturally prefer a newspaper in another language (Benedikter, 2009: 164).

Information Technology and Minority languages:

Mallikarjun (2004), points out that in India one can find division of people based on ethnicity, language, religion, region, social identity, rural/urban, literate/illiterate and so on. In his opinion, one more important division can be included under this list is "Digital Divide" (Mallikarjun, 2004), which refers to "the disparity in access to information, skills, means and facilities" (Benedikter, 2009: 167). The computer in India is still associated with the elite and not the ordinary citizen. The computer technology projects undertaken by the national government have never sought to penetrate beyond the Scheduled Languages. However, even within the Scheduled Languages it has not benefited them equally. There are presently over one thousand or so projects for extending the use of computer technology but out of these projects nothing is known about the digital resources allocated for minor minorities (Mallikarjun, 2004). Furthermore, localisation of software in a few languages is again a process of digital empowerment which tends towards

the promotion of more dominant languages due to immense political pressure (Benedikter, 2009:167).

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Chapter 5

Conclusion

> "Language, sooner or later, proves to be a thorn in the flesh of all who govern,
> whether at national or local level" (David Crystal 1987: 364)

It was speculated that linguistic diversity would lead to a breakup of India in the 1960's and 1970's because it was believed by many political analysts that such a linguistically diverse environment, and the political and religious division which it both mirrored and encouraged would overwhelm any unifying sense of nationhood (Mahajan, 2010: 112). It was believed that political compromises (such as the Linguistic Re-organisation of the states) provided only a "thin sort of unity" to groups (Brown in Sarangi, 2009: 13). If the pessimistic predictions of the analysts have been proven wrong it is only because the presence of diversity has not only been acknowledged but deeply valued by the Indian government (Mahajan, 2010: 112).

Although the framers of the Constitution of India always intended to make room for all of its linguistically, religiously and ethnically diverse communities and to make special provisions related to language (Mahajan, 2010: 112), the initial proposition to promote Hindi as a National Language was not only unpopular but dangerous (leading to many riots) because many people in the south and other parts of India believed that it would impose on them a northern identity. The government responded by modifying the National Language Policy. Hindi was made an "Official" rather than the National Language; English was made an Associate Official Language; and other regional languages were given official language status in order for them to exist equally along with the other two official languages (Amrithavalli and Jayasheelan, 2007: 81). The Linguistic Re-organisation of states into linguistic entities was another step towards promoting and maintaining linguistic diversity, so that linguistic minorities should be offered

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opportunities for political and economic growth with no feeling of discrimination or neglect (Sengupta, 2009: 19). Another initiative (a result of many years of planning) was the Three Language Formula (TLF) in education, devised in order to encourage and preserve linguistic diversity by providing linguistic minorities means to acquire link languages and also to guarantee them the right to education in their own mother tongue. Therefore, it can be concluded that formulation of rights and provisions in the Constitution, formation of states on the linguistic principle and also the formulation of the education policy were all at least moderately sucessful attempts by the Indian government to ensure effective integration of linguistic minorities into the mainstream by guaranteeing them equal rights.

However, the overall success has been mixed. Certainly those measures have helped to preserve the integrity of the Indian nation, though not everyone is happy, and they have not helped the smaller minorities, i.e. the speakers of the Non-Scheduled Languages. The Linguistic Re-organisation of the states has become an ongoing process ever since Independence as demands for new states seems to be never-ending by large number of linguistic minorities, who can be found in all states despite the Linguistic Re-organisation. In addition, the very creation of states, based on language, has led to a few linguistic communities gaining the status of "majority" while leaving many others unrepresented. The new majorities have received special privileges, but that has simply resulted in other languages continuing to be disregarded minorities, as always. Further, in spite of having a noble and ambitious education policy in place which is inclusive in nature and at the same time guarantees the right to education in the child's mother tongue, the policy is not always implemented and is consistently ignored in practice. As Ambedkar (the head of the Colossal Committee that formulated the Constitution) pointed out, the provisions impose "no burden upon the Sate" (Ambedkar in Austin, 2009: 69) to implement them, so states are unable or unwilling to formally recognise their internal diversity. One strategy to avoid recognising minority languages is simply to assimilate them to the majority when returning Census results or implementing the TLF in education.

> A coordinated mechanism has to be created which needs to operate at the level of both the centre and states with clearly delineated roles for the two-tiers of government. The state governments also have to show greater initiative in evolving targeted and effective programs that encourage greater involvement of local governments in each state (Sengupta, 2010: 19).

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But the question is whether there is any political will in creating such a mechanism. As if to prove this point, when the issue of 196 languages listed as endangered by UNESCO was brought up in the Assembly, the Human Resource Development (HRD) Minister of the State brushed aside the issue by saying that these languages were not even recognised as languages in the 2001 Census report (Singh, 2010). But in fact, the Atlas provided 2001 Census figures for many of the languages listed (if not all, as Census reports languages only with at least 10,000 speakers). Further, in a show of magnanimity, the minister mentioned that the Central Institute of Indian Languages, which functions under the HRD Ministry, had been meticulously documenting and digitally recording several of these imperiled languages (the CIIL was constituted in 1969 with the primary aim to develop and promote Indian languages) (Singh, 2010). Ironically enough, this is what the Head of Centre for Tribal and Endangered Languages CIIL said: "We don't go by the UNESCO atlas….We (CIIL) make a distinction between language and mother tongue" (quoted in Ali, 2009). When further questioned then whether the government would just sit back and watch these languages die, the Head was quick to respond by saying that "Government does intervene if [sic] language dies by making people realize that their language is important" (quoted in Ali, 2009). He also added that such languages are equipped with a script and dictionaries by CIIL in such cases. In brief, Ali (2009) sums up the government's attitude towards these minor minority languages or so called tribal languages in Indian context as follows:

> First the government refuses to recognize mother tongues as languages or labels them as 'dialects' of non-scheduled or scheduled languages. The same government then goes into a state, like Arunachal Pradesh, with 64% tribal population, institutes its own languages, provides token tribal languages in schools, fails at this, and instills a sense of inferiority in tribal communities. When the latter are ready to accept Hindi or English, the so-called 'languages of prestige', it acts with malevolent benevolence, saying, "No, even your language is important" (Ali, 2009).

If this is the plight of the minor minority languages the following episode illustrates the state of the other minority languages. Recently, in November 2009, a Member of the Legislative Assembly (MLA) was slapped and manhandled in Maharashtra by a few Assembly members for taking an oath in Hindi instead of the state language Marathi. The MLA who slapped him justified his actions by commenting that the victim's insistence of taking an oath in Hindi showed his lack of respect for the regional language and its people. The whole episode is believed to be instigated by Maharashtra Navnirman Sena (MNS) party leader who is famous

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(or rather infamous) for his anti-north Indian stance (North Indian states are predominately Hindi states) that had led to major riots in 2008 (*The Times of India*, 2008).

This is a partial illustration of the current state of affairs in India where language is almost always political. Despite these shortcomings one cannot stop but wonder how India has managed to thrive as a strong Nation State. The answer lies in the ability and also the willingness of the Indian government to adapt and recognise the variation that exists in its population. In addition, both officially and privately, much tolerance is shown towards all language groups (Amrithavalli and Jayasheelan, 2007: 82). However, it can be concluded that although India seems destined to continue as a nation, living with language tensions is part of being Indian.

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A Speech Act Analysis of *Jane Eyre*

Zuliati Rohmah, Ph.D.

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Abstract

Jane Eyre is positively a work of imagination although reality provided Charlotte Bronte with plentiful raw materials. The author expresses her messages, especially, to how a woman should act in her society, through Jane Eyre, the heroin. This paper makes an attempt to trace Jane's acts through her speeches from which her character can be drawn.

Searle's theory of speech act is used in the analysis. Five kinds of illocutionary act proposed by Searle, representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations, appear in Jane's speeches to Mr. Rochester, her master, with representatives as the most frequent acts. Jane's speeches reflect her honesty combined with upright intellectuality, sympathy, and generosity, patience, excellently furnished with a strong mental power, and desire to keep self-respect as well as to maintain her independence. Jane's speeches are not typical of women's speeches as those mentioned by Holmes, who analyzed the women's talk in work places (Holmes 2000).

Key words: Jane Eyre, speech act.

Questioning the Institution of Marriage

Jane Eyre is one of Charlotte Bronte's novels. Bronte drew extensively on her own experience in the novel. Like Jane, she was motherless; her mother died when she was five. Similar to Jane, she, at the age of five, was sent to a charity school run by an evangelical minister. Helen Burn is a portrait of Maria Bronte, Charlott's oldest sister and surrogate mother, who died of tuberculosis in February 1825 after being tormented at school as much as Helen is tormented. Similar to Jane, Charlotte taught in the school and subsequently took a job as a governess. The same as Jane, she was to fall in love with her employer, a married man. Bherta Mason, a mad character in her novel, is modeled from her brother, Branwell, an alcoholic and opium addict, whose condition prevented Bronte from receiving visitors.

As a novel, *Jane Eyre* questions the institution of marriage, like what is said by Mr. Rochester who feels cheated in his marriage. He wants to replace his mad wife with a new one who has a normal human quality. "…You shall see what sort of a being I was cheated to espousing, and the judge whether or not I had a right to break the compact, and seek sympathy with something at least human" (Bronte, 1991:69)

On Social and Religious Conventions

The novel also contains stalk of laughter to religious practices and beliefs and suggest that even sincere religious conviction is extreme and, even, unproductive. The practice in

Christianity where married people are never allowed to make a separation, no matter inextricable the condition of the marriage is, is criticized by displaying Rochester's depression in sorrow which remains unresolved. In the novel, too, St. John's character as a clergyman is not respected as it is frequently done by most people in real life. This is reflected in Jane's judgment of him (Bronte, 1991:272).

Proclamation of Equality

Besides, it proclaims the equality of a governess and a gentleman, Jane Eyre and Mr. Rochester.

> You think wrong!—I have as much soul as you—and full as much heart! And if God had gifted me with some beauty, a much wealth, I should have made it as hard for you to leave me as it is now for me to leave you. ….— it is my spirit that addresses your spirit; just as if both have passed through the grave, and we stood at God's feet, equal—as we are (Bronte, 1991:17-18).

Jane's statement proves right at the end the novel in which Jane becomes equally rich as Mr. Rochester does. "…I am an independent woman now. … My uncle in Madeira is dead, and he left me five thousand pounds. … quite rich, sir" (Bronte, 1991:260).

The Heroine

Jane Eyre is also the main character of the novel; thus, the novel is named after the heroine. When she was a child, she was rebellious, unruly, unreligious, yet, honest. As a grown up lady, she becomes more forgiving, has self-respect, and is able to control herself. She follows reasons instead of feelings. She can control her emotion, yet, she is still frank and straight. She wants independence, she wants money of her own, she wants to work for her imagination and intellectuality, she wants a house with beloved people in it, and, moreover, she wants liberty and power. Above all, she wants to be herself.

Focus of This Paper – Speech Acts and Description of Character

This paper traces the speeches of Jane Eyre as a woman character. The writer is interested in knowing woman's personality seen from the light of her speeches. The analysis of the speech act is mainly based on Searle's theory of speech acts.

Prior to Searle, Austin classified utterances into: verdictives, exercitives, comissives, behavities, and expositives. This classification of utterances based on their illocutionary force,

however, is criticized by Searle (2001:155) who points out that Austin's classification is not for illocutionary acts, but English illocutionary verbs. Furthermore, Searle (2001:156) examines that there are, at least, six points that make Austin's classification problematic: there is a continual confusion between verbs and acts, not all of the verbs are illocutionary verbs, there is too much heterogeneity within the classifications, many of the verbs listed in the categories do not satisfy the definition given for the category, and the most important thing, there is no constant principle of categorization. This is actually also felt by Austin himself when he says, "…but I am far from equally happy about all of them" (Austin, 1975:151)

Searle's Macro-classes

Based on his evaluation on Austin's classification, Searle (2001:156-160) proposes five macro-classes of illocutionary acts: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations that he has mentioned in his book previously published (Searle, 1969). The classification is based on three criteria: (1) in the way in which the speech acts fit words to the world, (2) in terms of the psychological state the speech acts express, and (3) in terms of point or purpose of the speech acts.

This study is partly aimed to describe the woman's enthusiasm in struggling to achieve her desire to live respectfully in the 19 century. This analysis is intended to uncover whether the customary view of females' speeches which are characterized as being indirect, conciliatory, facilitative, elaborative, getting some difficulties in taking turns, person-oriented, and affectively oriented as suggested by Holmes (1999:3)might be found in Jane's speeches.

Methodology

This study applied Conversational Analysis (hereafter, CA). CA was used to describe Jane's speeches in the novel. With CA, the researcher tried to find kinds of acts performed by Jane which is reflected from her speeches. This is done through detailed examination of the turn-taking and sequential structure of Jane's communication in the novel (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Heritage & Atkinson, 1984; Hutchby & Wooffit, 1998; Levinson, 1983; Sack, 1984; Schegloff, 1984; Wei, 2002). However, not all of Jane's speeches are displayed in this article; the researcher only focuses on Jane's speeches directed to Mr. Rochester, Jane's master. There are thirteen chapters out of thirty eight chapters that contain Jane's speeches to her master.

The analysis of the data is done by applying the theory of speech acts developed by Searle (1969 & 2001) and Austin (1975). The analysis was especially done by examining whether Searle's five macro-classes of illocutionary acts, that is, assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations (2001:156-160) exist in Jane's speeches to Mr. Rochester. The

analysis reveals the characteristic of the woman's speeches directed to a man of a higher status.

Results

Based on the analysis using Searle's five macro-classes of illocutionary acts (1969 & 2001), it is found that Jane performs the five illocutionary acts in her speeches to her master. The five illocutionary acts of Jane are described subsequently in the following parts.

Representatives

Representatives commit the speaker to the truth expressed by the speaker. In other words, representatives are utterances which contain the speakers' attempt to fit his words to the world and which incorporates his/her beliefs in what s/he speaks. Representatives range from 'swear', 'suggest', 'conclude', and 'hypothesize'.

Representatives can be found in Jane's speeches as the most frequently employed feature. For example, in a response to Mr. Rochester's question whether Jane keeps conventional forms and phrases, Jane shows her belief, "I am <u>sure</u> Sir, I should never mistake informality for insolence: one I rather like, the other nothing free born would submit to, even to a salary" (Bronte, 1991:172). Also, when she shows how she distinguishes between a guide and a seducer, "I judge by your countenance, sir; which was troubled: when you said the suggestion had returned upon you. I feel <u>sure</u> it will work you more misery if you listen to it" (Bronte, 1991:175).

The aim of the discourse is to commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition that is that her belief that the two, in the two cases above, are different. The degree of the belief is relatively strong, evidenced by the expression 'I am sure', 'I feel sure'. The differences in the status and experiences, those between the governess and the master, an inexperienced young girl and a mature man who has visited half of the world, do not prevent her from stating her own belief and state of mind even though hers are in a contradictory to his. The repetition of the argumentation in the rest of the novel, in addition to what have been stated above, shows her personality and the level of her intellectuality.

Directives

Directives refer to the attempts made by the speaker to get the addressee to do something. In this group, the speaker wants to achieve a future situation in which the world will match his words. This group includes 'ordering', 'requesting', inviting', 'challenging', and some other

acts. Directives which can be found in the novel are asking questions, requesting, wanting, ordering and encouraging.

Questions are asked in many places, both when Jane is just a new employee of Mr. Rochester and when she becomes his lover. The following two subsequent examples of Jane's questions show her unburdened mind facing the new boss, "How was your memory when you are eighteen, sir?" "How do you know—how can you guess all this, sir?" (Bronte, 1991:173-174).

The next are Jane's questions at Rochester's lover, "Shall I travel?—and with you, sir?" "Yet, are not capricious, sir?" "Had you ever experienced of such a character, sir?" "Do you ever love such an one, sir?" "But before me: if I indeed, in any respect come up to that difficult standard?" (Bronte, 1991:26-27). "Why did you take such pains to make me believe you wished to marry Miss Ingram?" "Of course, I did. But, to the point, if you pleased, sir,--Miss. Ingram?" "Did you think nothing of Miss Ingram's feelings, sir?" "Do you think Miss Ingram will not suffer from your dishonest coquetry? Won't she feel forsaken and deserted?" "Once again, seriously, may I enjoy the great good that has been vouched saved to me, without fearing that anyone else is suffering the bitter pain I myself felt a while ago" (Bronte, 1991:29-30).

All the questions cited above do not contain any illocutionary force indicating device, such as, 'ask', 'question', 'enquiry', interrogate', and 'seek information'. However, from the purpose, direction of the fit between words and the world and the psychological state expressed, I conclude that those all are included in the directives, especially, asking questions. Jane's act of giving questions rebounds her critical thinking, respect, consideration, and concern over Miss. Ingram who, to her mind, might suffer from Mr. Rochester's desertion.

Requesting is another directive occurring in the novel. "Not all that, sir; I ask only this: don't sent for jewels, and don't crown me with roses: you might as well put border of gold lace round that plain pocket handkerchief you have there" (Bronte, 1991:28). "Adele may accompany us, may she not, sir?" "Do let her go, Mr. Rochester, if you please: it would be better." "I would rather she went, sir" (Bronte, 1991:34).

In all the above speeches, Jane believes that Mr. Rochester can do what she requests him to do, but it is not obvious for her whether he will do that without being requested. In the first instance, Jane really wants him not to dress her like a doll with jewels and rose crown. The second instances show how Jane wants Adele to go with them to town. Realizing her intention, he makes requests to Mr. Rochester, her lover at the moment.

The next directives found are personal need or desire statement. "I only want an easy mind, sir; not crushed by crowded obligation" (Bronte, 1991:39). "I wanted you; but don't boast…."

(Bronte, 1991:50) Jane states her desire so that Rochester can help her by not forcing his own zeal at Jane and by letting her do the roles she wants to perform. She would rather not accept Rochester's gift of diamond and chasmere as those he gave to his previous mistress. She rejects fine pride cloth and jewels offered by Mr. Rochester. She even wants to earn her own board and lodging by becoming Adele's governess with thirty pounds a year. It is clear that Jane wants to be herself and a master of her own self.

Ordering as another kind of directives can be found in the following cases. "Distrust it, sir; it is not a true angel" (Bronte, 1991:175). "Communicate your intension to Mrs. Fairfax, sir: she saw me with you last night in the hall, and she was shocked. Give her some explanation before I see her again. It pains me to be misjudged by so good a woman" (Bronte, 1991:31).

Normally, giving order can only be done by those who are of higher status than or, at least, of the same status as the listener. In this case, however, a woman of a lower status gives an order to the master since the condition allows her to do so. In the first quotation, they are involved in an intents discussion so that both parties state their argument as though they are of an equal position and neglect their original status as employer and employee. In the second case, she makes such an act as his lover that emphasizes more on the equality.

Lastly, another directive, that is, encouraging, can also be found in the speeches of Jane Eyre.

> "… You said you're not as good as you should like to be, and that you regretted your own imperfection…. It seems to me that if you tried hard you would in time find it possible to become what you yourself would approve; and if from this day you began with resolution to correct your thought and action you would in few years have laid up a new and stainless stall of recollection, to which you might revert with pleasure" (Bronte, 1991:175-176).

Again, Jane who is in the lower status gives support to his master, who in turn, gives a praise to her as follows, "Justly thought; rightly said, Miss. Eyre…."

The fact that so many directives to be found there, in their varying degrees, gives underlined message to the reader about Jane's, as well as Mr. Rochester's personality. Jane has a good self-confidence, she has a simple thought, yet mature; and, her attitude is logical and direct. Meanwhile, Mr. Rochester is a man of higher status but willing to listen to his subordinate.

Commissives

Commissives are, just like directives, concerned with changing the world to match the words, only that in these acts the speaker commits himself/herself to do the actions. Thus, commissives appoint the speaker to some future course of action; therefore, it necessarily involves the intention of the speaker. The examples of commissives are promising, threatening, and offering. Although the three can be found in Jane Eyre's speeches, the number is small.

The first kind of commissives found in Jane's speeches is promising. Promising occurs when Jane says that she will perform a future action in which she believes she can do it. Jane promises when she thinks that her master wants her to do the action that she feels obliged to perform. Jane's promise can be found in the following utterances, "… now that I know she is, in a sense, parentless—forsaken by her mother and disowned by you, sir—I shall cling closer to her than before…" (Bronte, 1991:186). The promise is uttered when Mr. Rochester shows his fear if Jane will leave Adele after knowing her background. Through her promise, Jane reveals her character of a fairy. She more deeply sympathizes with Adele once she has learned of her background.

Another promise is performed when Mr. Rochester expresses his disappointment of being left by Jane for the second time and forever, and when he asks her whether she will stay with him. "Which I never will, sir, from this day." "Certainly—unless you object. I will be your neighbor, your nurse, your housekeeper. I find you lonely: I will be your companion…." (Bronte, 1991:259-260). In such actions, Jane allocates herself to do the actions she mentioned. This promise, again, underlines Mr. Rochester's statement that Jane was an angle. This elf-theme runs throughout the book.

Threatening as another commissive can be found in Jane's speeches. "You need not look in that way, if you do, I'll wear nothing but by old Lowood frocks to the end of the chapter…" (Bronte, 1991:38). In the citation above, Jane mentions that she will not do an action not intended by her master, in the case that the master does not follow her direction.

In addition to promising and threatening, Jane also performs the act of offering. In her early encounter with Mr. Rochester, Jane made an offer to help the master, "Are you injured, sir. Can I do anything?" (Bronte, 1991:143). Also, when Mr. Rochester is shocked severally by Mason's presence in Thornfield Hall, Jane offers her shoulder to him. "Oh!—lean on me, sir!" "Can I help you, sir?—I give my life to serve you. … Thank you, sir; tell me what to do—I'll try, at least, to do it" (Bronte, 1991:263). Her willingness to extend help reflects her genuine character which always sympathizes those who are in need.

Expressives

Expressives are the acts which express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content. The examples of this group of acts are 'thanking', 'apologizing', 'greeting', 'parting', 'welcoming', 'congratulating' and 'deploring'. In Jane's speeches, however, only 'apologizing', 'thanking', 'greeting', and, 'parting' appear.

Jane's apology appears in the following expressions, "Sir, I was too plain: I beg your pardon. I ought to have replied that it was not easy to give an impromptu answer to a question about appearances…" (Bronte, 1991:167). It is stated after Jane gives a quite frank answer to Rochester's question whether he is handsome; and she replies, "No, sir." Besides, thanking emerges in Jane's speeches when he values her offer, "Thank you, sir; tell me what to do—I'll try, at least, to do it" (Bronte, 1991:263).

Next is greeting. The greeting shown in Jane's speeches is not the formal one, but rather, a combination of words showing her presence in her master's surrounding. "It is a bright, sunny morning, sir. The rain is over and gone, and there is a tender shining after it: you shall have a walk soon" (Bronte, 1991:266). By saying so, Jane intends to show that she is close to her master, and that she comes cheerfully. Moreover, farewell is expressed to mark the parting. "Good night, then, sir. … Good night, again, sir. There is no debt, benefit, burden, obligation, in the case" (Bronte, 1991:193-194). "Farewell, Mr. Rochester, for the present" (Bronte, 1991:292). Hence, the farewell is expressed more formally than the greetings cited before.

Declarations

Finally, *declarations* are the acts containing utterances that are intended to alter the world. Declarations give an effect of immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions. Including in this group are 'defining,' 'abbreviating', 'naming,' 'calling' and 'christening'.

The declaration which can be seen in Jane's speech here is Jane's answer to Mr. Rochester's request to Jane to accept him and to marry him. "Then, sir, I will marry you" (Bronte, 1991:20). After Jane utters the words, their relationship is entirely changing. They become two lovers; they are engaged. The implication is clear—Mr. Rochester states his dream and plan flagrantly to Jane, holds Jane's hands, and also intends to give Jane all things which are of expensive value and taste: jewels, diamonds, cashmeres, which are, in fact, refused by Jane.

Discussion

As reflected in her speeches, Jane performs Searle's five kinds of illocutionary acts that disclose many interesting aspects of her characters. Jane prefers brusque, honesty to facile flattery. Mr. Rochester's attention and questions as well as Jane's questions demonstrate that she cannot be won by flattery, nor she will flatter. She gives sharp answers when she was asked foolish questions. She tells him that he is erroneous.

Jane's promise to be closer to Adele, after hearing the child's background and after realizing that Mr. Rochester kindness to her is impersonal reveals the generous nature; Jane is generous in her thought that Miss. Ingram might feel hurt by Mr. Rochester's abandonment. Jane's character is in contrast to that of Blanche Ingram who is beautiful, bold and shallow. Jane is poor, plain, and, passionate. However, Jane has a moral vigor which invites Mr. Rochester to lean on her in every emergency.

Jane's self-respect and desire for her independence allow her to refuse capricious jewels and garment. Instead of receiving Rochester's jewels and cashmere, she writes to her own uncle, John, in Madeira to ask for heritance. Also, she does not give in to Mr. Rochester's sentimental speeches, nor does she kiss him or dine with him before the marriage comes to their life. She wants love and happiness more than anything else, but she does not expect it to come from money.

Jane's speeches are not typical of women's speeches as those identified and documented by Holmes. Holmes (2000) summarizes women's styles as indirect, conciliatory, facilitative, collaborative, talking less than men, having difficulty getting a turn, person-oriented, and affectively oriented as opposed to men's styles which are being direct, aggressive, competitive, autonomous, dominating, interrupting aggressively, task oriented, and referentially oriented.

Holmes' Analysis of Women's Talk and Jane's Speech

Women's style described by Holmes is contradictory to Jane's utterances which are frank and straight, coming from her strong reasoning. Jane's speeches are sympathetic which shows generosity and concern. Jane's expressions are clear and direct, coming from her life principles heavily loaded with self-respect and desire to be independent. Jane's spirit is strong since the first encounter of the novel and remains strong throughout the story.

The writer of the novel, Charlotte Bronte, suggests that a woman with strong spirit uses her reasoning as strong as her affection, speak clearly and frankly, and act independently. This elevates her stature much higher than common women's.

Closing Remark

Charlotte Bronte portrays Jane's character to represent a woman who is tough, smart, and independent. The analysis to her speeches using Searle' theory of speech act results in representatives showing her personality and level of her intellectuality. The directives in Jane's speeches illustrate her willingness to be independent and not to be mastered by others. The commissive acts of Jane reveal her genuine character that always wants to sympathize and help others. Apology combined with frank answers and informal greeting exemplify her expressives. Her declarations also reflect her firm attitude and courage to take risks. In short, Jane's speech acts illustrate her manner that is strong, intelligent and self-determining. These are against the features suggested by Holmes as the style of most women.

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Matriarchal and Mythical Healing in Gloria Naylor's *Mama Day*

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Southern Flavor in Gloria Naylor's Fiction

There is something peculiarly Southern about Gloria Naylor's fiction--and this despite her birth in New York City. Careful consideration of place--whether it is a dilapidated, rat-infested housing project situated on a dead-end street or a magical island paradise off the Georgia coast-- and the uniquely individual folk inhabiting such locales are hallmarks of Naylor's carefully crafted novels. Her deft rendering of people, places, and customs invites comparison with that of the best American local colorists who have brought national and, in some instances, international attention to little-known regions of the country.

A Biographical Sketch

Gloria (born in 1950) is a novelist, essayist, screenplay writer, columnist, and educator. Gloria Naylor was born in New York City to Roosevelt and Alberta McAlpin Naylor, who had migrated northward from their native Robinsonville, Mississippi. Having worked as cotton sharecroppers in Mississippi, her father became a transit worker for the New York City subway system and her mother a telephone operator. Naylor, who was a very shy child, grew up in New

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York City, where she lived until she graduated from high school in 1968.

After her graduation until 1975, Naylor worked as a missionary for the Jehovah's Witnesses in New York, North Carolina, and Florida. Eventually deciding that missionary life and the Jehovah's Witnesses were not for her, Naylor returned to New York City and attended college while working as a telephone operator in several different hotels. Although she studied nursing for a short time at Medgar Evers College, she soon decided to pursue a BA in English at Brooklyn College, from which she graduated in 1981.

Naylor entered Yale University on a fellowship and received an MA in Afro-American studies there in 1983. Having published her first novel, *The Women of Brewster Place*, in 1982, she wrote for her master's thesis at Yale what would become her second novel, *Linden Hills* (published 1985). *Mama Day* (1988) *Bailey's Cafe* (1992), and *The Men of Brewster Place* (1998). In addition to these primary works, she has also published essays—including a column in the New York Times in 1986 and a scholarly piece, *Love and Sex in the Afro-American Novel*, which was published in the Yale Review in 1988—and has written several unproduced screenplays. Another important publication is 'A Conversation between Naylor and Toni Morrison,' which appeared in the *Southern Review* in 1985. She edited *Children of the Night: The Best Short Stories by Black Writers* 1967 to the present in 1995.

Mama Day

Her third novel, *Mama Day* (1988), Naylor has received the most praise. As the story of the title character and her great-niece, Ophelia (Cocoa) Day, this work fully develops Naylor's themes of magic, myth and family. Naylor superimposes the two settings of Willow Springs—an island off the coast between (but not in) South Carolina and Georgia—and New York City, thereby contrasting the philosophical differences between Cocoa and her husband, George Andrews. In a 1989 interview with Nicholas Shakespeare, Naylor said that her purpose in Mama Day was to analyze the makeup of individual belief, as well as what constitutes an individual definition of reality. During the course of the novel, she compares her depictions of magic and personal faith with the willing suspension of disbelief that all readers of fiction undergo.

Following a prologue that explains the history of Willow Springs, and which is narrated by the collective consciousness of the island itself, part 1 of the novel primarily consists of exchanges between Cocoa and George. Although George is already dead during the time of these narrated memories, he and Cocoa continue to commune from beyond the grave. Focusing on New York City, where Cocoa and George meet and eventually marry, part 1 also introduces Miranda (Mama) Day, the matriarch of Willow Springs, and her sister, Abigail, Cocoa's grandmother. Mama Day is a midwife, healer and root doctor, herbalist, and, if the reader chooses to interpret Naylor's ambiguous signals this way, a conjure woman.

Part 2 of *Mama Day*

Part two of *Mama Day* depicts the events that occur after George and Cocoa travel to Willow Springs. Following a tremendous storm, the bridge connecting the island to the mainland

washes away. Cocoa then becomes dangerously ill, apparently as a result of poisoning and conjuring by Ruby, an intensely jealous woman. In order to save his wife, George must suspend rational thought and fully accept the mystical ways of the island. Although his love for Cocoa almost makes him capable of this leap of faith, ultimately he cannot believe what the island and Mama Day demand of him. George's already weakened heart fails and he dies. Yet, partly because of George's sacrifice, Cocoa recovers. The novel's close in 1999, also the time of its beginning, shows Cocoa poised to succeed the 105-year-old Mama Day as the island's spiritual leader.

According to Lindsey Tucker (1994: 14), there are three kinds of illnesses treated by conjuring:

> · Illness for which knowledge of roots, herbs, barks and teas is applied.
> · Occult or spiritually corrected illness that requires spell casting and charms.
> · Illness that includes both personal and collective calamities that are not the result of malevolent attitudes.

Similar to the portrait of a perverted Eden (Ward 5) in her second novel *Linden Hills*, Naylor creates a hermetic black community in *Mama Day* with a pastoral setting named Willow Springs off the coast of South Carolina in Georgia. Sapphira Wade, the legendary mother is depicted by Naylor as Sapphira Wade. The legendary mother is a slave woman, who brought a whole new era to the island of Willow Springs. Being bought as a slave by a Norwegian named Bascombe Wade, who later married her, she bore him seven sons to persons known or unknown to her but forced by him. Later Sapphira compelled him to deed the island of Willow Springs to a thousand days and murdered him in the year 1823. This act of murder for her islanders has elevated her to a Mother goddess. In the island of Willow Springs patriarchy gets displaced with matriarchy.

Three Voices

With this legendary tale as its background the novel finds its description through three voices: the voice of George (from the grave), Cocoa's voice and in the voice of an omniscient narrator.

The novel explores the tragic past of Mama Day. This surrogate Grandmother - Sapphira functions as a physical and spiritual healer, a preserver and as the wise woman of the small community of Willow Springs. It is these female protagonists who have served as conjurers and spiritual healers in Mama Day. They have bridged the gap of ancestral conjuring with African roots and the spiritual milieu of their forefathers thereby creating a healing narrative which Pryse terms them as "metaphorical conjure women" (Pryse, 5).

Of the three daughters born to the seventh son of the legendary matriarch Sapphira Wade, Abigail and Mama Day are the two to survive. Abigail had three daughters - Grace, Hope and Peace. Peace died and Abigail's Hope, the mother of Willa Prescott of Linden Hills died shortly

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after Willa got married to Luther. As Willa had burnt herself to death, the only heir left to was Cocoa, the sole legendary heir to Sapphira Wade.

It is Mama Day and Abigail, who nurture Cocoa alias 'Baby Girl', who later leaves Willow Springs for urban life in New York. In New York, she falls in love with an engineer George, and later marries him. It is during their visit to Willow Springs they encounter the supernatural forces of nature. George sacrifices his life while attempting to save his wife Cocoa, who is later saved by the matriarchal powers of Mama Day.

Naylor's depiction of George Andrews, one of the three voices, is an engineer from Columbia University. He is an orphan, who has received the impersonal guidance of Mrs. Jackson of the Wallace T. Andrews shelter for Boys. He is on the notion that "Only the present is potential" (23). His association with Cocoa gradually turns his pragmatic approach to life.

When George crosses the mainland and enters the island, he attains a consciousness as of entering another world. As George is unable to acknowledge the powers of matriarchy, the central conflict arises. David Cowart asserts, "the single great source of disharmony, which Naylor intimates, lies in an overturning, enduring ego of matriarchal authority and its divine counterpart. The world still reels for the displacement of the Goddess - the Great Mother" (Cowart, 444). Though he observes the gifted hands of Mama Day in helping the infertile couple Bernice and Ambush and her magical powers of delivering most of the babies of Willow Springs, he dismisses her powers and remarks casually, natural remedies are really in now. We have centers opening up all over the place in New York (195). These comments of George reveal his "ignorance of the effectiveness of holistic healings" (Cowart, 447). He calls Mama Day's healing strategy as mumbo jumbo.

The Faith in the Ancestral Past

When Cocoa becomes the victim of the spell magician Ruby, it is George who makes an attempt to the chicken coop. He returns with empty hands after smashing the chicken coop and later dies of heart attack. The faith in the ancestral past helps Cocoa to relive her life but it takes away the life of the George, as his consciousness was not bound on faith. The healing powers of Mama Day continue to heal not only Cocoa but also the islanders. As a whole Mama Day carries the healing powers from her ancestors as gifts. She has a second sight through which she sees magic in the woods on the island. Everyday this "Mother" makes her visit to the trees and flowers and hears their whispers.

Naylor picturizes the healing powers prevalent in nature and the wisdom of Mama Day as: This great mother did not posses just the powers of healing and conjuring. She could read the signs of animal behavior too and tell the advent of hurricane even before the weather forecasters: "You better listen to the crows, Miranda says, when it gets so they start screaming, the winds gone come in screaming too" (236).

Healer and Conjurer

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Mama Day serves not only as a healer, predictor and a conjurer. She is a counselor too. She is the guardian angel to the islands of Willow Spring. When people get dejected to their personal problems, they seek their shelter in her house. When Frances, the old wife of Jounior Lee fall as a prey to the conjurer Ruby, she seeks the advice of Mama Day for which this mother utters: "A man doesn't leave you less he wants to go Frances. And if he's made up his mind to go, these ain't nothing you, me, or anybody else can do about that" (Naylor, 93). These unusual matriarchal powers of Mama Day owe their heritage to the legacy of her ancestors. She shares the ancestral gifts and wisdom with her descendants to keep the past alive. The Candle Walk ritual on December 22 marking the winter solstice and the Standing forth ceremony honoring the dead - all these reveal the matriarchal myth in which the islanders linked their ancestral reverence.

Collective Process of Empowerment of Women Is Needed

The wisdom and power in one woman from Sapphira Wade to Mama Day have assisted the other in the healing process. For the liberation of women, a collective process of empowerment is essential. To achieve this, the abuse and the trauma have to be acknowledged and brought to a collective consciousness.

Naylor has established the feminine power and dignity for the new millennium amidst an institutionalized patriarchy with a legacy of millions of abusive imprints. With all the matriarchal and mythical powers, these abused women have introduced and embraced a sacred and wise feminine world in *Mama Day*. According to Lindsey Tucker (1994: 186), "healing includes the ongoing process of seeing, healing and making". This voice of the ancestral past ought to be listened to. Naylor has converted an oral myth to a written one, thereby has allowed the reader to listen, see, hear and ultimately get healed.

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Impact of Project Based Method on Performance of Students

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Abstract

The study was aimed to investigate the effectiveness of project method in teaching mathematics at secondary school level in Pakistan. For this purpose a review of literature was undertaken to describe the nature of project method and lecture method.

The main objective of the study was to examine the impact of project method on the performance of students in mathematics in Pakistan. It was an experimental research and was conducted in the model colleges for girls Islamabad. Pre-test, post-test design was used in the study. 40 students participated in the study. Students were equally divided into control and experimental group. Experimental group was taught with project method along with lecture while control group was taught with lecture method.

The results of post-test revealed that students taught with project method performed better than students taught by lecture method. The study recommended that project

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method may be adopted in teaching of mathematics. It was also recommended that project method may be included in the teacher training curriculum.

Key words: Project method; performance in mathematics; impact; experimental study

Literature Review

The philosophy of mathematics program in classes IX and X is reflected in its goals, as provided for in the national curriculum of secondary level in Pakistan. The goal is to provide the students with the information and skills necessary for advanced work in mathematics and the sciences, and the information and skills necessary to become sensible and responsible individuals in a highly technological society of the 21st century.

Objectives of Teaching Mathematics at Secondary Level

1. To enable students to acquire understating of concepts of Mathematics and to apply them to the problems of the world they live in.
2. To provide the students with sound basis for specialization in Mathematics at higher stages or to apply it in scientific and technical fields.
3. To enable the students to reason consistently, to draw correct conclusions for given hypotheses; and to inculcate in them a habit of examining any situation critically and analytically.
4. To enable the students to communicate their thoughts through symbolic expressions and graphs.
5. To develop sense of distinction between relevant and irrelevant data.
6. To give the students basic understanding and awareness of the power of mathematics in generalization and abstraction.
7. **To foster in students the spirit of exploration and discovery.**

Teaching is a dynamic and well-planned process. Its objective is to acquire maximum learning experiences. In order to achieve this great objective, various methods and techniques based on psychological researches are used. Teaching methods are directly linked with teaching objectives. Hence each teaching method decides the direction and speed of the teaching (Saxena & Oberio, 1994). How to teach mathematics has always been an issue among the researchers. Teaching of mathematics at any level is affected by the methodology with which it is taught.

Researchers in math education are in the first instance concerned with the tools, methods and approaches that facilitate practice or the study of practice. However mathematics education research, known on the continent of Europe as the didactics of mathematics, has developed into a fully fledged field of study, with its own characteristic concepts, theories, methods, national and international organizations, conferences and literature.

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This article describes some of the history, influences and recent controversies concerning math education as a practice.

According to Klien (2000), mathematical learning, like all learning, takes place in social environment which are influenced by, and in turn influence, individual identities. For example, in the classroom, the teacher's and students' identity affects the learning processes have a constitutive effect on the students (and the teacher).

Children at primary and secondary level are curious, imaginative and creative by nature. So the basic aims and objectives of science teaching at these levels especially at secondary level are to help the young children to increase their power of observing things, expressing experiences, taking decisions and thereby developing a positive attitude towards nature and society (Tayler, 1987).

Fleming (1973) says that style of teaching differs from topic to topic and with the situation. Teachers are the central point in teaching learning process. Maximum learning could be obtained through the use of suitable and effective style of teaching only. There is no single style, which can be said to be the most effective one. Fleming also emphasized that the teacher should not utilize a variety of methods and techniques each fulfilling certain special purpose. The good teachers of Biology adopt a flexible method and change their patterns as per situation.

Methods of Teaching

There are different teaching methods used by a teacher such as:

1   Lecture method
2   Demonstration method
3   Heuristic method
4   Assessment method
5   Project method
6   Discussion method
7   Inductive method
8   Deductive method
9   Inquiry method

The theme of the present study is project method *versus* lecture method. Therefore, these two methods are focused of this section.

Project Based Method

According to Rai (1994) the project Method was introduced by W.H. Kilpatrick, an eminent educationist of America and a Professor in the Columbia University. A pupil of

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Dewey, Kilpatrick believes in Pragmatism. The Project Method is based on Pragmatism. The ordinary meaning of project is plan or scheme. According to Project Method, a plan or scheme is made employing which Education is imparted.

Project method of teaching is based on simplicity, yet sound principle: we learn physical or mental skills by actually performing those skills under supervision. An individual learns to write by writing, to weld by welding, and to fly an aircraft by actually performing flight maneuvers. Students also learn mental skills, such as speed reading, by this method. Skills requiring the use of tools, machines, and equipment are particularly well suited to this instructional method.

The project method of teaching involves assigning a particular work to students or group of students to work on and complete at his/her/their spare time and report back to the teacher as when demanded. The project method provides an excellent opportunity for the complete act of thinking by the students. Rogus (1985) saw it as a mean of teaching the students self-discipline. In project method students have occasion to define the problem, plan his work, find appropriate resources, carryout his plan and draw conclusion.

Comparison of Lecture Method and Project Method

The traditional passive view of learning involves situations where material is delivered to students using a lecture-based format. In contrast, a more modern view of learning is project-based method, where students are expected to be active in the learning process by participating in discussion and/or collaborative activities (Fosnot, 1989). Overall, the results of recent studies concerning the effectiveness of teaching methods favor constructivist, active learning methods.

The findings of a study by de Caprariis, Barman, & Magee (2001) suggest that lecture leads to the ability to recall facts, but discussion produces higher-level comprehension. Further, research on group-oriented discussion methods has shown that team learning and student-led discussions not only produce favorable student performance outcomes, but also foster greater participation, self confidence and leadership ability (Perkins & Saris, 2001; Yoder & Hochevar, 2005). Hunt, Haidet, Coverdale, and Richards (2003) examined student performance in team learning methods, finding positive learning outcomes as compared to traditional lecture-based methods. In contrast to these findings, a study by Barnes & Blevins (2003) suggests that active, discussion-based methods are inferior to the traditional lecture-based method. A comparison of lecture combined with discussion versus active, cooperative learning methods by Morgan, Whorton, & Gunsalus (2000) demonstrated that the use of the lecture combined with discussion resulted in superior retention of material among students.

Mereku (2000) investigated a wide range of methods – observation of classroom practice, content and discourse analyses of lessons in mathematics. He found that the sequence of

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presentation in Mathematics classroom generally followed the pattern that can be described as teacher led class discussion using situations and examples.

Similarly, Sola and Ojo (2007) examined the effects of project, inquiry and lecture demonstration teaching methods on senior secondary students' achievement in separation of mixtures practical test. This study assessed and compared the relative effectiveness of three methods for teaching and conducting experiments in separation of mixtures in chemistry. A pre test post test experimental design with a control group was used. The findings of this study revealed that lecture demonstration method, inquiry method and project method can be used for teaching and learning process depending upon the topic but project method is more effective because it affords the students to study on their own.

On the other hand; Capon (2004) says that lecture method allow more material to be covered, in particular the multiple and varied exemplars that have been associated with superior acquisition and transfer. It is the most economical method of transmitting knowledge, but it does not necessarily hold the student's attention or permit active participation. However, lectures can be effective, if supported by texts and other references but it is significantly less common in primary and secondary schools. He opined that discussion sessions are more effective in stimulating the students' interests and assessing their understanding of the material.

Further lectures also communicate the intrinsic interest of the subject matter. The speaker can convey personal enthusiasm in a way that no book or other media can. Enthusiasm stimulates interest and interested people tend to learn more. However, it may be kept in mind that only well prepared and well presented students welcome lectures. It cannot be used in teaching higher cognitive and effective processes such as attitude. As a means of teaching, it is suitable only for mature students and only in specific subjects. It can be used where the teacher does not require establishing each and every point in his lecture during instruction. But it is generally not suitable for younger students, as in teaching them the teacher must know that each point is understood before proceeding to the next.

Hussain (1994) quotes Bloom as the value of lecture method depends on the specific objective of the teacher. If the teacher wishes to communicate information, the lecture method is reasonably efficient, but if the teacher desires to develop the power of critical thinking, problem solving ability and attitudinal change, the discussion method is superior. Nacino, Oke, and Brown (1982) say that there are many studies which compare one general teaching method to another, but the results are so difficult to interpret that the evidence to date gives little or no encouragement to hope that there is a single, reliable, multipurpose approach which can be regarded as the best. Instead of searching for a single right way, we should therefore focus on the possibility of combining a variety of teaching methods to improve learning.

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Presently, there is no known single approach that can succeed with all kinds of students or all instructional goals. Teaching has to be approached in a variety of ways that facilitate learning or development. Teachers in the teaching of social studies at secondary level used different methods. These include lecture method, textbook method, discussion method, and study tour etc. The traditional methods are lecture method and book recitation method. However, some of the teachers use a combination of both lecture and project method.

Objectives of Study

The objectives of the study were:

1. To examine effectiveness of project method and lecture method in mathematics
2. To assess the impact of project method on students performance

Research Hypothesis

Hypothesis: Mean score of the students taught by project method is significantly higher than mean score of students taught by lecture method.

Alternate Hypothesis: Mean score of the students taught by lecture method is significantly higher than mean score of students taught by project method.

Null Hypothesis: There is no difference between the mean score of the students taught by project method and lecture method.

The researcher devoted great care to manipulation and control of variables and to the observation and measurement of results. The study had three basic characteristics:

1) An independent variable was manipulated.
2) All other variables except the dependent variable were held constant.
3) The effect of the manipulation of the independent variable was observed.

Research Design

Nature of the study was experimental. This study used a pretest/posttest control group design that included the matching of participants prior to random assignment to control group or experimental group.

| R | C | O_1 | O_2 |

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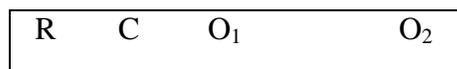
R	E	O_1	T	O_2

Source: (Best & Kahn, 1993)

1. The Pre-test-Post-test Control Group Design was used as research design.
2. Two tests were developed to test the student achievement.
3. Pre-test was taken for equating the two groups' i.e., for the formation of groups.
4. Lesson plans were developed for two methods of teaching.
5. Actual teaching was done for two days.
6. A post-test was taken in order to notice the effect of two methods. The test was administered on the third day.
7. Data was analyzed using means to find out the effective method of teaching mathematics.

Sample of the Study

Sample of the study consisted of 40 students of secondary level classes of Islamabad Model College for Girls.

Instrumentation

Two tests were developed to conduct the research one for pre test and other for posttest. And two lesson plans were developed to teach a topic using lecture method.

Pre-Test

Students were given a pre test on which they were equated into two groups. The test was composed of questions from general mathematics to test their ability. The test was developed using questions from a Practice Placement Test Generated by Quiz Maker 2.0 for Quiz Center authored by Richard Shadian. The test comprised of 25 questions Time given to each group was 25 minutes.

Actual Activity

Two lesson plans were developed for the two groups. Control group was taught with lecture method while the experimental group was taught with project method along with lecture. Each group was taught for two days for 45 minutes. Same topic" concept of average and its finding" was taught to both groups with different methods.

A lecture of 45 minutes was given for two days to both groups. In the lecture basic concept of average was explained and then examples from daily life were quoted. The

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formula of average was explained followed by related examples. Students were given some questions as homework assignment.

However, the students in experimental group worked in groups as part of their project. The students first found their pulse rate, blood pressure, temperature, height and weight. After that, each groups calculated their groups' average pulse, B.P. temperature, height and weight.

Post-Test

After the actual teaching both groups were given a test. The test completion time was 25 minutes.

Analysis of Data

The data was collected through tests taken at the end of the course. Mean of both groups test score was used to compare the performance of both the groups. Score of both groups is shown in the table:

**Table 1**   **Results of Pretest and posttest**

S.No.	Group1 Pretest (Lecture Method)	Group1 Posttest (Lecture Method)	Group2 Pretest (Project Method)	Group2 Posttest (Project Method)
1	3	10	5	13
2	9	13	8	17
3	12	10	12	15
4	14	13	4	18
5	14	18	15	17
6	14	16	16	17
7	15	15	16	21
8	17	18	17	20
9	18	24	17	18
10	18	22	18	22
11	18	21	18	18
12	18	20	18	22
13	19	15	19	23
14	20	17	20	25
15	21	22	20	24

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16	21	24	21	24
17	22	25	21	25
18	23	25	22	21
19	24	23	23	25
20	24	24	24	24

Below charts generated for the marks of both groups1 shows the results of student taught by lecture method and series 2 shows the marks taught by project method.
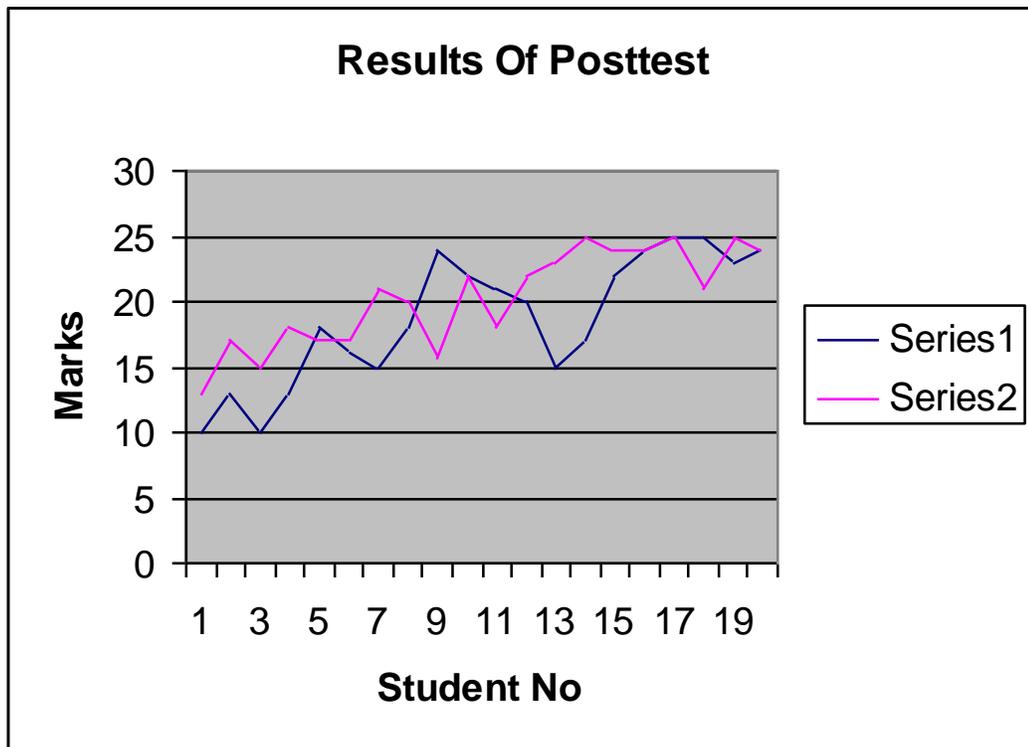
Similarly the results of both groups have been shown through bar diagram as indicated below:

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Results Of Posttest
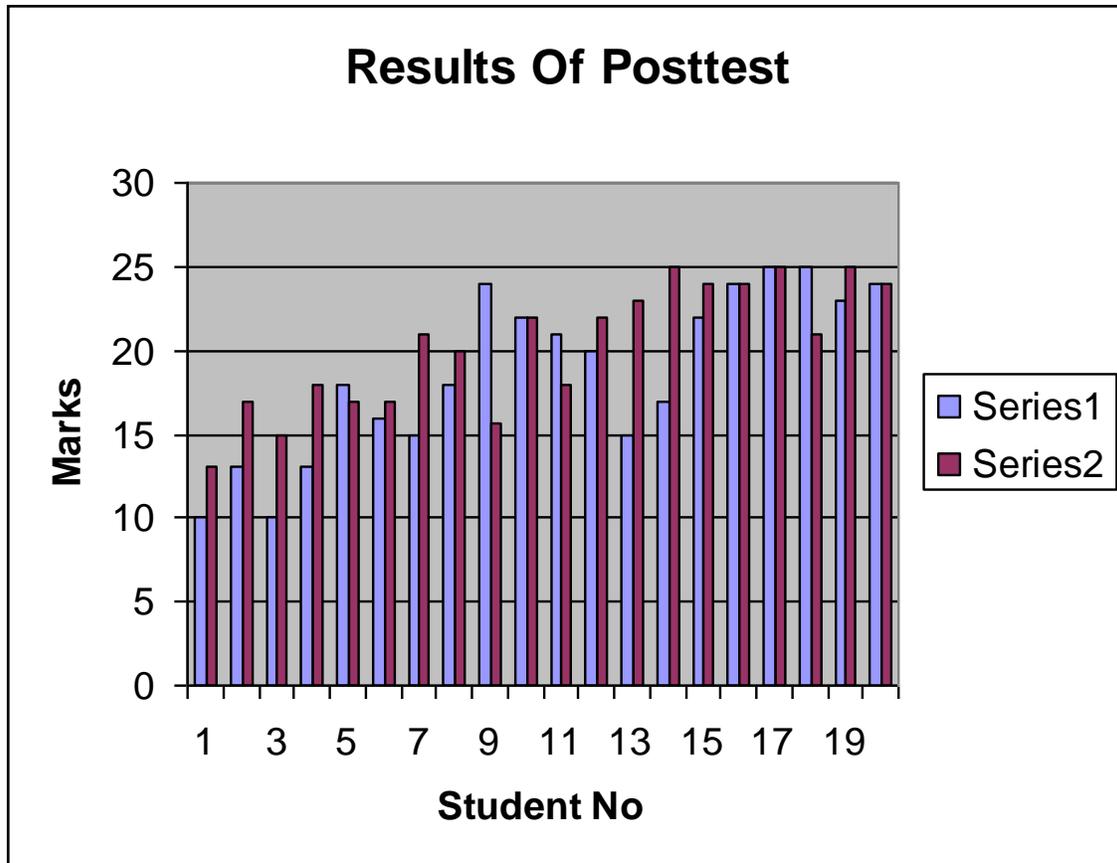
Table2   **Mean score on pre-tests/Post-test**

	Experimental Group (N=30)			Control Group (N=30)		
Pre-test	**Mean**	**SD**	**Variance**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Variance**
	16.7	5.6	31.1	17.2	5.2	27.5
Post-test						
	20.5	3.6	13.2	28.8	4.9	24.5

Results & Recommendations

Results of the post-test revealed that students taught by project method performed better than students taught by lecture method. It was recommended that for the effective teaching of mathematics project based method must be followed in order to increase the leaning level of students. It may be included in the teacher training curriculum. However,

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it is also recommended that further study may be conducted in other subjects at different level.

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Computer: A Device for Learning English Language
A Summary of Advantages and Disadvantages

A. Ramesh Babu, Ph.D.
A. Komuraiah, M.A., M. Phil.

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Abstract

Does computer create learning atmosphere? Why are students forced to learn English through computers? CALL progammes provide the learners with a novelty. They teach in varying and more interesting learning conditions and present English through games and problem-solving techniques. They offer a valuable source of self-access and self assessment study adoptable to the student's level. As CALL is a technological aid for learning, it has a number of advanced facilities that can help a student to learn a language with proficiency to communicate. It provides a facility which allows the student to listen to model pronunciation, repeat and record the same, listen to their performance and compare with the model, and do self-assessment. It has become inevitable in today's context but, at the same time, it poses certain challenges.

Key words: CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning); roles of teacher and students; advantages and disadvantages

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Introduction

Why should the English teachers use computers for their students? Does computer really create learning atmosphere? What is CALL and how it is useful to the English learners. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is an approach to language teaching and learning in which computer technology is used as an aid to presentation, justification and assessment of material to be learned.

CALL is a form of computer-based learning which carries two important features: individualized learning and bidirectional learning. "It is a form of student-centered learning materials, which promote self-paced accelerated learning. CALL is an interactive method of instruction that helps learners achieve their goal of learning, at their own pace and ability" (Suresh Kumar and Sreehari 2007: 3). This paper gives a detailed picture of CALL and its uses, the role of teachers and students, advantages and disadvantages of CALL.

The old and traditional face-to-face teaching in a classroom continues to be used in these days. Many teachers want to teach English by using modern technology. It includes a lot of beneficial points. The learners also like computer-assisted language learning because of visualization. Reinhard (1995: 54) says that "80% of understanding comes from visualization and much less from hearing, although retention rate is higher for the latter."

Computers can motivate the students and fill them with confidence. Students easily get the concentration needed using computers and they acquire the technical knowledge also. R. Taylor (1980: 82) expressed that "computer assisted language learning programs can be wonderful stimuli for second language learning. Currently, computer technology can provide a lot of fun games and communicative activities, reduce the learning stresses and anxieties, and provide repeated lessons as often as necessary. Those abilities will promote second language learners' learning motivation. Through various communicative and interactive activities, computer technology can help second language learners strengthen their linguistic skills, affect their learning attitude, and build their self-instruction strategies and self-confidence."

The learners who learn English through computers have extraordinary knowledge of various things. Robertson (1987: 315) says that "the participants who joined computer-assisted language learning programs also had significantly higher self-esteem ratings than regular students. Today, with the high development of computer technology, computers can capture, analyze, and present data on second language students' performances during the learning process."

Why a Language Laboratory?

In the past, laboratories were used for purely science courses. The role of the teachers of English was to teach English text books. Now, it is totally changed as English teaching means not only teaching grammar, syntax and vocabulary but also teaching communication skills. Language

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teaching in the past was conducted mainly in the classroom with teachers' teaching and students' passive learning, and with the aids of blackboard, recorders and videos. Students are tired of traditional English classes. They seem to give more attention to this new style of teaching and learning. As a result, when using a computer, students may study more actively. It is a novel thing in India to introduce laboratory for language learning while it is very common in Western countries to train children in the laboratory to enrich their language learning experiences.

The language laboratory is very useful for assessing students' pronunciation. It provides students with the technical tools to get the best samples of pronunciation of the language. The electronic devices used in the laboratory will excite the eyes and ears of the learner to acquire the language quickly and easily. The learners can remember the pronunciation if they listen to computer reproductions. The laboratory's collection is designed to assist learners in the acquisition and maintenance of aural comprehension, oral and written proficiency, and cultural awareness. The language laboratory offers broadcasting, television programmes, web-assisted materials and videotaped off-air recordings in the target language. In a word, we say that a learner can obtain the experience of having interaction with native speakers through the laboratory.

Hence, the language laboratory has become the need of the hour in any language learning process for communication. J. Richards (2001) says: "The language laboratory exists to help one to use technology effectively to communicate. It is not merely for learning a single language, but can be used for teaching a number of languages efficiently. To acquire a sensibility for the sounds and rhythm of a language, one has to hear the best samples of a spoken language."

Here, we would like to list the usefulness of language laboratory.

1. It provides practices for students through experiential learning.
2. It is a tool designed not only for English teaching but also for teaching other languages.
3. It increases students' motivation to learn.
4. It encourages greater interaction between teachers and students.
5. It helps one to learn pronunciation, accent, stress and all other aspects of the phonetics of a language.
6. It enhances student achievement and enlarges global understanding.
7. It emphasizes the individual needs and increases authentic materials for study
8. It enables one to conduct courses for various groups of people like students, faculty members, business people, etc.
9. It helps students to prepare for international examinations like IELTS, TOEFL and other competitive examinations.
10. Online courses and paperless examinations can be conducted through the language laboratory.

The Role of a Teacher in CALL

CALL brings many radical changes in the role of a teacher whose presence plays a prominence role when doing CALL activities. Teachers should be familiar with the resources and should be able to anticipate technical problems and limitations. The teacher's role as facilitator of learning—as guide, correspondent, motivator, and challenger, has increased in importance. Students need the reassuring and motivating presence of a teacher in CALL environments. It is teachers' responsibility to motivate the students in the conventional classrooms but in computer assisted language learning, computer will take the job. Most of the students prefer to do work in a lab with a teacher's or tutor's presence, rather than completely on their own. Unless teachers have computer knowledge, they cannot guide the students.

Noemi says that "In other words, instead of being directly involved in students' construction of the language, the teacher interacts with students primarily to facilitate difficulties in using the target language (grammar, vocabulary, etc.) that arise when interacting with the computer and/or other people" (Domingo Noemi, 2007: 13). A communicative language learning approach could be enhanced by the use of computer mediated communication. CALL programs that are based on graded practice in formal aspects of language would perhaps not be integrated as successfully into a 'communicative' classroom, but may be a useful supplement in a self-access mode for specific learners.

The Role of Students in CALL

Students should consult meaning and assimilate new information through interaction and collaboration with someone other than the teacher, be that person a classmate or someone outside of the classroom entirely. Learners must also learn to interpret new information and experiences on their own terms. Shy students can feel free in their own students'-centered environment. If they have any doubts, these can be clarified. This will raise their self-esteem and their knowledge will improve. If students undertake collaborative projects, they will do their best to perform these within set time limits. The learners have to try to observe the things in the computers and they can do so as they would get immediate feedback.

Advantages and Disadvantages of CALL

CALL presents many activities that focus on the language skills. The target language learning involves all language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Though the learners get all the language skills in classroom teaching, CALL mainly insists on the learners to perform listening and speaking activities. It motivates the learners towards language learning. The progammes which are loaded by teachers may make the students to learn new things. It enables the learners to think in a critical way. Using the systems in the classrooms, the students can improve their mastery of basic skills.

The following are some advantages that teachers and students get from computer assistance language learning.

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i. Individualization

Computer and its attached language learning programs could provide second language learners more independence from classrooms and allow learners the option to work on their learning material at any time of the day. Inhibited and other non-English medium background students from rural and urban places can greatly benefit by individualization. The programmes lead the learners to learn a language. The learners get freedom to pronounce words and escape from others comments on their pronunciation and errors of their sentences.

ii. Interaction and Negotiation

In CALL, students have opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning. They can learn all subjects in a language include grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary in the process of language learning by computer technology. They are allowed to learn all the four skills i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The trust that the students have that computer makes the learners faster than the classroom teaching is true. Students get a good interaction with the other members who attend the CALL so that they develop a good relation with community. Negotiation is compulsory in foreign language learning. The computer supports the teachers and students to be authentic audiences. When students listened to native speakers from the computer and practiced dialogues. The computer or the internet provides dynamic and realistic situations with native speakers speaking. Through the interaction with their classmates and teachers, they become communicative in English with proper body language and eye contacts.

iii. Computers Can Help Overcome Barriers of Space and Time

In traditional classes, students must attend the classes at particular time whereas computer assisted language learning, students can learn whenever they want. If an educational institution has a satellite system of computer laboratories, students can study English at various places on campus at any time. If the school has a network of computer laboratories, students can use the same materials wherever they are working. Students can even study at home if their personal computers have a link to their school's system or network. In addition, the teachers and students get materials and information from the websites of their own country.

iv. Computers are Very Useful for Teaching Composition

For writing tasks, computers will help the learners wonderfully. In the past, when a writing assignment is given, students have to write their draft first and after editing, they used to retype or copy it again. Writing is not only time-consuming, but also not easily kept afterwards. But with computers, students can use a word processing program to write their compositions and make corrections easily so that they do not have to retype or copy for their final draft. They can also edit their writing before they turn it in to the teacher, and then to revise the composition based on their teacher's comments.

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iv. Global understanding:

English is spoken all over the world. Learning a language by CALL, learners will come to know what is going on around the world. It helps the learners through internet. It would help to the learners to understand English globally so that they will learn Indian English as well as foreign language.

v. Motivation

As in the place of teachers, computers will motivate the students to learn language. Student motivation is therefore increased, especially whenever a variety of activities is offered, which make them feel more independent. When they sit in front of the system, they spontaneously concentrate on the subject because it is a novel approach to most of the Indian students.

vii. Authentic Materials for Study

CALL provides authentic materials to the learners for study. Through these materials, learners are guided. Materials can be accessed 24 hours a day. Computer offers different types of topics very quickly. Teachers and students can use the time effectively in the process of language learning by using computer technology. Nunan (1999: 26) concludes that "interactive visual media which computers provided seem to have a unique instructional capability for topics that involve social situations or problem solving, such as interpersonal solving, foreign language or second language learning"

viii. Authentic Tasks

Students will get the authentic task by computers. Like classroom tasks, in CALL students will be indulged in genuine tasks. By the help of these tasks, students can learn a target language in practical situation. Teachers try to make their tasks authentic with the aid of software. Students experience foreign cultures in pictures and movies. The classroom environment learning enriches learning by overcoming the limitations of time, money, and resources. The activities may encourage the learners so that they may learn a new language.

Disadvantages

Besides the listed advantages of CALL, there are some disadvantages of using computer technology to students and teachers. Gips, DiMattia, & Gips (2004: 208) indicated that "the first disadvantage of computer and its attached language learning programs is that they will increase educational costs and harm the equity of education. When computers become a basic requirement for student to purchase, low budget schools and low-income students usually cannot afford a computer. It will cause unfair educational conditions for those poor schools and students. On the other hand, expensive hardware and software also becomes the big obligations for schools and parents."

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i. Basic Technology Knowledge and Learners' Lack of Interest

Teachers as well as students need the basic knowledge about the computers. Unless one has previous knowledge of computer use, the learning is not powerful. We do not find the teachers who have ample knowledge and mastery in the use of computers, in developing countries such as India. If learners do not have interest, they will be guided umpteen times by the teachers in classroom activities, but it is not possible in CALL. Some of the students, especially those who do not have computer knowledge, are not interested to learn a foreign language.

ii. Computers Are Very Expensive

Though computers have become cheaper, many schools and colleges in India, especially in rural areas, do not have computers for language teaching and learning. It is a big problem for schools and universities which cannot afford many computers. Even for schools that are rich enough, computer laboratories, once established, are not possible to be updated in time. Educational institutions are not able to update their computers and software and add new equipments and new programs.

iii. Computers Can Only Do What They Are Programmed To Do

Computers are machines. Complicated and powerful as they are, they still cannot take the place of teachers. They cannot communicate meaningfully with the users because they don't recognize natural language fully. They sometime cannot understand students' questions. They can only respond to certain commands that are already programmed in advance. Thus, many programs fail to meet users' individual demands. In addition, most classroom teachers have neither the skills nor the time to make programs. This has left the field to commercial developers, who often fail to base their programs on sound pedagogical principles. The quality of the programs is, therefore, questioned quite often, especially, by the language teachers.

iv. Computers May Cut the Students from the Classroom Environment

Classroom teaching, though with some weaknesses, is itself an art. In the classroom, teachers and students communicate with each other on both the knowledge they are learning and on their emotional feelings, which, in particular, makes the classroom teaching more attractive. Students feel that they are cut off from the traditional classroom environment and have less communication with the teachers and the people around them.

v. Computers Can Break Down

Computers sometimes may have technical problems and then break down. It doesn't happen always but a breakdown in the middle of classroom teaching may leave the teachers embarrassed, and waste a lot of time. A breakdown during students' autonomous learning may

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result in a loss of data and works, and students have to do some exercises from the beginning again because everything is programmed in advance. This is really a big challenge for students who are not very skillful with computers.

vi. No Creativity in Writing Tasks

Students write the essays and articles with creative notions in traditional classroom learning whereas there is a danger we find that learners may copy other ideas or articles through Internet. So students may depend too much on the computers. It will not enable them to think deep on their own. As computers provide correct spellings, the learners type and depend on the computers. Very few people write on paper these days and resort to word process using computers and this makes them forget the spellings.

Conclusion

CALL programs have become a new trend in language learning. However, computer technology still has its limitations and weaknesses. We conclude that computers must be recognized as a teaching tool. They are very good teaching aids for language teachers and they give language learners more freedom by being more accessible and versatile. Although they cannot replace the teachers, they help the learners to learn English language. Therefore, when we try to apply CALL programs to help student learning, we should recognize the advantages and disadvantages in current CALL programs and derive maximum benefits for our ESL teaching and learning.

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Mobile Phone Culture and its Psychological Impacts on Students' Learning at the University Level

Muhammad Javid M.Phil., Muhammad Ashraf Malik, Ph.D. Candidate and Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate

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Abstract

Mobile Phone Culture is the most widely used term in the present era. Mobile phone has affected almost every field of life but its effects on students' learning especially at university level are deep and in multidimensional and multifarious. Our youngsters have been completely mesmerized and hypnotized by this magical device. Now it has become an essential part of modern life and is playing a vital role in decreasing distance and increasing communication among people. This small device has done that work which was not even accomplished by great leaders and even wonderful inventions. It has made the people closer and closer day by day.

The study was conducted in order to determine the effects of mobile phone on the performance of students at university level. A small sample consisting 390 students of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Bahawalnagar Campus, Pakistan was taken by giving representation to all the students of all the programs offered in the campus. A 25 item questionnaire on five stages scale was administered to the students. Data was analyzed by using SPSS XIV. Most of the students claimed that they can contact with their teachers and class mates to discuss the educational matters. They also utilize the mobile phone to share the useful information with their class fellows, to consult dictionary and thesaurus for educational purposes. On contrary to this they are agreed that the mobile phone is wasting the students' precious time and money. Moreover it

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has increased the rate of telling lie among students. It has also put everlasting impacts on our culture.

Key Words: Mobile Phone Culture, Role and Impacts, Students' Learning Achievements

Introduction

According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2004), mobile phone is a telephone that does not have wires and works by radio that can be carried with to use every where.

According to Rich Ling (2003), the mobile phone has fundamentally affected our society, accessibility, safety, and security, co-ordination of social and business activities and use of public places. It has just become the part of culture of every region in the world.

The craze of mobile phone started after 1980's in the world, but it has now touched the level of esteem. First it was just for a status symbol but now it has become a dire need of the day and is in the reach of everyone, even a person whose per month income is 2000 rupees.

According to a famous writer and researcher on mobile phone, Jon Agar (2005), until not very long ago, the mobile phone was expensive and the preserve of a rich few. Today the cell phone is everywhere and so common that it goes unnoticed.

Mobile phone culture stepped in the land of Pakistan after 1990s but mobile phone got its fame after 1994 after the establishment of some cellular networks. Now, every one person out of two in the world and every one person out of three in Pakistan has a mobile phone.

According to the figures from Eurostate, the European Union's in-house statistical office (2006) the total number of mobile phone subscribers in the world was estimated at 2.14 billion in 2005. The subscriber count reached 2.7 billion by end of 2006, and 3.3 billion by November 2007, thus reaching an equivalent of over half the planet's population. Around 80% of the world's population has access to mobile phone coverage, as of 2006. This figure is expected to increase to 90% by the year 2010.

The Effects on University Students

The effects on university students' learning are both positive and negative. Most of the students are in adulthood and this is a very significant and crucial period of age. As Fredrick Tracy (2006) wrote, history is full of records of reckless and daring exploits of young man, some of which have resulted in great good and others in great evil.

Some positive and healthy impacts and effects of mobile phone on students' performance at the university level include:

    a. To contact easily with the teachers, classmates and parents.
    b. To trace easily the teachers, classmates for the solution of educational problems.
    c. To use internet to search out the useful information.
    d. To use the mobile as minicomputer:

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e. To use dictionary and thesaurus:
f. To read news:
g. To listen F.M radio for entertainment
h. To fin out the translation of versus of Holy Quran
i. To make photos and movies
j. To use blue tooth infrared technology to transfer the data from mobile phone to mobile phone or to computer and computer to mobile without any cost in few seconds. In it, data can be transferred even from other mobile or computer which is 15 to 20 feet away.
k. To handle and move easily because it is light weight and so on…

According to Ansari (2007) it has a number of negative and unhealthy impacts and effects on students' performances at the university level, including the wastage of time and money. Its vibration and use may be harmful for health.

According to Awaz (2008), Sir William Stewart in his book "Mobile Phones and Base Stations" narrated that exposure of radio frequency causes great absorption of energy in the tissues of head which is harmful for nervous system. Vibration of mobile phone also has effects on the pumping of blood. Heat of mobile phone also causes skin problem, rays from tower are also harmful and it is suggested that towers should be 16 KM away from population.

According to Awaz (2008), mobile phone affects the social life and health of all society members as well as university students. Some effects are as follows:
a. It is a cause of disturbance to university students when they are busy in their lecture or projects in class rooms or libraries.
b. It seems that it may cause increase in decline of moral values. With the use of mobile phone, now students feel no shy to tell a lie. When they are sitting in hotel or park, they tell to their parents or teachers that they are sitting in the library.
c. Loss and misplacement of mobile phone is very common. The student who loses his/ her mobile phone also undergoes tension and this affects studies.
d. Mobile phone is a source to introduce new culture of co-education in Islamic educational institutions. It is going to become the great tool of free relationship in the young generation. Long conversations on mobile phone lead them to that attitude which is not according to our religious and social acceptability. Their attitude affects their studies greatly. Sometimes they become the victim of emotional, physical and psychological problems.

Sadia Quraishi (2008) has pointed out another negative impact of mobile phone on students' learning by saying that most of the students write the abbreviations while messaging to others. The same habit has been developed, and they use the same abbreviation in solving the papers in the examination hall. They write 'U' '2' 'Btw' 'Becoz' 'R' and 'BV' instead of 'You' 'two/to' 'Between' 'because' 'or/are' and 'wife' respectively, which is a wrong way of writing.

Objectives of This Study

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The aim of present study is to discuss the effects of mobile phone culture on students' learning at university level. The objectives are:

1. To evaluate the advantages and effects of mobile phone on university students' leanings
2. To identify the problems due to use of cell phone facing by university students.
3. To suggest possible solutions to the problems caused by cell phone.

Research Methodology

The research was conducted by using the procedure of survey method which is a type of descriptive research. Out of 865 students enrolled in the university campus, 390 students from all the classes were selected. Following is the sample for this study.

Sr. No.	Level of Students	Number of Students
1	Master of Education(M. Ed)	45
2	Bachelor of Education (B. Ed)	45
3	Masters of Business in Administration (MBA)	45
4	Bachelor of Business in Administration. (BBA)	45
5	Masters of Computer Science (MCS)	45
6	Bachelor of Computer Science (BCS)	30
7	Master of Education (M.A Edu)	45
8	Masters in Commerce (M.Com)	45
9	Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com)	45
Total		390

A questionnaire of a five point rating scale was developed to collect the data about the effects of mobile phone on students of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur at Bahawalnagar Campus as research tool. Twenty five items were carefully included in this rating scale. Students were required to respond on a five point Likert scale. The reliability of the instrument was calculated by using SPSS XIV. The instrument was personally administered to the sample.

To analyze the data, students' responses were converted into numerical scale according to the following description: Strongly Agree 5, Agree 4, Undecided 3, Disagree 2, and Strongly Disagree 1.

The data was analyzed in two steps. Firstly, the average score for each statement was calculated. As it was a five point scale, the maximum average score would be 5 and minimum possible score would be 1.

The effects of mobile phone on students' performance were considered positive or negative depending on how much the average score lied near or far from 5, secondly analyzing each class / level separately the average scores of all the statements were added up and divided by total number of statements. In such a way, an over all average score for a

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class/level was calculated which gave a general picture of effects of mobile phone on students' performance and learning of the students of each class/level.

Findings

The findings, drawn out from the data collected through the questionnaire and analyzed in terms of mean score, are given below.

Table 3. Positive impacts of mobile phone on students learning achievements

S. No	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean Score
1	The student can easily contact with the teacher for study purposes.	164	140	33	31	22	4.00
2	The student can easily contact with class fellows to get help in studies.	173	147	29	26	15	4.12
3	The student's academic performance has been increased due to this technology.	101	104	98	43	44	3.45
4	The student puts his/her Mobile Phone on vibration while attending classes.	160	103	39	33	55	3.72
5	The Mobile Phone has helped to improve the level of the quality of education.	63	124	21	122	60	3.02
6	The student puts his/her Mobile Phone on vibration before offering prayers.	165	114	47	39	25	3.91
7	The teacher puts his/her Mobile Phone on vibration while delivering lecture.	132	125	21	58	54	3.57
8	The Mobile Phone helps the students to share helping materials among students.	92	202	17	60	19	3.74
9	The student utilizes Mobile Phone to share important/useful information with class fellows.	174	76	42	57	41	3.73
10	The parents of female students feel more satisfaction due to Mobile Phone because their daughters can contact them easily	152	98	72	35	33	3.77
11	Student uses dictionary/thesaurus/calculate of mobile.	122	142	15	87	24	3.64

Table 4. Negative impacts of mobile phone on students learning achievements

S. No	Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean Score
1	The student misuses the Mobile Phone.	80	76	77	82	75	3.01
2	The student's Mobile Phone ring tone remains 'On' in the classroom while the teacher is delivering the lecture.	55	127	87	86	35	3.21

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3	The student purchase Mobile Phone without the permission of their parents	63	108	77	83	59	3.08
4	The student wastes his/her time in writing/sending useless SMSs to friends/colleagues.	126	103	40	98	23	3.54
5	The student sends missed calls to class fellows to disturb during attending classes.	95	130	21	98	46	3.33
6	The student does not feel hesitation to sending interesting/funny SMSs to his/her teacher.	74	101	43	107	65	3.03
7	The Mobile Phone has put negative impact on student's moral values.	73	189	13	42	73	3.38
8	The Mobile Phone is the wastage of time for students.	151	99	12	65	63	3.54
9	The female student doesn't feel hesitation to give her Mobile Number to male classmates.	55	102	18	122	93	2.75
10	The Mobile Phone Culture has increased the rate of telling lie among students.	102	118	12	103	55	3.28
11	The student feels proud of having costly Mobile Phone.	175	75	43	56	41	3.74
12	The student uses Mobile Phone in the Examination Hall as a source of unfair means.	45	64	63	134	84	2.62
13	The student teases the class fellows by sending missed calls through unknown numbers.	124	101	68	74	23	3.59
14	Student enjoys music on Mobile Phone.	195	114	56	16	9	4.21

Discussion

Mobile phone is helpful for the students for study purposes. Students can use it for exchanging useful information with their classmates about their studies. Students use this fascinating magic device in a better way. It is also helpful for the students as they can contact their parents. The students' academic performance has increased due to this technology. The mobile phone has helped to improve the level of the quality of education. The students utilize Mobile Phone to share important and useful information with classmates. Students use dictionary, thesaurus and calculator available in the mobile phone. The parents of female students feel more satisfaction due to mobile phone because their daughters can contact them easily.

On the negative side of the issue, there are a number of drawbacks of this technology as the mobile phone has put negative impacts on students' moral values and the students misuse their mobile phones. They remain busy in writing and sending useless messages. They tease the students by sending missed calls and messages from unknown numbers. They listen to music and watch movies. In this way they waste their precious time and money in talking and gossiping on meaningless topics with their friends by availing the low rates and free packages offered by the mobile phone companies. The mobile phone culture has also increased the rate of telling a lie among students.

Students can use the mobile phone for exchanging useful information with their fellows about their studies. As we know that at the university level, students are in adulthood and wise enough to recognize their duties. It is the responsibility of students to use this marvelous magic device in

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a better way and never misuse it. Universities should play a pivotal role in this regard and promote awareness to utilize this electronic device in a constructive manner. There is a great role of university teachers and especially parents as they should always have an eye on the activities of students and always try to foster the moral values among the students. It is the responsibility of media and mobile phone service provider companies to create this sense of responsibility in the students to use this device in a positive manner.

Conclusions

The results of this study reveal that the students at the university level utilize this wonderful technology in a better way by sharing useful information with their classmates and teachers. The female students belonging to remote areas feel secure and their parents can contact them any time. On the other hand, the mobile phone is also misused by the university students. The university students must be sensible and careful to get maximum advantages from this technology which was a dream 25 years ago, but a reality now. If the students use it wisely and properly then they can improve their education and construct a better future for them.

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Review of *English and Soft Skills* by S. P. Dhanavel
(Orient BlackSwan, Hyderabad, 2010)

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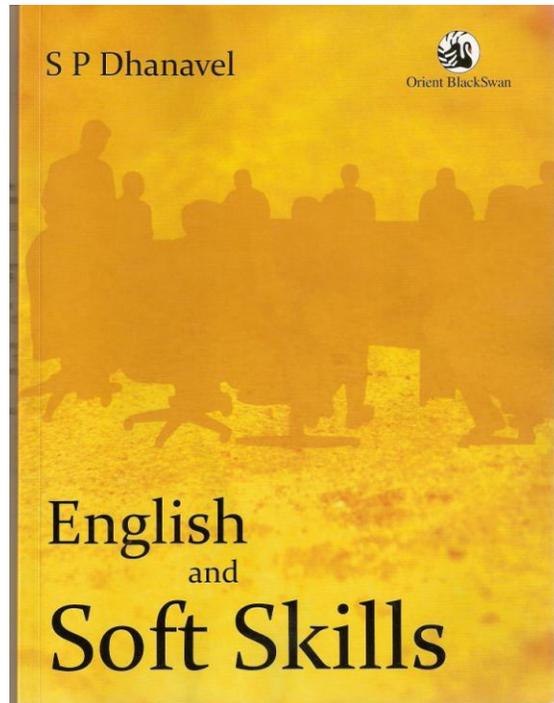
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The Book and the Author

Professor S. P. Dhanavel's book on *English and Soft Skills* clearly reveals the author's expertise and specialization in this field. Professor Dhanavel has been teaching English to engineering graduates for many years. This teaching experience has led him to recognize the need for a book on soft skills so that engineering graduates will have sound training and better employment prospects. In addition, soft skills acquired in the class using English will help the graduates to prosper well in their careers as well.

The Content

Ten essential soft skills are discussed and presented in this book. The book begins with the author's Preface, followed by How to Use the Book. Instructions are given to both the Teacher and the Student. Thus, the book is oriented toward both student and teacher and this is a very useful and economic strategy.

Ten soft skills are dealt with in ten units in this book. The following are the soft skills presented, analyzed, discussed and practiced:

> 1. Listening Skills
> 2. Teamwork Skills
> 3. Emotional Intelligence Skills
> 4. Assertive Skills
> 5. Problem-solving Skills
> 6. Interview Skills
> 7. Interview Skills
> 8. Adaptability Skills
> 9. Non-verbal Communication Skills
> 10. Written Communication Skills

A Significant and Special Strategy

An interesting feature of the units is that a story in original is presented as the body of each unit. Various activities of the unit that each student and groups of students are expected to pursue revolve around this story. Of the 9 stories and an extract from a novel presented in the textbook, only two are by Indian authors (Ruskin Bond and R. K. Narayan). Perhaps next edition may have more stories by Indian authors which may enable focusing on culture-bound soft skills as well. Also some assessment of the length of the story may be made.

The reading section in every unit, in general, presents some suggestions for further reading. These are mostly stories by the author of the story that is presented as the main part of the unit. Students are encouraged to read these stories. We'd recommend that this

"further reading" list be replaced by some reading directly relevant to soft skills to help students to gain more confidence in exercising and practicing soft skills.

General Structure of the Units

In general, each unit has the following exercises for individual students and groups of students:

1. Understanding the Story
2. Understanding People
3. Understanding Places and Events
4. Understanding Ideas
5. Vocabulary Development
6. Focus on Selected Grammatical Categories and Processes
7. Accurate Use of Words
8. Thinking about Soft Skills
9. Soft Skills at Work
10. Real Life Experience
11. Further Reading.

In a few lessons some additional categories are also exploited as part of group and individual work.

Soft Skills – More Focus May Be Called for Here

Of great relevance to the main focus of the book (Soft Skills) are the three items/sections in each unit: Thinking about Soft Skills, Soft Skills at Work and Real Life Experience.

As the book is intended to present English and Soft Skills, a good part of the book devotes to the learning/teaching of English by focusing on the lexical, grammatical, semantic and discourse elements. There is room to integrate the language aspects with performance of soft skills in a more seamless manner.

Situations provided in the stories are connected to various soft skills, and hopefully both students and teachers will recognize the immense potential these stories offer to further learn, integrate and use language skills and soft skills. Creativity of both students and teachers will add value to the content and structure of this very useful book.

Curriculum Developers to Note …

Teaching Soft Skills has not received the attention it deserves in our academic reading and writing in the classroom. Such skills are generally considered to be part of work experience, not relevant to academic mastery of various subjects.

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However, as study of academic subjects, choice of career and promotion in the chosen career are increasingly recognized as important values that depend on successful use of soft skills, we now have begun to emphasize the importance of soft skills and appropriate language use even when students learn academic subjects in colleges, etc.

Imparting these skills were once the privileged domain of the corporate sector, but the corporate sector now prefers those who have mastered these skills even at the entry point.

A Need-filling and Timely Book

Yet, very few attempts have been made to develop reliable resource material in lucid style to inculcate soft skills. This scenario leaves thousands of potential candidates jobless. The book, *English Soft Skills* by Professor S. P. Dhanavel fills this need and bridges the gap between eligible candidates and the expectations of the job market.

The book is an eye-opener for curriculum designers and material developers to reflect on the changing contours of higher education in India in order to meet global standards.

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