## Contents

1. EAT Expressions in Manipuri **1-15**  
   N. Pramodini, Ph.D.

2. Learning from Movies - 'Slumdog Millionaire' and Language Awareness **16-26**  
   Maya Khemlani David, Ph.D. & Caesar DeAlwis, Ph.D.

3. Maternal Interaction and Verbal Input in Normal and Hearing Impaired Children **27-36**  
   Ravikumar, M.Sc., Haripriya, G., M.Sc., and Shyamala, K. C., Ph.D.

4. Role of L2 Motivation and the Performance of Intermediate Students in the English (L2) Exams in Pakistan **37-49**  
   Tahir Ghafoor Malik, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate

5. Problems in Ph.D. English Degree Programme in Pakistan - The Issue of Quality Assurance **50-60**  
   Umar-ud- Din, M. Kamal Khan and Shahzad Mahmood

6. Using Technology in the English Language Classroom **61-77**  
   Renu Gupta, Ph.D.

7. Teaching Literature through Language – Some Considerations **78-90**  
   Abraham Panavelil Abraham, Ph.D.

8. e-Learning of Japanese Pictography - Some Perspectives **91-102**  
   Sanjiban Sekhar Roy, B.E., M.Tech., and Santanu Mukerji, M.A.

9. Is It a Language Worth Researching? **103-111**  
   Muhammad Gulfraz Abbasi, M. A., Ph.D.
### Contents List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethnographic Challenges in the Study of Pahari Language</td>
<td>Scholar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Using a Reading Material for Interactive Reading</td>
<td>M. Hemamalini, M.A. (Ling.), M.A. (Eng.), Ph.D. and K. Devadoss, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Importance of Task-Based Teaching in Second Language Acquisition - A Review</td>
<td>Hossein Shams Hosseini, Ph.D. Candidate &amp; N. Nadaraja Pillai, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Skill Enhancement Techniques - The Necessary Tools for the Indian Management Students</td>
<td>Tanu Kashyap, M.Phil, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. African American Literature and Ishmael Reed's Novels – Hoodism</td>
<td>R. Krishnaveni, M.A., M.Sc., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Instances of Code Switching in Indian Television Serials</td>
<td>B. A. Mahalakshmi Prasad, M.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The Role of Compounding in Technical English Prescribed for Engineering Students in Tamilnadu</td>
<td>P. Malathy, M.A., Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Polite Request Strategies as Produced by Yemeni EFL Learners</td>
<td>Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate and Azimah Binti Sazalie, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Manju Kapoor's <em>Difficult Daughters</em> - A Saga of Feminist Autonomy and Separate Identity</td>
<td>Mayur Chhikara, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Reflections on Partition Literature - A Comparative Analysis of <em>Ice Candy Man</em> and <em>Train to Pakistan</em></td>
<td>Umar ud Din, M. Kamal Khan and Shahzad Mahmood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Mother Tongue! The Neglected Resource for English Language Teaching And Learning</td>
<td>Ravi Bhushan, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Breaking the Good Mother Myths - A</td>
<td>Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study of the Novels of Amy Tan  <strong>221-234</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Effect of Teachers’ Academic Qualification  <strong>235-245</strong></td>
<td>Umar-ud-Din, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate, M. Kamal Khan, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate, and Shahzad Mahmood, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Let Us Learn from Our Standard 1 Textbook, Again! - A Brief Note on the New Standard 1 Tamil Textbook in Tamilnadu  <strong>252-257</strong></td>
<td>M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A PRINT VERSION OF ALL THE PAPERS OF JULY 2010 ISSUE IN BOOK FORMAT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EAT Expressions in Manipuri

N. Pramodini, Ph.D.

Abstract

The consumption verb ca- ‘eat’ in Manipuri is a rich source of metaphorical extensions into a variety of cognate semantic domains. Prototypical ca- ‘eat’ metaphors encode overcoming/control of a patient or theme by an animate/inanimate agent (and part experiencer) functioning as subject, e.g., əy cey care ‘I got beating (I ate a stick)’, epəl tin care ‘Insect bit the apple’ (Insect ate the apple), ’ma sen yamnə cay ‘He takes a lot of bribe (He eats a lot of money)’. manə əygi koksi care ‘He harasses me a lot (He eats my head)’, əygi unsa ca-thetle ‘My skin is lacerated (My skin has been eaten)’.

Thus, the metaphorical overcome and undergo outputs are often maximally distinct in meaning, and these correlations are directly inherited from their differing physical/ontological properties. The highly multifaceted nature of ‘eat’ event gives rise to interesting clausal properties of these predicates. Thus this verb is a source for a large number of figurative uses in Manipuri with meanings associated with such as consumption of non-edible items, torment, alignment, as well as participating in idiomatic expressions which can be quite opaque semantically. This work is important in that it looks at fine details of structure and conceptualization in Manipuri not often covered in the study of grammars.

Introduction

This paper explores the conceptualizations of basic and other activities of eating and the effects they have on Manipuri and how they are coded, and what sorts of metaphorically-based grammaticalizations develop from the forms used to code these
activities. This work looks at fine details of structure and conceptualization Manipuri not often covered in standard grammars.

Basic verbs often have multiple usages in a given language. The EAT verb in Manipuri is such a verb. The study done by Pardeshi, et al. (2006) on the verb EAT discusses its several extension with various meanings, including a semantic network diagram that tries to capture the correlations and development pathways. The paper by Pardeshi, et al. focuses on a typological overview of the distribution of the extended usages and semantic range that covers by the verb EAT. The languages discussed in the study are selected from Euro-asia: Persia, Tajik, Turkish, Uzbek, Kyrgyz, Kashmiri, Hindi-Urdu, Bengali, Marathi, Gujarati, Telugu, Sinhale, Mongolia, Korean, Japanese, Thai, Vietnamese, Khmer and Mandarin.

However, Kiryu (2008) argues that their study does not contain any languages from another linguistic group, the Tibeto-Burman family in Asia which may be the single linguistic group that stretches from the Far East in China to the Middle East in Pakistan. This group covers a wide variety of languages sub-groups that are worth studying from typological point of view. Kiryu (ibid) made an extensive study of the EAT expressions in Kathmandu Newar, which surely is an important welcome addition to enrich pardeshi et al.’s work from a typological perspective. In line with the study already carried out in other languages, the aim of this paper is to study the multiple usages of the verb EAT cabə by examining examples from Manipuri, a Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Manipuri valley. Before we go to the analysis of the EAT expressions in Manipuri, a brief overview of the analysis of typological distribution of the extended usage and the semantic range that the expression EAT covers is in order.

A Geotypology of EAT-expressions in Languages of Euro-Asia

Pardeshi, et al.(2006) recognize nine categories to classify both the basic and extended uses of EAT in terms of the grammatical roles and their features under three parameters related to animacy, agency and concreteness, as in Table 1.

The parameters for subject distinguish two types of subject in terms of macro roles, actor and undergoer. The subject in Categories A through D bears the role of actor, while that in the rest bears the role of undergoer, which is theme, patient or experiencer.

Some typical subjects and objects for each category except Category I are listed in Table 2, based on the schematic illustrations in Pardesh, et al.(2006: 93). Pardeshi et al. argue that the variety of extended meanings of EAT results from a semantic complexity of verb. They present the main aspects of EAT as the following nine properties.

(i) making an item decrease as it is consumed.
(ii) making it disappear.
(iii) incorporating one thing in another.
(iv) absorbing the properties of the item eaten.
(v) reacting to the properties of the eaten item.
(vi) outward display or reflection of the properties of the item eaten.
(vii) coming in intimate bodily contact with something.
(viii) use of the mouth.
(ix) living or depending on the items that are eaten.

These basic aspects of the action of eating service as sources for semantic extension.

Table 1: EAT Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Sense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>men, women, etc.</td>
<td>bread, water, cigarettes, betel leaf, etc.</td>
<td>basic sense of ‘to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>men, women, etc.</td>
<td>money, bribe, profit, rent, etc.</td>
<td>‘to bribe’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>cars, computers, jobs, etc.</td>
<td>fuel, time, electricity, etc.</td>
<td>‘to consume’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>balls, kites, boats, rope, etc.</td>
<td>a bounce, swing, kink, etc.</td>
<td>inanimate agent’s performing an action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>humans</td>
<td>whip, bullets, sword, cudgel, curses, etc.</td>
<td>Subjects affected by an instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>humans</td>
<td>deception, defeat, eviction; anger, fear, sorrow, etc.; rust, ants, dust, etc.</td>
<td>Subjects undergo or emotion inanimate subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>books, grain, knives, etc.</td>
<td>heat, cold, dampness, etc</td>
<td>by entities. inanimate subjects by forces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>crops, clothes, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Typical arguments for each category

EAT expressions in Manipuri

Where do the various semantic extensions of Manipuri originate is yet to be ascertained. Focusing on this question, we would now concentrate on the various usages of Manipuri EAT.

Among South Asian languages, the directness and intensity of language contact with Persian seems to play an important role in the repertoire of EAT expression.
Urdu which had a longer and more extensive contact with Persian abounds in EAT expression (Pardeshi et al 2006). It is now pertinent to raise a question how did the multiple expressions of EAT come to be shared with other languages.

Manipuri, though, did not have direct contact with it but it has direct contact with Hindi and Bengali, hence it may be within the Hindi- Urdu fall in terms of their inventories of EAT expression.

It appears that sets of expressions such as həwa ‘air’cəbə ‘eat’ which frequently occurs in Manipuri made inroads in the lexicon of Manipuri as loan translations from Bengali or Hindi. This may well be the case as Manipuri possesses EAT expression in fairly sizable numbers. The abundance of EAT expression in Hindi-Urdu might have kept the seeds alive which give rise the emergence of EAT expression in Manipuri. However, this is by no means the only plausible explanation of the fact that EAT verb exists in Manipuri in common with other Indian languages.

On the other hand it may not be necessarily the result of language contact, as one may like to argue that the EAT expression in Manipuri, are attested in old Manipuri as idiomatic expressions – like hay-raŋ lonja cəbə which means to have illicit relationship between a girl and a boy, which specifically refers to girls. As a large number of EAT expressions as is found as a part of a contemporary native speaker’s lexicon, we would argue that Manipuri lexicon has gained considerable number of borrowings over a period of 300 years since the advent of Hinduism in Manipuri through Bengali Vaishnavism.

While I argue that language contact has definitely played and continues to play a significant role, it is proposed here that there is also the independent operation of a radial network of semantic extensions as a possible complementary factor in the proliferation and convergence of EAT expressions. This is evident in the abundant use of EAT expressions given in the word list provided towards the end of this paper. If this hypothesis is valid, the abundant use of EAT verb in Manipuri may qualify as an aerial linguistic feature that has currency across a number of Asian and central Asian languages.

In this section, I shall discuss the Manipuri, EAT cəbə and its extended meanings in the context of categories presented by Pardeshi et al. The data were collected from dailies, and speakers of Manipuri based on the list of EAT expression categories provided by Pardeshi et al (2006). In addition, some of the data were also taken from story books and novels and my database.

**Category A**

The category A gives the basic meaning of the verb. In some languages for example, Bengali, there is no restriction that the verb can take only solid substances as it can as well take liquid substances. In Manipuri, however, the food that can be eaten is limited to solid substances. Liquid substances such as water soup or any other things which appear watery cannot appear as object of ca-. Instead, the thəkpə ‘to drink’ should be used for all liquid substances. The same verb is also used for smoking. With regard to medicines, if it is liquid, the verb thəkpə must be used, whereas, if it is in the

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N. Pramodini, Ph.D.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri
form of tablets, capsules or powder, the verb cabə is used. However, it is to be noted that, the verb thəkpə to drink for water is not used if the water is extremely used for other purposes such as washing, cleaning etc, then the verb cabə is used.

For example,

\[ (nəkhoy) \text{ isiŋ kədaydəgi ca - y} \]
\[ \text{you water where from EAT ASP} \]
\[ \text{‘From where do you use water’} \]

If one specifically refers to the purpose of drinking then the verb thəkpə is to be used. This is seen in a discourse when a friend asks his/her friend in a water scarce season, from where she/he uses water. The other friend replies from the pond. The next question which immediately comes to the mind of the first speaker is ‘what about drinking(water)’; here, the word thəkpə ‘to drink’ is used in the discourse-

1st speaker – isin kəday də-gi ca - y
water where GEN EAT- ASP

2nd speaker – pukhri- də - gi ca – y
Pond LOC GEN EAT-ASP

1st speaker - thəknə bə di
drink NOM PART
‘What about drinking’

2nd speaker – thəknə - bə - di lay
drink NOM PART buy
(we) buy for drinking (water)

2nd speaker – isiŋ caŋə - bə thəknə - bə əmətə lai - tre
– water EAT REC NOM drink – NOM one LOC have- NEG-ASP
– ‘There is no water for eating and drinking’

From the above dialogue it is clearly seen that the water consumption, for washing, cleaning etc, the speakers use the verb cabə and if the purpose is specifically meant for drinking then the verb thəkpə is obligatorily used.

**Category B**

In category B, we find that, it takes an actor subject, which is animate and agentive, and takes non-edible items as the object. There are various meanings associated with the extended meanings with the properties of this category i) to take illegal benefit, ii) to make a living by eating

To take illegal benefit
ma pəisa cabə or sen cabə pəmi
he money EAT money EAT like
‘He likes taking bribe’ (literally ‘to eat money’)

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10 : 7 July 2010
N. Pramodini, Ph.D.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri
To make a living
bhara cabə
‘to live on rent’
əy bhara - nə ca – y
I rent INST EAT ASP
‘I make a living out of rent’ (‘I eat rent’)
əy thəbək təw - ra - gə cabə mi- ni
I work do ASSOC EAT man COP
‘I make a living by working’ (‘I am a man who eat by working’).

isagi irən - nə cabə--ni
myself property INST EAT COP
‘I live on my own property’
(literally I eat my own property)

What is interesting in the examples – ‘rent’ and property appears in the instrumental case, not in the absolutive case. Here as, in the case of Newari (Kiryu 2008), it is possible to consider the verb cabə in an intransitive verb and the literal translation would be ‘to eat by rent’. However, it could be considered that it is still the object even though it is in the instrumental case. In Manipuri case does not always reflect the grammatical roles such as subject and object. In Manipuri subjects and objects are optionally deleted if they are understood from the context.

To eat someone’s head/brain
məsi nupa –si - nə əy-gi kok - si ca-re
This man DET ERG I GEN head DET EAT
‘This man torments me’. (‘This man has eaten my head’.)

məsi– gi thəbək – si - nə kok ca-re
This GEN work DET INST head EAT – ASP
‘This work gives me a lot of trouble’   (‘This work has eaten my brain’)

In Manipuri eating someone’s head indicates that, the subject either animate or inanimate annoys or troubles someone. This category assumes an animate and inanimate subject

To enjoy life:

A sense of enjoying life is expressed by the verb cabə
ma hawa cabə cətkhi
he air EAT go ASP
‘He has gone for a walk’. (‘He has gone to eat air’).

ma həwa ca – ri
He air EAT – ASP
‘He is relaxing (probably by sitting in the open air)’
EAT Expressions in Manipuri

("He is eating air")

**Category C**

Expressing referring to the category C is – animate/-patient and the object is – abstract. The major sense in this category listed in Pardeshi et al. (2006) is consumption such as to consume fuel, to take time, to use electricity, to cost money.

1) məsi gari – si thaw yamnə ca-y
   This vehicle DET oil much EAT – ASP
   ‘This vehicle eats lots of oil’

2) phriz əmənbə - si məy yamnə ca – y
   fridge old DET electricity much EAT - ASP
   ‘This old fridge consumes a lot of electricity’

3) məsği thəbək – si pəisa yamnə ca- y
   This work DET money much EAT – ASP
   ‘This work is very expensive’(This work eats a lot of money),

In case of engines consuming too much oil, the verb drink thəkpə is sometimes used to indicate the extent of the unusual consumption of oil by the particular engine, otherwise the verb is EAT is used.

Another type of expressions in this category are such that the subject physically affects the object.

\[
\text{thəŋ} \text{ kothing (nə) ca – re} \\
\text{knife rust ERG EAT - ASP} \\
The rust ate the knife (The knife got rusted)
\]

\[
yumsi sum(ṇə) ca – re \\
House DET moth EAT – ASP\]
\(\text{The moths ate the house}\)

\[
lai – riksi tin(ṇə) ca – re \\
book – DET insect INST EAT – ASP \\
Insects ate the books
\]

\[
epəl – si tin - nə ca – re \\
apple DET insect INST EAT-ASP \\
Insects ate the apple
\]

It is seen from the above examples that the affected entities are placed before the affecting entities which appears that this is the usual order. If we change the order and place the affecting entities before the affected ones, the order seems quite unnatural.

Interestingly we find that the marker – na which instrumental marker in these sentences have become optional and use almost without it resulting to a fixed word
order of the type given in the examples that if the word order is reversed, it sounds unnatural. In this, we can see a development of an idiom chunk of the agent and verb that they are not separated. The question is whether the ergative NPs are still regarded as subjects and the absolutive NPs as objects. An important clue contains to the question in the following examples where the meaning is not idiomatic but literal.

\[
\text{tin} - \text{no epal} \quad \text{ca} - \text{re} \\
\text{insect} \ \text{ERG} \quad \text{apple} \ \text{EAT} - \text{ASP} \\
\text{‘The insect ate the apple’}
\]

Notice that in this sentence the ergative marker cannot be optionally used. If it is dropped the sentence becomes unnatural. The difference between this sentence and above sentences is the case form that ‘insect’ takes. The absolutive form of insect in Manipuri is ‘tin’. This fact suggests that the ergative NP when the ergative marker is dropped, the NP with the verb EAT forms an idiomatic chunks. Thus, the entire clause may be regarded as an intransitive clause.

**Category – D**

The category D takes – animate/-patientive subject and +abstract object. Manipuri does not have expressions with assumed clause pattern to express meaning presented in Pardeshi et al.(2006).

**Category E**

Category E consists of expressions with an animate subject and a concrete object. Here, the subject is the patient and is affected by eating the object which expresses a kind of Pseudo-passive sense. Manipuri has many examples which use body parts to express a pseudo-passive sense.

1. \[
\text{ma} \quad \text{no} \text{mpay} \quad \text{mru} \ \text{care} \\
\text{he} \quad \text{gun} \quad \text{bullet} \ \text{EAT-ASP} \\
\text{‘He was shot’} .(‘ \text{He ate a bullet’}).
\]

2. \[
\text{ma} \quad \text{cay} \quad \text{ca-re} \\
\text{he} \quad \text{stick} \quad \text{EAT-ASP} \\
\text{‘He was beaten with a stick’} \ (‘\text{He ate stick’}).
\]

3. \[
\text{ma} \quad \text{khupak} \quad \text{ca-re} \\
\text{he} \quad \text{palm} \quad \text{EAT-ASP} \\
\text{‘He ate a palm (he was stroked with a palm)’}
\]

4. \[
\text{ma} \quad \text{khutum} \quad \text{ca-re} \\
\text{he} \quad \text{first} \quad \text{eat-ASP} \\
\text{‘He ate a fist (he was punched)’}
\]

Manipuri also uses sharp edges cutting tools such as spade, knife/sword etc to have more expressions of this kind.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri

(5) ma yotpak ca-re
he spade eat-ASP
‘He was struck by a spade’ (‘He ate spade.’)

(6) ma thanη ca-re
he knife eat-ASP
‘He was struck by a knife’. (‘He ate knife’)

Although the examples above have been discussed in the bare form, they can also be used in the causative construction in which the verb ca – ‘eat’ takes the causative suffix - hən –

Another type of expression that falls in this category is the verbal effect on the subject, such as scolding rebuking etc.

əy micəy ca-re
I scold eat-ASP
‘I have been scolded’. (‘I ate scolding’).

Category F
Here, in the category F the subject is also affected in that it is similar to the category E but the object in this category is an abstract entity. In this category, the subject is affected by the action related to the object and the expression appears like a pseudo-passive.

unsa caphət-le
Skin lacerate - ASP
‘The skin is lacerated. (‘The skin is being eaten’).

unsa ca-thət-le
skin lacerate – ASP
‘The skin is lacerated’. (‘The skin is being eaten’).

Here, in the above two sentences we can see the presence of two vector verbs namely, phət (<pat ‘to get boil’) and that (<tət ‘break’) which gives added meaning to the main verb ca- ‘eat’

Category G

Category G consists of expressions with inanimate subject affected by the object such as dust, smoke. Manipuri has the following examples:

1a) phəklaη-si maykhu -nə ca-re
wall DET smoke INST EAT- ASP
‘The wall is damaged by smoke’.(‘This wall is eaten by smoke’)

1b) phəklaη-si maykhu ca-re
wall DET smoke EAT ASP
‘ The wall is damaged by smoke’.(‘This wall is eating smoke’)

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10 : 7 July 2010
N. Pramodini, Ph.D.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri
In the above a) sentences, the wall, book and computer are the subjects and agents as well which do the eating of smoke and dust while, in the b) sentences the subject ‘smoke’ dust are the agents which do the eating. The b) sentences are usually used when the wall, book and computer are thickened with smoke and dust when their appearances look almost destroyed by smoke and dust. It is a matter where one thinks the focus lies in internalization or destruction.

This category also contains expressions with inanimate and animate subject affected by the object such as sunlight, cow dung.

2a) lay rik-si uphun-nə ca-re
    book DET dust INST EAT-ASP
    ‘The book is spoilt by dust’.(This book is eaten by dust.’).

b) lay rik-si uphun ca-re
    book DET dust EAT-ASP
    ‘The book is spoilt by dust’.(This book is eating dust.’).

3a) komputər-si uphun -nə ca-re
    computer DET dust INST EAT-ASP
    ‘This computer is damaged by dust’.(Dust is eating this computer’).

b) komputər-si uphun ca-re
    computer DET dust EAT-ASP
    This computer is damaged by dust’ (This computer is eating dust’).

In the above a) sentences, the wall, book and computer are the subjects and agents as well which do the eating of smoke and dust while, in the b) sentences the subject ‘smoke’ dust are the agents which do the eating. The b) sentences are usually used when the wall, book and computer are thickened with smoke and dust when their appearances look almost destroyed by smoke and dust. It is a matter where one thinks the focus lies in internalization or destruction.

This category also contains expressions with inanimate and animate subject affected by the object such as sunlight, cow dung.

phi du nʊŋsa ca - hən - li
    cloth DET sunlight eat CAU ASP
    ‘The cloth is being exposed in the sunlight’(The cloth is made to eat sunlight’).

phi du sənthi ca - hən - lu
    cloth DET cow dung EAT CAU IMP
    ‘Let the cloth be soaked in the cow dung’.(‘Let the cloth eat cow dung’).

This metaphorical extension is based on the internalization of food that is the cloth being exposed in the sunlight (the cloth eating the sunlight) and the cloth being soaked in the cow dung paste (cloth eating the cow dung). This process is usually done when the cloth is to be made much whiter. Here the subject is the patient of the sentence.

Category H

Expressions in category H take – animate/+patientive subjects affected by constant handling particularly by hand.

1. laydhibi – du khutnaŋ ca – re

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10 : 7 July 2010
N. Pramodini, Ph.D.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri
doll DET dirt EAT ASP

2. ‘The doll has become dirty and worn out (literally the doll has eaten dirt from hands due to constant handling)’
layrik – tu khutnaŋ ca – re
book DET dirt EAT – ASP
‘The book has become dirty and worn out (due to constant handling)’

3. hui – du khutnaŋ ca – re
dog DET dirt EAT – ASP
‘The dog has not grown (because of dirt of constant handling)’

Usually the clause pattern is used with inanimate object but in the example 3 we have an animate object which is expressed in the same clause pattern, probably because dogs, cats etc are considered like toys where children can handle them easily. Hence the sentence is a perfectly acceptable sentence.

Category I

In the typology given by Pardeshi et al. (2006) the category I contains expression that do not fall in the other categories, but the expression is idiomatic. In this category we find one case of idiomatic usage in Manipuri as the example below illustrates.

hayraŋ lonja - cabə həwnə - de
fruit secreteat eat proper NEG
‘Its not proper to have illicit relationship (literally one should not eat fruit secretly)’

This expression, however, when asked to younger age group they do not seem to know the meaning of this idiomatic expression as its usage is restricted to the study of old literature and old plays etc.

Conclusion

I have tried to examine the Manipuri EAT expressions in accordance with the categories proposed by Pardeshi et al. (2006).

Manipuri has expressions pertaining to Categories A, B, C, E, F, G, H and I, while lacking only expression pertaining to category D. Categories A, and B take animate subjects which serve as agents of the expressions. However, the difference in category A takes edible substances as objects, while the Category B takes non-edible items as objects.

Unlike the first two categories, in the expressions in Category C, the subjects are all inanimate which take inanimate objects such as fuel, electricity, etc.

E to H take an undergoer subjects and express a pseudo passive sense like in Newari (Kiryu 2008). In Manipuri such a pseudo passive sense is allowed only with animate
subjects, i.e., in categories E and F, while it is not allowed with inanimate subjects in categories G and H. This is to be explained in terms of animacy and empathy.

Animate objects are interpreted as empathetic. They are, therefore, easier to encode as patient. In Manipuri, subjects are generally animate, unless it is the case of cause-effect with natural force that is interpreted as a source of energy categories G and H.

The expressions in categories G and H which take affecting entities and forces in the object position contradict this tendency and it is more natural to have the affecting entities in the subject position as they are the source of affect on the semantic patient. Therefore, just like in Newar (ibid) similar meanings are found in category C in Manipuri. The use of idiomatic expression in the category I, I found only one example in Manipuri.

List of Manipuri words with EAT expression

1) yotcabi - ‘magnet (the one which eats iron)’
2) noηjabi - ‘cloud in reddish colour (the one which eats rain)’
3) mukcabi - ‘bloating paper (the one which eats ink)’
4) səmjabi - ‘the one which eats hair’
5) natoncabi - ‘rose muscata (the one which eats nose)’
6) hiŋ cabi - ‘monstress/Vampire (the one who eats raw)’
7) khet cabi - ‘right hand person’
8) α-οn-ο-οn cabə - ‘fence sitter’
9) məphəm cabə - ‘right place’
10) məpən cabə - ‘compatible companion’
11) mətən cabə - ‘appropriate time and place’
12) khudən cabə - ‘to take opportunity’
13) mətən cabə - ‘right time’
14) minəm cabə - ‘to take the smel’
15) mərən cabə - ‘to live on other’s property’
16) micay cabə - ‘to get scolding (to eat abuses)’
17) noηmay cabə - ‘to be shot (to eat bullet)’
18) than cabə - ‘to stab (to eat knife)’
19) ətnən cabə - ‘to get profit (to eat profit)’
20) yotpak cabə - ‘by spade (to eat)’
21) macən cabə - ‘proportionate’
22) uphun cabə - ‘covered with dust (to eat dust)’
23) uphəm cabə - ‘compatible frames’
24) wanom sen cabə - ‘broker/lout (to eat bribe)’
25) senja-thumja (-sen ca-thumcha) - ‘bribe’
26) thao- cabə - ‘to consume oil’
27) unsa cathəpə - ‘lacerate’
28) unsa chaphəpə - ‘lacerate’
29) neglek cabə - ‘neglecting things (to eat neglect)’
30) smart cabə - ‘acting smart/showing smartness (to eat smart)’
31) mi cabə - ‘to torture/harass (to eat human)’
32) kok cabə - ‘to torture (to eat head)’
33) pat cabə - ‘to own a lake (to eat a lake)’
34) bhara cabə - ‘to live on rent (to eat rent)’
35) phəmja cabə - ‘idler (to eat by sitting)’
36) cak-ca yuthək - ‘style of eating and drinking/manner of eating’
37) layray cabə - ‘crumbled bank (to eat river or pond bank)’
38) həyraη lonja cabə - ‘adulterous relationship (to eat fruit secretly)’
39) nuηsa- cabə - ‘putting out at the sunlight (to eat sunlight)’
40) may khu cabə - ‘absorbing smoke (to eat smoke)’
41) santhi cabə - ‘washing with cowdung (to eat cowdung)’
42) thi cabə - ‘to rebuke someone (to eat dung)’
43) məcəη cabə - ‘to take the best one (to eat best grains)’
44) nap cabə - ‘reasonable/right fitting’
45) məy cabə - ‘consuming power/electric (to eat power (fire))’
46) həwə cabə - ‘breathing fresh air (to eat air)’
47) cay cabə - ‘beating with stick (to eat stick)’
48) tin cabə - ‘spoilt/rotten (eaten by insect)’
49) khupak cabə - ‘beating with hand (to eat palm stroke)’
50) kin cabə - ‘to knock someone finger (to eat)’
51) kin cabə - ‘to eat fruit’
52) khun iη cabə - ‘to beat with elbow (to eat elbow)’
53) khonpak cabə - ‘to kick with foot (to eat foot)’
54) laytum cabə - ‘to throw clod (to eat clod)’
55) nət cabə - ‘to eat mite’
56) Khoηup cabə - ‘beating by shoe (to eat shoes)’
57) Sandal cabə - ‘beating by slipper (to eat slipper)’
58) məhəy cabə - ‘fruitful (to eat fruits/effort)’
59) məhəy cabə - ‘to eat fruit’
60) łoysəw cabə - ‘eaten by termite (to eat termite)’
61) naori cabə - ‘to hit by catapult (to eat catapult)’
62) ce cabə - ‘to polish with paper (to eat paper)’
63) sum cabə - ‘mite eaten (to eat mite)’
64) kothing cabə - ‘rusted/corroded (to eat rust)’
65) ści cabə - ‘eaten by termite (to eat termite)’
66) nət cabə - ‘to look at each other eye to eye’
67) thahkanaba - ‘apprehensive’
68) ηəkcanəbə - ‘to get astonished’
69) thahkanaba - ‘to get astonished’
70) məpa cabə - ‘well-suited/right time’
71) ləysəw cabə - ‘left by termite (to eat termite)’
72) matik mapa cabə - ‘compatibility in status’
73) nat cabə - ‘to fix a screw (to eat a screw)’
74) mot cannəbə - ‘compatibility in views and ideas’
75) wakhən cannəbə - ‘compatibility in views of thoughts’
76) naori cabə - ‘to hit by catapult (to eat catapult)’
77) saiəo cabə - ‘to hit by catapult (to eat catapult)’
78) caphu cabə - ‘recognition (to eat cooking food)’
79) caphu canəbə - ‘recognition (to eat each others cooking food)’
80) manəm cabə - ‘to take the smell (to eat smell)’
81) khenəm cabə - ‘to get scolding (to eat abuses)’
82) cakoy cabə - ‘loafer (person who eats everywhere)’
83) natay cabə - ‘reasonable/ suitable’
84) thak cannəbə - ‘unsteady’
85) cuŋ phiran cabə - ‘symmetrical, proportionate’
86) khut cabə - ‘recognition (to eat food cooked by a person)’
87) məcum-cabə - ‘to depend on (to eat somebody property)’
88) matik cabə - ‘qualified’
89) məram cabə - ‘reasonable’
90) mə-oŋ cabə - ‘proportionate (in shape, size)’
91) mathoy cabə - ‘person who take interest (the one who eats interest)’
92) lemja cabə - ‘loafer’
93) cap cabə - ‘proportionate’
94) phirep cabə - ‘stable’
95) maya cabə - ‘to sharpen teeth(impliments)’
96) khutthaŋ cabə - ‘to obtain/profit by passing through different people’
97) məthoŋ cabə - ‘suitable’
98) cak cannabə - ‘feast (to eat food together)’
99) khonthi cabə - ‘to get scolding (to eat abuses)’
100) məpu cabə - ‘to torment master (to eat master)’
101) likhun cabə - ‘proper route (to eat right track)’
102) saŋy cabə - ‘to get beating with stick (to eat stick)’
103) sen cabə - ‘to take bribe (to eat money)’
104) paysə cabə - ‘to take bribe (to eat money)’
105) cak-lem cabə - ‘loafer (to eat one’s left over)’
106) isiŋ cabə - ‘to use water (to eat water)’

Abbreviations used:

ASP Aspect
ASSOC Associative
COP Copula
DET Determinar
ERG Ergative
INST Instrumental
GEN Genitive
LOC Locative
NEG Negative
NOM Nominative

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N. Pramodini, Ph.D.
EAT Expressions in Manipuri
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Abstract

It is important for language teachers and students in multilingual societies to know when, why and with whom a language should be chosen. In this way teachers and students can make links between their linguistic repertoire and the discourse norms of the various interlocutors in such a diverse society. Those with limited language proficiency when speaking to someone who speak a different language might have to use various communicative strategies acquired from their first language to compensate for their lack of proficiency in their speech partner’s language. This paper describes the communicative strategies in interactions as used in the movie *Slumdog Millionaire* to show how an audience outside India, could actually understand the movie which is not entirely in English. This paper shows how a diverse audience who can speak English but not Hindi are able to negotiate meanings through the dialogues which display the use of unique communicative strategies. Learners and teachers can learn from movies such as Slumdog Millionaire and become sociolinguistically competent in a multilingual society. In *Slumdog Millionaire*, which will be discussed, the characters who are young urbanites code mix many English lexical items in their Hindi dialogues.

Keywords: teacher, learner, communicative strategies, movies

Introduction

Teachers and students in a multilingual society must be aware of the various discourse norms in a multilingual society. One such norm is the choice of the correct language to use with different
interlocutors depending on the setting and objective of the discourse. Communicative strategies are normally employed to overcome inadequacies in communication and these strategies should be taught to students to cope with sociolinguistic variables in multilingual societies. According to Fishman (1972), a community is expected to be sensitive to the domain in which interactions take place. The language used a domain depends on the participants or interlocutors, their role relationships, the topics under discussion and the setting. Hence, teachers and students through the use of movies, may acquire such language awareness.

One easy way of making language teachers and learners aware of the sociolinguistic norms of when, where, why a particular language should be used is to extract excerpts of spoken discourse. Taking examples from ‘Slumdog Millionaire’, the writers will show how such language awareness can be realized. English teachers and students in multilingual settings will benefit from using such instructional materials.

**Communicative strategies**

A number of communicative strategies are used in *Slumdog Millionaire* to connect with an international audience. The concept of communicative strategies is not foreign in sociolinguistics. Bialystok (1983:103) defines communicative strategies as ‘all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication.” In addition, Tarone (1983: 64) states that communicative strategies are used to compensate for some lack in the linguistic system, and focus on exploring alternate ways of using what one does not know for the transmission of a message, without necessarily considering situational appropriateness. Although Thao Le (2005) says that communicative strategies are often used in daily interaction. David (2001) is of the opinion that they serve to compensate for the inadequacies of speakers and listeners in the target language which is being used. To summarize, communicative strategies are strategies employed by speakers when they counter a communication problem during conversation.

As Crystal says (1998: 137) “even if new Englishes did become increasingly different, as years went by, the consequences for World English would not necessarily be fatal.” The movie, as a product, succeeds in showcasing its ability to show the needs of linguistic pragmatism.

Boyle (2006) says that he has taken the stand to face the challenges head-on through his aspirations to make the movie appealing to an international audience. According to him, his team had to monitor the language used by the actors and work out appropriate and acceptable standards of English/Hindi for both their Indian and international audience. By saying that the use of English in the movie is for international comprehensibility it largely means that it has a linguistic standard in order to get the message across effectively to the international audience. To achieve this various communicative strategies such as code-switching, code-convergence, translation and code-mixing are used to retain its Indian identity and to communicate with the international audience.
This paper will show how ESL teachers can make use of movies like *Slumdog Millionaire* to create language awareness and make students aware of language usage. The materials culled from the movie can be used to discuss issues like with them when, where, why, and who uses code-switching as a communicative strategy.

**Code-switching a universal phenomenon**

Gumperz (1982, p.97) defines code-switching as a discourse phenomenon in which speakers rely on juxtapositions of grammatically distinct subsystems to generate conversational inferences. Conversational code-switching is defined by Gumperz (1982, p.59) as a situation when a speaker may switch code, that is, varieties, within a single sentence, and may even do so several times.

For this paper, code-switching, as a communicative strategy will be focused on as it is the most common strategy used in the movie *Slumdog Millionaire*. Code-switching in movie dialogues is a common phenomenon in Bollywood movies nowadays. Perhaps, it would not have been written if it does not sound natural to native Hindi speakers. However, such code-switching practices have indirectly made it easier for an international audience to comprehend the movies from Bollywood. Danny Boyle, the British director of *Slumdog Millionaire*, script writer Simon Beaufoy and co-director in India Loveleen Tandan, have also adopted code-switching for the dialogues without any qualms about using English in the Hindi movie dialogues.


*Slumdog Millionaire* has these criteria to be used as a pedagogical tool

i. The content of the movie is not to be interrupted even though English is used intermittently with Hindi.

ii. Both languages are used throughout the movie.

iii. The decisions to switch relate to when, who is speaking to who and where it happens.

**Synopsis of the Movie Slumdog Millionaire**

Jamal Malik (Dev Patel), an 18 year old orphan from the slums of Mumbai, is about to experience the biggest day of his life when he is merely a question away from winning a staggering twenty million rupees on India’s version of “Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?” However, when the show breaks for the night, police arrest him of suspicion of cheating simply because a slum boy could not have known all the answers to all the questions asked. Desperate, Jamal tells the police about his life in the slums and how he cleverly
answered the questions in the show as they were related to his life and experience. He tells of adventures on the road, of vicious encounters with local gangs, and of Latika, the girl he loves. Every chapter of his story reveals the key to the questions posed. Recounting his life history to the police, Jamal is close to winning twenty million rupees. He proves his innocence and continues with the game. He confidently answers the final question but not before a series of incidents befalling his brother Salim and Latika.

**Why This Analysis of Slumdog Millionaire**

*Slumdog Millionaire* has been chosen for analysis because it is highly popular and has been watched by millions of people around the world. The use of English code-switches in *Slumdog Millionaire* subconsciously reminded that English has “acquired unparallel functional and societal depth” (Kachru, 1994: 3) as it has it own distinctive roles in the Indian multilingual society. Simon Beaufoy’s script was originally entirely in English, but film director Boyle’s decision to have the children speak Hindi, instead, is the right call. Having the children speak in their native language makes perfect sense, especially because Boyle and Beaufoy depict the realism of the children’s lives.

**How to use code-switching in Slumdog Millionaire in the classroom**

i. Exploitation of the learners’ L1

Cole (1998, p.11) points out that the learning of an L2 can be enhanced through the exploitation of the learners’ L1. In other words, the L2 can act as a scaffold or bridge linking the unknown to the known. Learners and teachers should be aware that code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire* takes place without the interlocutors being consciously aware of it. Code-switching is, therefore, as shown in *Slumdog Millionaire*, an occurrence that may sometimes not even be a conscious choice. The code-switching practices in *Slumdog Millionaire* takes place unconsciously as a strategy to communicate more effectively among the interlocutors in the movie. Thus, through *Slumdog Millionaire*, new knowledge and language awareness is also conveyed to teachers and learners through code-switching as a strategy that expedites teaching and learning of English to those who already know Hindi but little English.

ii. To build a bridge between old and new

Code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire* is also used by the interlocutors to reiterate a new point. In this repetition function, teachers can help learners by building a bridge between old and new knowledge. One of the main aims of code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire* is to ensure international audience comprehensibility. Thus, the teachers and learners should be aware that code-switching as used in the movie helps to convey a more exact meaning to the audience. It also helps to ease communication with those who are less proficient in the target language.
Apart from reiterating a point, code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire* also tells the teachers and learners that it is a useful strategy to capture someone’s attention and to communicate more effectively. The more matured Jamal and educated group in the movie code-switched to identify with a particular group of urbanites.

Below are examples to show how code-switching is used to create language awareness by referring to *who, when, where* and *why* the language(s) is used.

In the movie, code-switching is used in at least two ways. Firstly, it is used to communicate to the audience the different phases of what is going on in the movie. In parts of the movie where the flashbacks occur and the audience is shown the lives of the children in the slums, the language used is Hindi. However, as the movie progresses to show the children becoming adults in a better world than the slums, more of English is used. The predominance of the English language is relatively a compensation to the non-Hindi speaking audience who would have to read subtitles in the earlier part of the movie. This is an indication to signal to the audience of the changes that have taken place in the lives of the characters. English could be used to show that the characters now have better lives than before since using English has been associated with better education and quality of life, given the economic opportunities that come with the ability to use the language.

A further illustration of this is when the brothers discover that they can earn a living by becoming English-speaking tour guides for foreign tourists visiting the Taj Mahal. Code-switching occurs due to economic reasons. The switch to English, in so far as it is explained, hinges on Salim and Jamal’s ability to extemporize the language in the city of Mumbai. The moview portrays India as a socio-linguistic giant of which multilingualism is the nerve system. So, code-switching and translation in different parts of the movie help to ensure that the audience is able to follow the direction of the story.

The language teacher can capitalize on this point to show language learners the importance of learning a target language like English. Knowledge of such an international language helps in earning a livelihood. There is no greater motivating factor for a child from a deprived environment who may not understand the importance of learning what to him/her appears as a foreign language.

Codeswitching is also seen to take place within the characters’ interactions in certain scenes from the movie i.e. between the speakers, code-switching occurs. The policemen who interrogated Jamal Malik, the contestant of *Who Wants to Be a Millionaire* (“Kaun Banega Crorepati”), used Hindi code-switches in dominant English, to motivate the audience to watch the movie until the end. The conversation between the two police officers who interrogated and tortured Jamal shows instances of Hindi code-switches in dominant English to depict social distance between the speakers and the victim (see Example 1).
Policeman: The *motherchud* is overthere.

Police Sergeant: He’s unconscious, *chutiya*, what good is that? *Are wa*, Siniwas, we’ll Amnesty international in here next.

(To Jamal): Your name, *ben chod*.

In the talk between Jamal and Prem Kumar, the host of the show, Hindi and English are used intermittently. Prem Kumar uses Hindi when he talks to Jamal privately before and during the show but immediately switches to English when the rounds begin. Although the setting influences his language choice, Prem Kumar does not forget to establish rapport with the audience in the two languages by greeting them with “Good evening, *namasca, saska racha*”. He also introduces the game show as “*Kaun Banega Crorepati-Who Wants to Be a Millionaire*”. The newscaster on television reporting the show, also uses a mixed code of more Hindi and less English. According to Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) participant roles and relationship play an important role in language use. Prem Kumar, sticks to the phrase *tea chaiwalla* which means ‘a boy who serves tea’ when referring to Jamal (see Example 2).

Prem: And what does an assistant phone basher do exactly?
Jamal: I get tea for people and…
Prem: *Chaiwalla*. A *chaiwalla*. Well ladies and gentlemen, Jamal Malik *garmal ga ram chai chare walla*’ from Mumbai, let’s play “Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?”

He continuously repeated the phrase with the purpose of making fun of Jamal whom he believes will never be able to win the game show. Prem is trying to depict Jamal as an uneducated young man.

The different ways of addressing Jamal Malik show the relationship between Jamal and the people around him. Most of the time, the characters in the movie address him as Jamal. Salim calls him Jamal and so does Latika. The only time when he is refereed to as ‘bhai’ by Salim is when the later wants to make amends with him for the wrong he (Salim) did i.e. robbing him of Latika. Prem Kumar addresses him as ‘*chaiwalla*’ and the police officers use derogatory terms by calling him ‘*benchod*’ and ‘*motherchud*’. The superiority shown by Prem Kumar and the policemen are obvious as seen in their forms of addressing Jamal who comes from one of the slums of Mumbai.

When Mister Nandha utters ‘*Ram nan satya hai, Babri Masjid dhvasth hai*’, it is understood that both Jamal and Salim will know the meaning since Hindi is their mother tongue. However, to make it comprehensible to the audience, the movie director makes Mister Nandha goes on to clarify and translate in English (see Example 3).

Mister Nandha: *Ram nan satya hai, Babri Masjid dhvasth hai*.
Jamal: Mister Nandha?
Mister Nandha: We have destroyed your mosque. Now the followers of Ram will drive you dogs out of the city.

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)
In *Slumdog Millionaire*, English is used to show power or authority. In the very first part of the movie two policemen on motorcycles were chasing the young Jamal and his friends who were playing on the airfield, and they shouted with authority, “Private kaland”. It is also not surprising that the police officer who interrogates Jamal speaks mostly in English to his subordinate and to Jamal. In another scene, Maman, the gangster speaks English to show that he has power over Salim, Jamal and Latika when he says (see Example 4)

Maman: Hello again… Jamal, Salim. Really thought that you could just walk in and take my prize away..

Before killing Maman, Salim shows his power when he utters words Maman normally used “Maman never forgets … isn’t that right?”. The police officer provokes and makes Jamal speak up by using English (see Example 5).

Police Officer: Was she pretty?
Jamal : ( No response)
Police Officer: I guess not.
Jamal: She’s the most beautiful woman in the world

Later the police office shows his power when he emphasizes the message that Jamal should take the ten million rupees rather than going for more (see Example 6).

Inspector: But you. You’ve got ten million rupees ek dum guaranteed, yaar? And who knows how much further? Fancy the twenty million, do you?

Code-switching at single lexical level occurs when certain lexical items like helicopter, autograph, gunfighter, future” become habitual. Arvin speaks Hindi to Jamal but switches when referring to the money note as ‘dollar’ and ‘Benjamin Franklin’. The shift from English to Hindi mimics the linguistic code-switching that Indians of a certain class use, and this depends on who they are speaking to as well as the things they are talking about. So it is not surprising that one might ask for a wine-list in English but use Hindi to order a plate of bhelpuri. In a childhood scene Salim and Maman converse in Hindi but single English lexical items are noted in their discourse (see Example 7).

Maman: *Jamal, ap time malgia he, professional mandega.* (It’s time to go professional.)
Salim: *Kia? Satchi?* (What? Really)

Hindi lexicals for curses are abundantly used in the dominant English dialogues. For example when Salim goes to see Javed, the chief gangster in Mumbai, one of Javed’s man answered Salim using Hindi curse words (see Example 8)

Salim: I’m looking for Javed.
Javed’s man: *Motherchud*! He is not looking for you.

Code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire*, is used with unfamiliar strangers although they share the same ethno-cultural identity. For instance Jamal switches to English when speaking to the guard at Javed’s house.

When apologizing and showing appreciation, English is also used even by the child characters. When the grown up Jamal expresses his sympathy to the blind Arvin, he uses English and says “I’m sorry”. He says ‘Thanks when he expresses his gratitude to Arvin for telling him where to find Latika. According to Annamalai (2001) that English greetings are very much Hindi in character too, especially the mention of ‘Thanks’.

Setting plays a significant role which trigger code-switching in *Slumdog Millionaire*. Ervin (1964) observes the various situations (settings) may be restricted with respect to the participants, the physical setting, the topics and functions and style employed. Although English is the official language in the game show, Prem Kumar often slips into Hindi. According to Gumperz (1982) a speaker switches to another language as a signal of a group membership and shared ethnicity with an addressee (see Example 9).

> Prem: Surdas… *ap ka* final answer?
> Jamal: B
> Prem: Computer *jee*, lock key *ajai*.

According to Kachru (1978:108) code-switching can be a marker of an attitude, intensity of emotions. In the scene in the classroom the teacher used English to teach ‘The Three Musketeers’ formally but switched to Hindi informally to show his disapproval when he saw Jamal and Salim entering late. The teacher switches to Hindi after saying ‘here comes our very own three musketeers’ and scolded the brothers.

Sridhar (1996: 53) believes that in a multilingual society, each language uniquely fulfills certain roles and represents distinct identities, and all of them complement one another to serve the complex communicative demands of a pluralistic society. *Slumdog Millionaire* shows that although Hindi and English are widely spoken in Mumbai, they are often used as code-switches, either more of one less of the other depending on interlocutors and topics and settings. However, English is the more prestigious language and has economic value compared to Hindi. This could explain why Jamal and Salim picked up English, as tour guides. The brothers have to accommodate to foreign tourists and learn their language for survival. This also corresponds to the speech accommodation theory (Giles, 1978) whereby the less powerful language user tends to converge to the speech styles or language choices of the more powerful interlocutor. The higher ranking police officer uses more English in his interrogation but his assistant uses more Hindi.

Even the soundtrack at the end of the move is made up of a mixed lyric of Indian and Hindi and this is a strategy for promoting the movie and for accommodating English and non-English speaking audiences.
The language teacher can make use of such snippets to depict the symbolic power of the English language. Learners will easily understand the need to use different language with different interlocutors for specific reasons when such snippets are shown. Teachers can ask questions like “Which language is used? Why? Who uses it with whom? How does setting influence language choice? How do speech acts influence language choice?”

**Conclusion**

Although Slumdog Millionaire appears to be a good movie to show how code-switching is employed unconsciously by different interlocutors as well as unconsciously, there are several pre-requisites for the movie to be used as a teaching aid. Cook (2002, p. 333) notes that there is one very important pre-requisite when using code-switching to create language awareness, and that is the students and teachers must all share the same L1. If this pre-requisite is not fulfilled then there will be students who will be left behind. Such a scenario could lead to the problem of the onset of semilingualism. Furthermore the teacher must have a sufficient level of competence in L1. This is again to reduce the risk of semilingualism.

Students may have optimal language awareness success if teachers made students aware of the different languages use by who with whom why, where and when. Textbooks are generally not a good source of input for students who want to be aware of the functions of certain language as the examples given are not real. In *Slumdog Millionaire*, code-switching can be perceived as an achievement strategy in order to get meaning across to the audience. Even though the movie was made by non-Indian film makers, *Slumdog Millionaire* has managed to depict the real life situations of a society probably unfamiliar to the audience. One of the factors that has played an important role in the audience comprehension (thus, enjoyment of the film) is the use of language. Although Hindi and English were both used, the overall effects as a result of code-switching as a communicative strategy employed to initiate and maintain comprehension has been successful.

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com 25
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Maternal Interaction and Verbal Input in Normal and Hearing Impaired Children

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Abstract

Maternal interaction represents the modified language spoken by the mothers to their young children. The present study aimed at studying the maternal interaction and verbal input in normal hearing and hearing impaired children.

Ten normal hearing children with ten linguistically matched hearing impaired children and their mothers participated in the study.

The mother-child interaction was audio recorded during a play context. A ten-minute sample was transcribed for each mother-child interaction.

The results indicated that the communicative functions of the mothers of the two groups varied significantly within groups. However, on comparison, the two groups showed no statistically significant difference. The findings of this study indicated occurrence of different communicative functions implying on the nature of intervention necessary for the hearing-impaired children. Parents play a primary role in teaching language to their young hearing-impaired children. The process, which appears to be constantly evolving, is one in which a change in the communication habits of one partner (i.e. child) dramatically affects the communication habits of the other (i.e. mother). This pattern may be influenced and changed for the better, throughout language intervention.
Introduction

One of the greatest accomplishments of infancy and early childhood is the acquisition of conventional communication and linguistic competence. Early social interaction provides the vehicle through which the child acquires the linguistic structures, the semantic content and the social uses of languages. Thus, the nature of everyday interactions between the mother and the child is of vital interest and importance to those who wish to understand the nature of early language development. It has been well established that there are systematic differences between verbal output to children and among their mothers. When mothers speak to infants/young children, they tend to modify their style of verbal output which has been termed as ‘motherese’. Mother’s verbal output to children has been found to contain modifications in suprasegmental, phonological, syntactic, semantic and interactional features.

Maternal interaction (MI) is much simpler in its structure and contains short formed-utterances, fewer complex sentences, is highly redundant and consistent; is much more closely tied to the immediate context, and employs a number of special discourse features. This modification of mother’s/other’s verbal output is reported to aid the child’s language learning process, although the exact relationship between maternal interaction and the child’s acquisition of language is much less straightforward. Different aspects of MI have been investigated in normal children and hearing impaired children:

Phonological aspects of MI

- Cruttenden (1994) reported that recurrent consonantal substitutions, Consonantal clusters (e.g. drink → [dinki]), Consonant harmony applied between consonants across an intervening vowel (e.g. dog → [dogi]) and reduplication and a simple consonant vowel type of syllable structure predominates in the phonological aspects of the MI.

Semantic aspects of MI

Blount (1972) reported more limited vocabulary use and low type token ratios for vocabulary but with unique words for objects and many diminutives.

Syntactic aspects of MI

Newport (1975) and Cross (1977) have reported shorter mean length of utterance in adult-child verbal input. The verbal input of a mother to an eighteen month old has a shorter MLU, with more single names and phrases. Newport (1975) studied the verbal input of fifteen mothers to their children and found the incidence of ungrammatical errors to be only one in 1,500 utterances. The sentences uttered are transformationally less complex with fewer verbs per utterance, fewer coordinate or sub-ordinate clauses, and fewer embeddings. Newport (1975) reported that maternal interaction contains more content words and fewer function words with
rarity of modifiers and pronouns. He also reported that deletion of subject nouns or pronouns and auxiliary in yes-no questions. Cross (1977); Newport, Gleitman & Gleitman (1977) supported diversity in adjusting language input to children’s presumed levels of understanding.

**Discourse aspects of MI**

At the discourse level, the mother’s verbal input is very much shaped by the child’s linguistic abilities, his cognitive abilities, his ideas and interests. Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977) reported that 16% of the motherese utterances involve deixis, 6% of expansions and 23% of repetitions. Plausibly, deictic usage might help vocabulary, expansions help to build syntax and repetitions might influence both to the extent that it could allow rehearsal or comparison among forms. Brown, Cazden and Bellugi (1973) viewed that there are certain features of mother’s language, which seem ‘designed’ to promote verbal interaction and they termed it as ‘constituent prompting’. Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977) concluded that adults use shorter sentences; they do not necessarily use less complicated ones. An abundance of semantic contingencies such as expansions and extensions were found in the language of mothers of linguistically advanced children (Cross, 1977).

**MI in the Hearing-impaired Children**

The study of language acquisition in deaf children is one in which the questions of input take on a unique importance.

Gregory et al. (1979) examined mother’s verbal input to the same deaf and hearing children at 18 and 24 months in a spontaneous play situation and they used language to the hearing children was more complex, whereas the language addressed to the deaf children was less complex. Also the deaf children’s mothers used more imperatives and fewer declaratives and commented less often on the child’s vocalization.

Cheskin (1981) made a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the verbal input directed by hearing mothers to their young deaf children and reported each of mothers spoke in short sentences that were usually grammatically complete. There was a high incidence of declarative sentences, repetitions and restrictive vocabulary. Verbal input to hearing-impaired infants was also reported to be less complex in terms of MLU and syntactic constructions (Cross, et al. 1980; Wedell-Monig and Westerman, 1977).

Differences were also found regarding mother’s style of reference. Mothers of hearing-impaired children refer less to absent object and restrict their references more to immediate context (Wedell-Monig and Westerman, 1977).

Cross et al. (1980) found that children’s receptive linguistic ability was the major determinant of the MI features. Henggeler, Watson and Cooper (1984) investigated ‘verbal’ and ‘non-verbal’ controls in hearing mother – deaf child and hearing dyads and found that deaf children’s mother did exercise more control, reflecting appropriate attempt to provide structure for a child with
limited communicative ability. They also reported that interaction were quantitatively similar but qualitatively different. Deaf children’s mothers used fewer indirect commands than the others; and the deaf children were less responsive to their mother’s requests.

On the other hand, studies which have matched the hearing impaired to normally developing children on the basis of language age, and have observed that verbal input addressed to the impaired population was highly similar to those addressed to normal children with similar language abilities (Nienhuys, Cross & Horsborough, 1984).

Caissie and Cole (1993) investigated the role of maternal directiveness plays in discourse rather than linguistic achievements. Results showed that mother’s directives were more frequently expressed during interaction with children exhibiting less advanced language abilities. They viewed that maternal directiveness may act as a facilitator of conversational turn-taking at least during the early stages of communication development by providing a strategy for framing the communicative events, thereby keeping the child involved in the conversational interaction.

A number of studies have reported hearing mothers of deaf children being less responsive than hearing mothers with normal children. Mothers were less likely to respond to their deaf children vocalization (Gregory, et al. 1979), likely to misinterpret them, (Cheskin, 1981), less likely to expand their childrens utterance (Nienhuys, et al. 1984).

Review of the literature reveals that there is a lack of strong evidence for the facilitative/unfacilitative effects of the verbal input directed to the hearing-impaired children and research lag behind in this area. The studies on the maternal interaction in the hearing impaired children, however, have been limited and controversial. Hence the present study was attempted with the aim of studying the maternal interaction and the verbal input in normal hearing and hearing-impaired children and to determine if any significant difference existed.

Method

Subjects

Two groups of subjects participated in the study. The first group included ten normal hearing children (5 males, 5 females) in the age-range of 12-24 months and their mothers. The second group comprised of ten linguistically matched hearing-impaired children (7 males, 3 females) in the age-range of 3-5 years and their mothers. All the hearing-impaired children exhibited severe-profound sensori-neural hearing loss bilaterally of prelingual onset. The hearing-impaired children and the normal hearing children had similar language ages, ranging from 12-24 months. All the mothers of both the groups were native speakers of Kannada language in the age-range of 22-30 years.

Procedure
The mothers of two groups were instructed to “play with your child as you would at home”. The mother - child interaction was randomly selected from audio taped during a play context for about 20 minutes using a portable tape recorder and cassette. A ten minute sample was transcribed for each mother child interaction. The transcribed data was analyzed for the following communicative functions and the Mean length of Utterances. The following communicative functions are: a) invitation to vocalization, b) accompaniments, c) Self-repetitions and repair devices, d) Imitations, e) expansions, f) Continuates, g) Yes/No reply, h) Other reply, i) Informative, j) Closed questions, k) Open questions, l) Directives: imperative form, m) Directives: interrogative form, n) Child controlled events, o) Caregiver controlled events, p) People/objects present, q) Nonimmediate etc. and the Mean length of Utterance (MLU) in words was computed (Following Brown’s rule, 1973) for 100 utterances from the transcribed data for each mother child dyad.

Analyses

The data collected was analyzed by using appropriate statistical measures. The mean and standard deviation for the 17 communicative functions and MLU were calculated for both the groups. The independent ‘t’ test was used to study the significance of differences between the means of two groups.

Results and Discussions

Table 1 shows Mean, SD and t value of maternal communicative functions for Hearing impaired and normal children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No</th>
<th>Maternal Communicative Functions</th>
<th>Hearing Impaired</th>
<th>Normal</th>
<th>‘t’ value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Invitation to vocalize</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>2.94**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Accompaniments</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Self-repetitions and repair devices</td>
<td>32.04</td>
<td>29.09</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Imitation</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Expansion</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>9.27</td>
<td>6.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Continuates</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>2.66*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Yes/No reply</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Other reply</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>2.22*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.16</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>17.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Informatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Closed questions</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>9.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Open questions</td>
<td>14.12</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>15.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Directives: imperative form</td>
<td>22.27</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>18.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Directives: interrogative form</td>
<td>8.66</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Child controlled events</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>8.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Caregiver controlled events</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>5.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>People or objects presents</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>8.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Non-immediate</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** indicates p<0.01, * indicates p<.05

**a) Maternal Interaction in Normal Hearing Children**

As seen in the table, the analysis of maternal communicative function in the MI of normal hearing children indicated that mothers of the normal hearing children used significantly greater percentage of self-repetitions and repair devices, directive imperatives, informatives, open-question and closed questions followed by expansions, referential features of peoples/objects present, child-controlled events in that order. Few studies supported these results (Brown, Cazden and Bellugi (1973); Blount (1972), and Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman (1977). The communicative functions, which occurred with a lesser percentage, included imitation, continues, accompaniments, speech act features of invitation to vocalize and referential features of caregiver controlled events, followed by directive interrogatives, yes/no reply and other reply and the non-immediate referential features.

**b) MI in Hearing Impaired Children**

From the table it is clear that self-repetition and repair devices were found to occur with a greater percentage when compared to other communicative functions. Similar findings were reported by Wedell-Monnig and Westerman (1977) and Cheskin (1981) who found that maternal interaction of hearing - impaired children included more repetitions. The mother of hearing-impaired children used a significantly greater percentage of directive imperatives, while the directive interrogatives occurred less frequently. Some investigators have also reported a higher frequency of directives in maternal interaction of hearing impaired children (Caissie and Cole, 1993). Caissie and Cole (1993) reported that frequency of occurrence of directive behavior ranged from 8% to 46% with an average of 26%.

With regard to conversational effect of maternal directives, earlier studies claimed that excessive expression of directives provided an impoverished input to the child and were negatively associated with language acquisition (Newport et al. 1977). However, the recent studies suggest that the use of directives by mothers may play a positive discourse role by facilitating the child’s participation in the conversational turn taking (Caissie and Cole, 1993). All the hearing-impaired children were more likely to take a turn in the conversation following a mother’s directive behaviors than following a non-directive behavior.
(c) Comparison between the MI of Normal Hearing Children and the Hearing Impaired Children

Independent t test was used to compare both the groups. The results indicated that when the hearing impaired children were linguistically matched with the normal hearing children, no significant differences (p > .05) existed between the two groups in terms of the communicative functions of accompaniments, self repetitions and repair devices, informative, closed and open questions, directive: imperative forms, referential features of people/object present, and non-immediate referential features.

These results suggested that hearing impaired children received verbal input, which is, essentially similar to that received by the normal children with comparable language abilities. The mothers of hearing impaired children adjusted their conversational style to suit the language levels of their children. These findings also provide evidence to support by Cross (1977); and Wedell-Monnig and Westerman (1977).

Further, the results indicated that significant difference existed between the two groups in terms of the occurrence of the imitations, expansions, invitation to vocalize, continuates, directive: interrogatives, yes/no reply, other reply, child-controlled events, and caregiver controlled events. This clearly indicated that that the presence of hearing impairment in the child adversely affected certain features of maternal interaction. Some of these findings of the maternal communicative functions were also supported by a number of investigators (Gregory et al. 1979; Cheskin, 1981; and Nienhuys, et al. 1984). Henggeler et al. (1984) have reported that the interaction of mothers with their hearing-impaired children were quantitatively similar but qualitatively different from normal mothers.

MLU Analysis of Normal Hearing Children

Table 2 shows the mean and standard deviation (SD) values for MLU of normal hearing and hearing impaired children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hearing Impaired</th>
<th>Normal Children</th>
<th>‘t’ value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results showed that the mother’s Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) was found to be 2.0 words and the SD was 0.13. This indicated that the MLU in maternal interaction of normal hearing children was considerably shorter. The utterances were simple with more single names and phrases. This is in agreement with results obtained by Newport (1975); and Cross (1977) who have also reported of shorter MLU in the MI. The mothers of hearing-impaired children used shorter and simpler utterances with a mean MLU of 1.96 and standard deviation of 0.13. Several investigators have also reported that verbal output to hearing impaired children was less complex.
in terms of MLU and syntactic construction (Cross et al. 1980; Weddell-Monnig and Westerman, 1977).

Independent t test was used to see the significant difference between normal hearing and hearing impaired children of MLU. Result showed that there was no significant difference between two groups (p>.05). These findings also provide evidence to support by Cross (1977); and Wedell-Monnig and Westerman (1977).

To conclude, the study revealed both quantitative as well as qualitative differences between the two groups and their mother-child dyadic interactions. The communicative functions of mothers of the two groups varied significantly within groups. However, no statistically significant differences were obtained. The study has implications for management and language facilitation in hearing-impaired children as including their parents significantly and continuously throughout intervention.

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References


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Role of L2 Motivation and the Performance of Intermediate Students in The English (L2) Exams in Pakistan

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Abstract

This paper investigates the role of motivation in the performance of Intermediate students in the English (L2) Exams. Motivation has been regarded as one of the most important factors in the process of second language learning. A class of Intermediate (F.A./F.Sc.) students is studied. Students’ motivation is investigated according to Gardner’s views on motivation as he described them is his socio-educational model (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

A result of final English (L2) Exam is collected in order to see whether or not there is a difference between the performance of F.A. (Arts and Humanities) and F.Sc. (Pre-Engineering/Pre-Medical) students in the English exams.

To check the role of motivation in the students’ performance, two lickert scale questionnaires are developed consisting of 15 items each; one questionnaire for the students and the other for the concerned teacher. The opinion of the concerned teacher is also obtained on a blank piece of paper.

The study shows that there is a big difference between the performance of F.A. and F.Sc. students in the English exams, whereas there is no significant difference between the motivation level of F.A. and F.Sc. students for learning English as L2. So, the paper suggests
that the L2 motivation does not play a significant role in the better performance of intermediate F.Sc. students in the English exams.

1. Introduction

With particular reference to L2 learning, Gardner states that motivation is “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language” (Gardner 1994). Thus according to Gardner (1994), a motivated individual shows “favorable attitudes toward learning the language”. Oxford summarizes Gardner’s definition of motivation as: “a goal, a desire to attain the goal, positive attitudes toward learning the language, and effortful behavior to that effect.”

Many variables have been proposed and discussed that influence second language learning. Motivation is considered to be one of the most important variables that affect the level of achievement in a second language (L2). In this study, Gardner and MacIntyre’s (1993) socio-educational model of second language acquisition is used to compare the F.A. and F.Sc. students’ motivation and its impact on their scores in the English (L2) exams.

2. Objectives

This paper aims to:

- Measure and compare the levels of motivation of F.A. and F.Sc. students for learning the English (L2) language;
- Investigate the impact of motivation on the better performance of the F.Sc. students than that of the F.A. students; and
- Discuss some of the other related factors which might contribute to the better performance of the F.Sc. students.

3. Literature Review

Gardner and Lambert first made the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation that has lead the research in the field of motivation for second language acquisition. Gardner and Lambert (1959) conducted a research and found that an individual's orientation to learning French as a L2 was related to his or her motivation to learn French, attitudes toward French Canadians, and proficiency in French. According to Gardner (1997), motivation refers to the individual's attitudes, desires, and effort to learn the L2.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) used the term integrative motivation to refer to language learning for personal growth and cultural enrichment that is all about the learner’s desires to learn a language to integrate successfully into the target language community; whereas instrumental motivation is the learner’s motivation required to learn the L2 for functional or external reasons. These include the achievement of goals, practical purposes for learning such as passing exams, promoting a career or gaining promotion. The basic principle of Gardner's (1985) view of motivation and second language acquisition is that attitude and motivation affect second language acquisition.
Stephen D Krashen (2002) states in his book *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning* that the following factors “will attempt to relate posited predictors of second language proficiency to these two functions”:

- Integrative motivation, and
- Instrumental motivation.

Integrative motivation is defined as “the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language, is predicted to relate to proficiency in terms of the two functions.” According to Krashen (2002), the presence of integrative motivation should encourage the acquirer to interact with speakers of the second language out of sheer interest, and thereby obtain intake. A low filter for integratively motivated acquirers is also predicted for similar reasons.

Instrumental motivation is defined as “the desire to achieve proficiency in a language for utilitarian, or practical reasons, may also relate to proficiency”. According to Krashen (2002), its presence will encourage performers to interact with L2 speakers in order to achieve certain ends. So, to an integratively motivated performer, interaction for its own sake will be valued, whereas, to the instrumentally motivated performer, interaction always has some practical purpose.

Krashen (2002) further states that while the presence of integrative motivation predicts a low affective filter, the presence of instrumental motivation predicts a stronger one. With instrumental motivation, language acquisition may cease as soon as enough is acquired to get the job done. Also, instrumentally motivated performers may acquire just those aspects of the target language that are necessary; at an elementary level, this may be simple routines and patterns, and at a more advanced level this predicts the non-acquisition of elements that are communicatively less important but that are socially important, such as aspects of morphology and accent.

Brown (1994) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivations are mutually inclusive. Most situations in learning language involve a mixture of each type of motivation. In fact, it is difficult to attribute learning language success to certain integrative or instrumental causes.

### 3.1 Gardner’s Socio-educational Model

In his socio-educational model, Gardner (1982) identified a number of factors which are interrelated in the process of learning a second language. Unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner’s model looks specifically at second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom. The model presents four features of second language acquisition. These include the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes (Gardner 1982).
Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner 1982). Later, Gardner (1995) modified the last component and suggests that motivation includes three components:

(a) effort expended to achieve a goal,
(b) a desire to learn the language, and
(c) satisfaction with the task of learning the language.

He argues that effort by itself is not a complete description of motivation because individuals might expend considerable effort to please a teacher or a parent without any real motivation to learn the L2. Similarly, desire to learn the language or satisfaction with learning the language does not in themselves reflect true motivation. They must coexist with effort.

Gardner (as cited by Noels et al., 2001) maintains that motivation is basically the extent of the effort an individual is willing to exert to achieve the goal of learning a language because of a desire to do so and of favorable attitudes toward such language. In line with Krashen, Noels et al. (2001) also states that several goals, or orientations, have been proposed, but two have received the most empirical attention.

The first is instrumental orientation, which tackles reasons for language learning that emphasize the pragmatic consequences of L2 learning, such as job-hunting or improving one's education. The second is integrative orientation, which refers to reasons relating to interaction and communication with members of the L2 community for social-emotional purposes.

Gardner et al. (2002) further state that an "integrative" component consistently emerges in empirical studies, even in the most diverse contexts. It reflects a considerable portion of the variance in language learners’ motivational disposition and motivated learning behavior. An example is the research carried out by Noels et al. (2001) in which the researchers consider the relations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the integrative orientation. It investigated 59 French Canadian students studying English in a summer immersion course. The participants were required to complete a questionnaire dealing with their reasons for L2 learning. The researchers state that their subjects showed a high level of motivation. Two main reasons were given: one, the students’ interest in getting to know the English culture better and second, to achieve valued personal goals or tangible rewards, such as jobs or course credits.

4. Methodology

4.1 Subjects

The study was conducted on an Intermediate English class consisting of 47 students. Twenty five of them were doing F.A. (Group A in the study) and twenty two were doing F.Sc. (Group
B in the study). Although their other subjects were different, they were studying English in the same class by the same teacher.

4.2 Procedure

First, the result of the final English exam of the Intermediate English class was collected. Second, the teacher’s general remarks (Annexure-I) were obtained on a blank piece of paper so as to get the teacher’s views on the performance of the F.A./F.Sc. students. Third, a questionnaire (Annexure-II) was made; containing 15 items related to motivation and it was answered by the students. The items of the questionnaire were presented in a random order. Finally, the teacher’s views were also obtained in a controlled way through a questionnaire (Annexure-III) that contained 15 items related to the factors that might influence the performance of F.A./F.Sc. students.

5. Analyses of the Data and Results

5.1 F.A./F.Sc.. English Result

The result of the final English exam was collected of total 100 marks. The result clearly show that F.Sc. students have outperformed F.A. students as mentioned below:

Table 1: The Final English Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division of the marks obtained into 10s</th>
<th>No. of F.A. students</th>
<th>No. of F.Sc. students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The Final English Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minimum marks obtained</th>
<th>Maximum marks obtained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F.A.</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.Sc.</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above tables of the final English exam show that the F.Sc. students have scored far better than the F.A. students. No F.Sc. student is placed below 30 marks, and no F.A. student could reach beyond 60 marks. The maximum score by an F.Sc. student is 78, whereas by an F.A. student it is 56. Similarly, minimum marks by an F.A. student are 23, and 36 by an F.Sc. student. Remarkably, 16 out of 22 F.Sc. students are found between 51 to 70 marks; whereas only two F.A. students could reach at this level.
5.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire through SPSS

The students’ motivation was measured using a questionnaire and the data were put into SPSS for further analysis. A total of 41 students out 47 answered the questionnaire. One-way ANOVA test was used for data analysis, and the results were as under:

Table 3 & 4: ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F.A.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.5667</td>
<td>.46542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.Sc.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.6596</td>
<td>.38675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3.6098</td>
<td>.42806</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>7.241</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7.329</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above results show that there is no significant difference between the levels of motivation of F.A. and F.Sc. students. The mean score of F.A. students on the motivation scale is 3.57 and the mean score of F.Sc. students is 3.67. Furthermore, the significance value of 0.495 shows that there is no significant difference between the performance of both the groups on the motivation scale. Both the groups under study display similar performance on the motivation scale as shown by the graph below:
5.3 Teacher’s remarks

The concerned teacher in the study has been teaching to the Intermediate classes for more than twelve years. According to him, F.Sc. students always perform better in English exams due to the factors mentioned below:

- The F.Sc. students are not more intelligent, neither their confidence contributes to their better performance, but they are more serious in their studies.
- The F.Sc. students enjoy more prestige in society.
- The F.Sc. students are imbued with the impression that F.Sc. will bring them more prestige in society in future.
- The F.Sc. students are more hard working.

As far the teacher’s responses on the questionnaire are concerned, he agrees with the statements mentioned below:

- F.Sc. students get better marks because most of their other subjects are also in English.
• F.Sc. students get better marks because their goal is specific in the form of getting admission to any professional institute.
• F.Sc. students are more socially admired.
• F.Sc. students are more analytical.
• F.Sc. students are more hardworking.
• F.Sc. students are more desirous of getting better marks in every subject including English.

6. Discussion

The study shows that the F.Sc. students (Group B) get better marks in the English exams, but it does not necessarily mean that their motivation to learn English (L2) language is higher than that of F.A. students (Group A); because both the groups display almost same levels of motivation in the study. If we discuss the finding in the light of Gardner’s model, we see that Gardner and Lambert (1972) used the term integrative motivation to refer to language learning for personal growth and cultural enrichment that shows the learner’s desires to learn a language to integrate successfully into the target language community. Both the groups do not show this motivation as most of them do not agree that they are interested in the English culture. Instrumental motivation is the learner’s motivation required to learn the L2 for functional or external reasons. These include the achievement of goals, practical purposes for learning such as passing exams, promoting a career or gaining promotion. The students of both the groups do show good level of instrumental motivation as many of them agree on the following questionnaire items:

• Learning English is important to me because it will enable me to be successful in future.
• Learning English would help me get better job.
• I study English which I feel is relevant to my future needs.
• The only reason I study English is because I have to get good marks.

Now discussing the better performance of F.Sc. students, we may say that the contributing factor might be the better exposure of F.Sc. students to English language. Most of the courses of F.Sc. students are in English language, so they are more exposed to the structure of English language. Societal role may also be important as it is true that the F.Sc. students enjoy more prestige in Pakistani society. F.Sc. students are frequently told that this is the most important time in their lives and that they can change their lives by getting admission to any professional institute. So they become more ambitious and put more effort so as to get better marks in all the courses including English. Although the main focus of the F.Sc. students remain science subjects, they put more attention to their English subject also than their F.A. counterparts; because the F.A. students are not that much ambitious and so they do not put much effort for better marks.

7. Conclusion

The study shows that there is no significant impact of L2 motivation on the better performance of the F.Sc. students in the English exams. The motivation levels of both the
groups in the study are almost same. Nonetheless, as one group (F.Sc. students) scored far better than the other group (F.A. students) in the English (L2) exam, so the role of some other factors including exposure to L2, goal specificity, self-confidence, hard work, attention, seriousness, and social admiration, as reported by the concerned teacher and discussed above, may contribute to the F.Sc. students’ better performance. The F.Sc. students may not be concerned with the English language itself; rather they just want to get admission to a professional institute and in their effort to attain their goal, they score better in all the courses and even in the English exams.

References


Language in India www.languageinindia.com 45
10 : 7 July 2010
Tahir Ghafoor Malik, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate
Role of L2 Motivation and the Performance of Intermediate Students in The English (L2) Exams in Pakistan
Annexure-I

The Teacher’s Comments

Confidence
F. sc. students perform better because they are made serious in their studies—confidence in not the issue in achieving success.

The F. sc. students are not socially admired. They don’t feel their F. sc. programme will bring them high prestige in society. These students join F. sc. classes when they score less in their matriculation.

Some of the F. sc. students are shining because of their proper and systematic schooling in the past.

The F. sc. students are imbued with new impression that F. sc. will bring them fruits and prestige in the society. There is the more positive propaganda in the society about F. sc. programme so students are more serious and more inclined to join this programme.
Dear Participant,

I am conducting a research. Your few minutes to fill this questionnaire will go a long way in understanding some very important aspects of language learning.

I am doing [ ] F.A. [ ] F.Sc. (tick the relevant box)

Scale
5=Strongly agree
4=Agree
3=Indecisive
2=Disagree
1=Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Tick the relevant box</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I really take pleasure in learning English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I am interested in English culture.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I think teachers should conduct the lecture as much as possible in English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I like my English teacher because his English is good.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I find conversation with people from English speaking countries pleasant.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The only reason I study English is because I have to get good marks.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Learning English is important to me because it will enable me to be successful in the future.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I would like to travel to countries such as the USA, Australia, and England in the future.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I like my English teacher to use a lot of Urdu in class.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Learning English would help me get better job.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I intend to continue studying English in the future.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I like to memorize English words.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I like my teacher to speak only English in class.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I study English which I feel is relevant to my future needs.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I do not like it when an English class is too difficult.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thanks for your participation

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10 : 7 July 2010
Tahir Ghafoor Malik, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate
Role of L2 Motivation and the Performance of Intermediate Students in The English (L2) Exams in Pakistan
Dear Sir,

I am conducting a research. Your few minutes to fill this questionnaire will go a long way in understanding some very important aspects of language learning.

**Scale**
5=Strongly agree  
4=Agree  
3=Indecisive  
2=Disagree  
1=Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Tick the relevant box</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>F.Sc. students are more intelligent that is why they perform better than F.A. students in English exams.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>F.A. students study English as a major subject.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>F.Sc. students get better marks because most of their other subjects are also in English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F.Sc. students get better marks because their goal is specific in the form of getting admission to any professional institute.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>F.Sc. students score better because they are more confident.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F.A. students do not get good marks because they do not have an immediate goal in front of them right after doing F.A..</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>F.Sc. students perform better because they believe they can score better.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>F.A. students are more hard working.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Teachers give more attention to F.Sc. students.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>F.Sc. students are more socially admired.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>F.Sc. students are more analytical.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>F.Sc. students are more hardworking.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>F.A. students give more attention to English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>F.Sc. students are more desirous of getting better marks in every subject including English.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I prefer to teach to F.Sc. students.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Thanks for your participation*

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10 : 7 July 2010
Tahir Ghafoor Malik, M.S., Ph.D. Candidate
Role of L2 Motivation and the Performance of Intermediate Students in The English (L2) Exams in Pakistan
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Problems in Ph.D. English Degree Programme in Pakistan -
The Issue of Quality Assurance

Umar-ud- Din, M. Kamal Khan and Shahzad Mahmood

Abstract

The present study aims at identifying the issues and problems of quality assurance in Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan. The study shows that the quality of Ph.D. English degree is highly affected by the lack of qualified faculty, limited number of approved supervisors and the absence of the collaboration between universities within the country. The data was collected from 35 students of the M.S. degree programme, in preparation for the degree of Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics. Respondents’ agreement to these issues and other problems like access to digital resources, the Internet, well-equipped libraries etc., suggests that quality assurance in Ph.D. English degree programme can be guaranteed only if these issues are given urgent attention and are solved on priority basis.

Introduction

This study aims to explore issues and problems that affect quality assurance in Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy) English degree programme particularly in Pakistani Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).

Ph.D. is the highest academic degree awarded by Pakistani HEIs. According to Chris Park (2005), “Ph.D. is a research degree awarded for demonstrating ability to carry out academic
research and to produce new knowledge”. Recent studies have demonstrated that for developing countries, higher education can play vital role in accelerating the rate of growth towards a country’s productivity potential (Bloom, Canning, and Chan 2006).

The Ph.D. degrees offered by the universities in Pakistan (either public or private) should equip the trainee researchers with the skills such as observation, critical analysis and finding solution and designing tools to solve local problems. In Pakistan, like in many other countries of the world, most of the research is carried out in the fields of natural sciences and technical education. There is little emphasis on research in languages or humanities.

In this age of knowledge based economies, need of the hour is that effective research should be carried out in every walk of life including English (language and/or literature): the primary language of higher education and research. Unfortunately, the number of Ph.D.s in English in Pakistan is not encouraging and amongst them, only a few are engaged in research projects that can foster the economic progress of the country. The universities offering Ph.D. in English (Linguistics/Literature) are also very few. The obvious reason for this is the non-availability of the academics that can run quality research projects effectively.

Objectives

The study aims to discover:

- The issues concerned with the quality assurance of Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan.
- To suggest measures to make the Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan compatible with the international market.

Research Question

Following is the research question of the study:

How can the higher education system guarantee excellence in Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan?

Literature Review

The issue of quality assurance in higher education has been frequently discussed at conferences, in newspapers and other public media. Commenting upon the value of the doctorate programmes in the USA, Cude (2001) argues that the doctoral programme has become a trap for the candidate and a sinkhole for the intellectual resources. Even in UK, the fitness for purpose of the doctoral qualification has been questioned. Anon (2002) observes,

“For some time this single purpose qualification has no longer fitted the expectations of students and employers. Increasingly, Government, funding
bodies and higher education institutions are questioning the nature of the Ph.D.”

Higher education systems are under great pressure to improve the quality of education they offer. Universities across the globe are redefining their goals and needful steps are being taken to their Ph.D. programmes compatible with greater global competitiveness (Scott, 1998).

The notion of quality is hard to define precisely, especially in the context of higher education where institutions have broad autonomy to decide on their own visions and missions. The definition of quality in higher education given by Hayward (in his glossary for the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) South Africa in February 2001, available at www.chea.org/international/inter_glossary01.html), refers to the “fitness for purpose” meeting or conforming to generally accepted standards as defined by an institution, quality assurance bodies and appropriate academic and professional communities.

A number of indicators used to measure the quality in HEIs are the performance indicators of teaching quality, student evaluation of the quality of the teaching and the learning environment and student satisfaction. Quality of the library and laboratories, management effectiveness, governance and leadership are some other indicators of quality measurement. Quality assurance is a planned and systematic review process of an institution or program to determine whether acceptable standards of education, scholarship, and infrastructure are being met, maintained and enhanced.

For the last few years, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan is striving hard to induce and maintain the quality of higher education. Quality Assurance Agency has been established at HEC to achieve excellence in higher learning. At university level, Quality Enhancement Cells have been established with a view to creating awareness on modern theories and practices of quality assurance.

**Methodology**

Our research may be termed as a response to or a follow up of earlier efforts. For example, in April 2001, the Federal Minister for Education constituted a task force to review Higher Education in Pakistan and recommend measures to improve its quality.

In the research report here, in order to know about the issues and problems in Ph.D. English quality assurance in Pakistan, a questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire was based upon the observations made by the Task Force on Improvement of Higher Education in Pakistan, referred to above.
The aim of the questionnaire was to identify the Ph.D. English students’ perceptions about the problems of Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan. The questionnaire consisted of eight items concerning with different issues and problems of Ph.D. English degree programme in Pakistan. The respondents were 35 students (both male and female) from M.S. leading to Ph.D. (Applied Linguistics) programme at the University of Management and Technology (UMT), Lahore. The University of Management and Technology, Lahore, accredited by HEC Pakistan, is one of the leading universities in private sector that are making effective contribution in promoting English language research of high quality.

Out of 35, 20 were HEC scholars. HEC scholars are those enrolled under HEC’s 5000 Indigenous Ph.D. Scholarship Programme. They were required to tick the relevant box ranging from 1 to 5 (1 for strongly disagree, 2 for agree, 3 for undecided, 4 for agree, 5 for strongly agree) against each statement.

Results and Data Analysis

Following results were obtained from the data collected from the students of M.S. leading to Ph.D. (Applied Linguistics) programme at UMT, Lahore:

Table 1. The results of the perceptions of the students about the Ph.D. English degree Programme in Pakistan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Issues and Problems</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>UD</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ph.D. degree in English is compatible with international standards</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of qualified permanent faculty results in poor quality in research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Foreign faculty hiring can improve the quality of Ph.D. (English) programme</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Inter universities collaboration improves the quality of research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Well equipped libraries are key to successful research work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Access to Internet facilitates research work</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Limited number of HEC approved supervisors affects Ph.D. degree in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Monthly stipend for HEC research scholars is insufficient</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SD → Strongly Disagree  D → Disagree  UD → Un-decided  A → Agree  SA → Strongly Agree (SA)

1. Compatibility of the Ph.D. English Degree

Figure 1. Ph.D. degree in English is compatible with international standards.
The figure shows that 11 out of 35 research scholars of Ph.D. English programme agree that the degrees offered by Pakistani HEIs are not compatible with the international market. On the other hand, disagreement is also very high. 16 (7+9) are not ready to admit that the standard of Ph.D. English degree in Pakistan is low.

2. Qualified Permanent Faculty

Figure 2. Lack of qualified permanent faculty results in poor quality in research.

The figure clearly shows that most of the respondents (8+19) 27 out of 35 believe that the faculty hiring should be on permanent basis. 19 respondents strongly agreed to the view that the faculty should be permanent. 5 respondents are not in favour of permanent faculty. 3 respondents were undecided on the issue.
3. Foreign Faculty Hiring

*Figure 3.* Foreign faculty hiring can improve the quality of Ph.D. (English) programme.

As regards the hiring of foreign faculty, the graph shows that the views about hiring or not hiring are not much different. 13 respondents agree that hiring foreign faculty can improve the quality of research work produced in Pakistan. 4 respondents show strong agreement to this view. On the other hand, (7+8) 15 respondents do not agree that the foreign faculty can improve the standard of the research work.

4. Inter Universities Collaboration

*Figure 4.* Inter universities collaboration improves the quality of research.
The figure 4 shows that there is strong need for inter universities collaboration to improve the quality of the research work. 28 (15+13) show their agreement to this view. Only 5 (2+3) are not in favour of inter universities collaboration.

5. Well-equipped Libraries

*Figure 5.* Well-equipped libraries are key to successful research work.

Figure 5 shows that most of the students acknowledge the importance of well-equipped libraries in the research work. 22 respondents strongly agree that libraries should be rich with resources.

6. Access to the Internet

*Figure 6.* Access to Internet facilitates research work.
Most of the students strongly agree (23) that access to Internet facilitates the research work. Only 4 students believe that access to Internet is of value to the research work.

7. **Limited Number of HEC Approved Supervisors**

*Figure 7.* Limited number of HEC approved supervisors affects Ph.D. degree in English

15 out of 35 respondents strongly agree that the availability of HEC approved supervisors affects the Ph.D. English degree programme. 7 respondents showed their agreement whereas 8 respondents believed that the availability of HEC approved supervisors is not a problem.

8. **Monthly Stipend for HEC Research Scholars**

*Figure 8.* Monthly stipend for HEC research scholars is insufficient.
Most of the respondents strongly agreed to the view that the stipend given to the research scholars is insufficient. 28 (10+18) respondents showed their agreement to this view whereas only 4 showed their disagreement.

**Discussion**

The analysis of the data shows that the availability of well-equipped libraries, permanent faculty, access to the Internet inter universities collaboration play vital role in improving the standards of the research work. It has been suggested that information and communication technologies can and do play a number of roles in enhancing the quality of education. These include providing a catalyst for rethinking teaching practice; improving educational outcomes and enhancing and improving the quality of teaching and learning (Wagner, 2001; Garrison & Anderson, 2003). Using Internet enables the scholars to connect to the worldwide community of scholars and researchers.

The availability of HEC approved supervisors is also of great importance. The researchers have to strive hard to get access to the supervisors. Faculty mobility between institutions can be helpful in promoting healthy academic environment that leads to quality research work. In addition, scholarly interaction within the country is of great help to uplift the standards of research in the field of English language and literature.

The HEC should provide sufficient monthly stipend to the research scholars so that more and more talented and critical thinking scholars can be attracted to Ph.D. English programmes.

**Conclusion**

In the light of findings of this article, it is suggested that the present is the high time to address the quality assurance issues of Ph.D. English in Pakistan to prepare compatible Language in India www.languageinindia.com
professionals who can effectively serve the competitive market. This can be achieved only if the HEIs of Pakistan are in conformity with international compatibility and competitiveness. HEC should take effective measures to increase collaboration between local and foreign universities. This would bring the current teaching methodologies and research trends to Pakistani students who would ultimately get benefited from them. Research related to the issues of English Language Teaching should be funded by the universities on priority basis. Modern research soft-wares and instruments should be made compulsory for the students so that their research should be more valid and reliable.

It is also suggested that the authorities should also promote research trend among the faculty members. They should make compulsory for them to fix up the minimum range of publications on annual basis. Language laboratories, digital libraries and training programmes are the need of the hour. Besides, the monthly stipend awarded to the research scholars should be made sufficient enough to meet the economic constraints of the research work. Libraries should be equipped with latest resources on varied subjects. Access to Internet should be facilitated. Keeping in view the importance and place attached to English in Pakistan, it should be given maximum importance. Solid and effective measures should be taken up to improve the quality of research in the field of English language.

References


Internet Sources


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=================================================================

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Using Technology in the English Language Classroom

Renu Gupta, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper examines the use of technology in the language classroom. It examines the role of the language class (specifically, the English class) and how this frames the use of technology to support its academic and communication roles.

1. Introduction

Technology in education is not a new concept. In the 1960s and 1970s, lessons were broadcast over the air; for language teaching, audio tapes and films were available and some universities (such as Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi) had sophisticated language laboratories where students could practise their spoken skills. However, for the most part these technologies were not used in school and university classrooms.

Today, the scenario is very different. Technology is not ‘out there’ but part of our daily lives in devices such as mobile phones, portable music devices, TV, and computers, and activities such as sending SMS messages, listening to music files and audio books, watching cable TV, and surfing the Internet. The drop in prices has brought technology within the reach of more people to the extent that it is cheaper for an institute to buy computers and software than to hire faculty. Today’s students are comfortable using technology and, if they are not, they are expected to become computer-literate for the...
workplace. These changes have led to a push for incorporating technology in educational settings.

However, technology means different things to different people.

2. Technology of Education vs. Technology in Education

Technology can be used merely as a medium to transmit the prepared learning material. For instance, in many distance education programs, a digitized version of the printed material is sent to learners; another example is a video of the teacher’s lecture (perhaps with students asking questions) that is either broadcast or stored for students who are in remote locations, at a different campus, or are working adults. These are examples of the technology of education that is used to optimize delivery.

In contrast, technology in education is used to meet and further curricular goals. Technology is used to enhance learning in ways that may not be possible through traditional methods such as printed matter (textbooks) and verbal explanations. For instance, simulations in economics and finance allow students to input numbers and examine the impact on other variables. Through graphics and animations, science students can visualize elements that static images cannot replicate. For an example, see Smart Class (http://www.educomp.com/ContentDemo.aspx) where the congruence of triangles is represented by manipulating two triangles. Technology may even impact the curriculum if it returns teaching/learning to ways that the classroom has abandoned. For example, textbooks were created to provide teachers and students with a set of materials that was limited, but the Internet is a window to authentic texts.

When we examine how technology is used in education, we find examples of multimedia lessons, learning objects, and simulations in content subjects, but a similar orientation seems to be missing in the field of language teaching. For example, a handbook on multimedia by Mayer (2005) discusses the design principles for several content areas, but there is only one chapter on using multimedia in language teaching (Reinking, 2005). Instead of examining the design of multimedia, the discussions revolve around the use and effects of word processors, communication tools, such as discussion threads, chat, and email, and research tools, such as the Internet and webquests.

3. The Goal of This Paper

This paper examines why and how such technologies are used in the language class. The ‘why’ comes from two formulations of the language class: the academic role of the language class and the social role of language. In terms of its academic role, the language class is now viewed as central to the academic endeavor; there is a realization that students need to ‘learn to learn’ and it is the language class that can address this need. In
terms of the social role of language, there has been a shift away from teaching isolated linguistic components to viewing language as being embedded in a social context defined by audience and purpose; as a result, the technology is used to foster communication and collaboration. The ‘how’ is addressed in Section 9, which describes how technology can be used in the language classroom to teach for academic and social purposes. The final section raises the issue of ‘multiliteracies’ arising from digital technology that may shape the future curriculum.

Given the number of languages taught and the diversity of educational settings in India, I have limited this discussion to the teaching of English and, further, to the English class in an ‘English-medium’ school or university where the textbooks are written in English and teaching may or may not be in English. In school, English is one of the subjects in the curriculum and at the university, students (other than students of English literature) are required to do a course in General English. Even within this limited domain, there is tremendous diversity in the student population, curriculum, access to language resources and technology, etc. However, this enables us to examine some core issues in depth.

4. The Academic Role of the Language Class

The school and university curriculum consist of several subjects, some of which, like chemistry or history, are primarily concerned with content. In these subjects, students have to learn a body of basic facts—the periodic table, equations, dates, etc. In contrast, English language is not a content subject (although English literature is). The difference can be seen in the textbooks—in the content areas, the topics are remarkably similar across countries even if the teaching approaches differ, whereas there is tremendous variation in the topics covered in an English language course. Some syllabi are anthologies of literary texts, others are skill-based, and some are a combination of the two.

5. English-as-Content Approach

Although there is no content in English, it is often treated as a content subject. This can be seen in two practices: the teaching of language items, such as grammar, vocabulary, and idioms, and using the textbook as a repository of information.

Teaching language items

In several schools, students are taught explicit grammatical categories and rules, such as conjunctions and voice, despite the fact that the NCERT syllabus states that grammar should not be taught and the CBSE examination merely tests grammatical awareness. Teachers supplement the textbook with grammar books and test student knowledge of grammatical categories and labels. Students are also told to memorize lists of isolated words to ‘increase their vocabulary’ and idioms ‘to make their essays more interesting’.
The situation remains the same in colleges and several language communication courses. Such activities provide teachers with material to fill up class time, and are analogous to teaching students the elements of the Periodic Table in chemistry.

This dissection of language leads to a fragmented view of the language system. For example, students are taught how to form modals but are not their functions. They know the rules for forming sentences with would and should, but do not know that should can be used for a request as in ‘Should I open the door?’ They can mechanically do a written exercise on completing tag questions, but when speaking they fall back on the ‘isn’t it?’ tag. When vocabulary is learned in isolation, students think that the words are interchangeable and are unaware of their collocations. As a result they produce sentences such as the following: “While exports have not shown any vibrations, there is a declining trend in Indian imports.” The writer thinks that vibrations and fluctuations are interchangeable words.

**Teaching the textbook**

Textbooks are a resource designed for two purposes: first, they hope to inculcate ‘the joy of reading’ in students and, second, they expose students to a range of text genres—narrative, descriptive, expository, and argumentative so that they understand the features of different genres. These texts are intended only as a starting point or exemplars that should be supplemented with similar texts so that students acquire the skills to read similar texts on their own.

Instead, teachers explain the content of the texts. For example, if the text is a narrative, the teacher describes the plot and characters, leaving students with no need or reason to read the text on their own. An expository text on Fire (its benefits and dangers) has the teacher explaining the benefits and dangers of fire. Instead of interacting with the text and developing their reading skills, students develop their skills of listening comprehension. More importantly, students do not develop the ability to read and understand an unseen passage and remain tied to a fixed set of texts.

At the university students who do not take up English Literature are required to do a course in English (called General English). The emphasis on content becomes more marked here, because the textbook is an anthology of literary texts and the examination requires students to memorize and recall facts. The college lecturer ends up explaining the content of each text and the literary devices used.

Through these practices, we see that English teachers (and curriculum designers) introduce content into the English class, even when the curriculum is explicitly designed to teach skills. One reason is the need to ‘fill up time’; teaching content provides teachers with tangible material and activities that can be ‘covered’ and tested. Another reason is
that teachers teach as they have been taught (Lortie, 1975). If teachers learned English through grammar and literary texts, they ignore the objectives of the syllabus and replicate these practices when they become teachers. Even when teachers understand the objectives of the curriculum and want to teach skills, they may not have adequate training and guidance in how to accomplish these goals.

With recent changes in the Indian economy and the growth of the service sector, components of spoken English have been added to the curriculum. This moves the English curriculum closer to a skills-based approach. This places pressure on teachers to move away from lecturing on content to helping students acquire language skills that are relevant.

6. English-as-Skills Approach

In the language-as-skills approach, the curriculum is explicitly designed to teach language skills and have students practise them. This approach is seen in syllabi, textbooks and programs for English as a second language in the US and the UK. This approach develops the four skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—at increasing levels of complexity. To take the example of writing, in primary school, students learn to write stories (for pedagogical reasons); however, in the secondary school students should be able to handle a variety of genres such as laboratory reports, short research papers, critiques, and reviews that follow different conventions in terms of language and structure (Swales, 1990).

In such an approach, how does the English teacher ‘fill up the time’? A version of this approach is seen in writing across the curriculum (WAC) in the US, where the English class supports the content subjects. Language proficiency is essential for academic success. In order to understand subjects in the curriculum, one needs to know the language in which the texts are written and the concepts conveyed. This involves the skills of listening to lectures, reading texts, and writing answers.

This appears to place English in a subordinate position as a handmaiden of the content subjects; however, if we recognize that language is necessary for understanding and writing in the other subjects and that content teachers do not have the expertise or time to teach their students, the English class becomes central to the educational endeavor.

Table 1 summarizes the different objectives of content classes and the language class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Objectives of Content Classes vs. Language Classes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Class</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Read and comprehend texts</td>
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Language in India  www.languageinindia.com
In short, while in the content subjects students are expected to perform activities that use language, in the language class they learn how to do these activities. In a sense, we have returned to the notion of English as a ‘library language’ (Kothari Commission, 1968), but with a wider scope given that the role of English in India has expanded considerably.

This offers a tremendous opportunity for the subject, English. First, it fills a gap in the curriculum, one that is increasingly being recognized as central to learning to learn and which many students lack; the Open University in the UK found that many of their students lacked the literacy skills required to deal with their academic subjects (Coffin et al., 2003; Lillis, 1999). Second, the texts and activities are not only authentic but also critical to academic success and later in the workplace.

To sum up, a re-examination of the English curriculum envisages a different role for English; it teaches skills that support other subjects in the curriculum; it equips students with the skills they need in the workplace; and, hence, student motivation increases because they see purpose and tangible changes in their learning.

7. Recognizing the Social Role of Language

Language teaching approaches have moved toward an emphasis on the social role of language. Earlier approaches such as the Structural Approach and the Cognitive Approach emphasized the linguistic and cognitive aspects in language learning, respectively. In the Structural Approach, language items are graded by grammatical and lexical difficulty, although grammatical terms are not taught. The Cognitive Approach grew out of studies in language acquisition, which showed that children do not merely imitate but actively generate and test hypotheses about the rules of language. In language teaching, students were taught strategies to cope with unfamiliar and novel material. Research studies (Oxford, 1980) identified the strategies used by good language learners and encouraged learners to use them. In the area of reading skills, where students are expected to comprehend unseen passages, students were taught to activate prior knowledge and examine text structure (Carrell, 1985; Meyer, 1976).

Recent approaches to language teaching have moved away from the linguistic and cognitive aspects of language to its social aspects. These are drawn from interactionist theories in child language acquisition (Vygotsky, 1978), sociolinguistics (Hymes, 1971) and systemic functional grammar (Halliday, 1994). The focus has shifted from
grammatical accuracy to achieving pragmatic purpose and, hence, the unit of study has widened from the sentence to stretches of discourse. A test might take the following form:

**Example**

Select the most appropriate question from the options below.

1. Ray: ____________________________
   Chris: How about 10:30?
   
   a. What time should we meet?
   b. What time does the store open?
   c. What time does the train leave?
   d. What is the time?

There is an emphasis on communication, whether spoken or written, and the functions of discourse that go beyond mere statements to include agreement, clarification, disagreement, support, etc. Audience and purpose have become important and, with this, studies have examined linguistic and structural differences in domains such as business communication and academic discourse (Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990). We can see these changes in the CBSE textbooks for Classes 9 and 10, *Interact in English*, where students are encouraged to write reports, diary entries and dialogues to widen their exposure to different genres.

**8. The Role of Technology**

Technology cannot be a mere add-on in the language classroom because there is a strong link between teachers’ assumptions about language teaching and how they use technology in the classroom (Kern and Warschauer, 2000; MacKinnon, n.d.). Put simply, if a teacher believes in teaching grammar, s/he will use the technology to teach grammar.

Different approaches involve different uses of the technology (Chapelle, 2009; Kern and Warschauer, 2000). In the Structural Approach where grammatical accuracy remains central, technology is used to help students understand grammar. Examples include video clips of scenarios that embed the target grammatical item, followed by an explanation (see Jenniferesl [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7KWLZELf1Sk](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7KWLZELf1Sk) for an example), and animation using timelines to show the differences among the tenses. Practice and testing follow the format below:

**Example.** Click on the correct form of the verb in the sentences below:

1. Sarah_________ up every morning.
   
   a. wake
   b. wakes
In the Cognitive Approach, technology employed high-end multimedia to create learning environments or ‘worlds’ that students traversed in order to accomplish a goal (see Schank, 1992 for goal-based scenarios). Figure 1 shows a simple goal-based scenario in finance where adult learners are assigned a specific task and can access resources, such as records and interviews to accomplish the task.

**Figure 1. Screen shot of a Goal-based Scenario**

![Screen shot of a Goal-based Scenario](image)

Such high-end multimedia was rarely used in language teaching. Some versions used the game format in which learners accumulate points by solving language tasks; however, these tasks remained variations of grammar exercises.

In approaches that emphasize the academic and social role of language, the technology needs to support research and interaction. The available technology already provides this through the Internet, email, chat, and videoconferencing that provide access to other texts and participants. This is a fundamentally different view of the purpose of technology; technology is no longer a tool to create an alternative environment—it is the environment.

9. **Using Technology in the Language Class**

As we said earlier, teachers’ assumptions about language teaching and learning shape how the technology will be used. The multimedia approach to technology may in fact reinforce the central role of the teacher: it is the teacher who controls the display of the material, while students merely watch the display and do not interact with the technology. (After a 2-day workshop in Amritsar on using interactive multimedia in kindergarten, teachers said they would click on the screen while children watched the display.) Instead
of reifying standard practice, we need to examine how the tools can help us achieve the goals of language proficiency by altering the teaching-learning process.

The available technology tools permit two transformations. First, the focus shifts from the teacher to the student; although the teacher decides and controls the activities, students have to be actively involved in the learning process. Second, the focus shifts from absorbing and memorizing information to interpreting and creating new material, which are the key elements of language in use.

In its new and broader role of supporting the educational endeavor, the language classroom can draw on tools that are currently available, without resorting to complicated software, hardware or third-party vendors. The teacher requires a computer with a word-processing program (such as Microsoft Word); if this computer is connected to a projector, students can see material projected on a screen. One step above this, students have access to computers in the classroom; this works best if groups of three students share a computer so that they can collaborate. Ideally, the computers should have access to the Internet to gather information and allow them to collaborate with one another and the outside world.

The software does not have to be sophisticated. When several computers are linked to one another or to the Internet, software programs allow users to speak (through Skype and webcam) or write (through email, chat, and discussion forums) with one another. To manage the tools better, they are sometimes integrated in a single system, called a Learning Management System (LMS) such as Nicenet, Blackboard, or Moodle, that allow the teacher to consolidate assignments, set topics and timings, and monitor student responses.

Below I have outlined some suggestions on how this can be done in the four skill areas, namely, listening/speaking, reading, and writing.

9.1. Listening and Speaking

The communicative approach tries to promote authentic communication. For example, students write dialogues to learn the techniques of turn-taking, negotiation, politeness, etc. Printed textbooks can only approximate spoken discourse and an authentic audience, but the communication tools in the new technologies provide opportunities to introduce authentic communication into the classroom. These collaboration tools can support the objectives of a language program, such as authentic communication and collaboration.

At a basic level, the technology allows us to store and access audio files. Before the advent of computers, the language laboratory was used to teach pronunciation and dialogues, and to show films. The content of this material has not changed, but it is more
Using Technology in the English Language Classroom

accessible to students and teachers. Further, such files can be found on the Internet and used to teach units such as pronunciation and dialogues.

Such files can also be easily created by teachers for teaching and by students for projects. Audio files, for example, merely need a microphone and speakers, both of which are built into new computers. Movies are a little more difficult; they can be recorded on digital cameras, loaded on a computer and edited using special software (this is an in-built feature in the Mac Book). Students can collaborate on mini-projects to create 2-minute audio or video clips, such as short conversations or interviews; here, the advantage is that students practice using language in a project that interests them.

One component of authentic communication is interacting with unfamiliar people in a distant location; examples are telephone conversations with officials and videoconferences with a team that allow people to interact in real time. Here, we need technology that can transmit voice (and visuals, if possible) in both directions. (This is similar to the ‘human network’ proposed by a company like Cisco.)

Software such as Skype and hardware such as a webcam can connect computers at distant locations, allowing participants to interact. The constraint here is that this has to occur in real time, for which adequate infrastructure (in terms of electricity and connectivity) is required.

9.2. Technology in Reading

Textbooks were created to provide teachers and students with texts and exercises for teaching and learning. With the advent of the Internet, students and teachers have access to vast resources, some of it more current than what a textbook can offer. Although teachers are wary of allowing students to use the Internet fearing that students will plagiarize, the Internet provides new opportunities. We will examine these opportunities before addressing the plagiarism issue.

The Internet throws up an interesting challenge. Since material on the Internet is not reviewed for factual accuracy, the quality of the information is uneven. This provides an opportunity to teach students to evaluate information from different texts. Asking students to find the answer to a simple question (such as “How many official languages does India recognize?”) will throw up multiple answers; from here, one can proceed to showing students how to evaluate sources, not to depend on secondary sources, and to go to the primary sources. This teaches the skills of critical reading.

The Internet also offers an opportunity for extensive reading. Instead of the limited universe in the textbook, students can look up additional information by following their
interests or explore alternative views. This, as we will see in the section below, feeds into a research culture that is not limited to a set of ‘facts’ in a textbook.

The main objection that teachers have to the use of the Internet is that students will not write their own essays but will merely copy-and-paste material that they find on the Internet. As with any tool, the Internet can be abused. It is easy to detect material that has been copied off the Internet because it does not match the student’s linguistic ability. If you have any doubts, type a few words from the student text into a search engine such as Google and the original text will pop up.

9.3. Technology in Writing

Using the computer

Word processing programs, such as Microsoft Word and LaTeX, have altered the way we write. It is easier to press keys than to form letters by hand; we can delete, insert and move text allowing us to reorganize information; when programs are bundled with linguistic tools, spelling and grammar are automatically checked; and the final output is neat and legible.

If this is what we use in real-life tasks, how much access to computers should we allow students? If your goal in the early stages is to get students to learn how to form letters, the computer should obviously not be used. However, the skills involved in writing are highly complex. In writing, attention has to be paid both to higher-level skills of planning and organization as well as lower-level aspects, such as spelling and punctuation (Flower and Hayes, 1981). Student writers find it difficult to coordinate these complex skills and the problem is further compounded if their language proficiency is weak. Composing on the computer appears to help lower-ability students (Dalton and Hannafin, 1987) and ESL writers (Pennington, 1993), because computers support some of the processes in writing, such as forming letters and checking spelling, leaving the student free to generate and expand their ideas.

In a project in Singapore with school students (for details, see Gupta, Hvidfeldt and Saravanan, 1995), we found that the computer helped weaker students compose longer and better organized texts. There were several reasons for this; first, their handwriting was so illegible that they could not read what they wrote by hand, whereas they could review their output on the computer screen. Second, once they had a draft, they would go back and elaborate on specific points in their essay. Third, students had passive vocabulary that they were unable to tap when writing by hand. On the computer, some of them used the spelling checker to generate words; they typed in a few letters of the word and then selected the correct word from the alternatives provided (Gupta, 1998). Thus, the computer seems to bring out student capabilities better than a handwritten text can.
Computers also allow teachers to show students how to compose and edit their essays. To do this, the teacher’s computer has to be connected to an overhead projector so that the entire class can see the computer screen. While students write their essays, I usually compose an essay on the same topic, so that students can see the writing process. To help them with editing, the teacher can display one student essay and ask the class how to improve it. The suggested changes can be typed in and students can see the effects of the changes immediately instead of having to visualize them.

Some teachers feel that students should write everything by hand and mark them for neatness and accuracy. However, these are merely the mechanics of writing that the computer can perform flawlessly. If the purpose is to present an argument, the computer cannot do that and so we raise the bar for student essays.

**Using the Internet**

Turning to writing, we need to re-examine our objectives in teaching writing. Essay writing is a strange beast. It is only in the composition class that students are required to write an essay on a general topic (such as *Clouds*) within a specified time (20 minutes to 3 hours), drawing on their memories for ideas.

Such an exercise is not found either in the content subjects or in real life where factual accuracy is valued. In the content areas, students display their knowledge of the content and so they are graded on content. In real life, one is expected to refer to published material, facts, etc. and cannot merely provide an opinion piece. In fact, the traditional English composition does not prepare students for the kinds of writing that they would do outside the composition class.

If we are to prepare students to deal with real writing tasks, the Internet becomes a valuable resource. Students can find information on the Internet, but the sheer volume and diversity forces students to evaluate and synthesize information from different sources. This teaches students the skills of critical reading and synthesizing information from different sources through paraphrasing and summarizing. It pushes students toward research skills that go beyond mere information retrieval as it includes referencing the sources.

**Using Collaborative Tools**

Today, several collaboration and communication tools are available to teachers and students; these include discussion forums, email, and chat. Of these, the most popular in education is the discussion forum, which we illustrate below.
Suppose you have assigned students an essay on the topic of recycling waste. An essay requires ideas and content that you could extract during class and organize using the blackboard. The same exercise can be done through technology by using the discussion forum on an LMS set up by the IT department of the college/university. In this forum, you start a topic, Recycling Waste, ask students to write in with their ideas, and close the discussion after a specified period (such as two days). Students are expected to not only send in their own ideas but also react to other students’ ideas. When a certain amount of information and ideas has been sent in, the discussion is closed.

The discussion forum offers two advantages over in-class discussions: access to information and time for reflection. Instead of speaking off the tops of their heads in class, students can access information on the Internet and provide thoughtful ideas that are expressed clearly in writing (since they become part of a written record); this improves both the quality of the ideas and their writing. (One professor of architecture found that when he used Chat for a seminar, student responses were more fact-based; students tended to check their facts on the Internet instead of merely hazarding a guess or giving their opinion.)

This additional time also helps weak or shy students who are intimidated about speaking up in class. The discussion forum also requires students to respond to others; they cannot merely put their opinions on the forum but have to react to what others suggest. This requires students to carefully read what others say and write an objective and polite critique that draws on language functions such as supporting or disagreeing politely. They also have to learn to persuade their peers of their point of view and defend their position. When the discussion is closed, students have a written record of the ideas, which results in a richer and more nuanced paper.

Email and Chat can be used for the same purpose as a discussion forum, but they have certain disadvantages. In email, students tend to write their own piece and not read what others have written. Chat has a different problem; it is synchronous or real-time, i.e., everyone has to be logged in at the same time to take part, which may be difficult to organize. But in the absence of a Learning Management System, they can help to improve students’ written communication skills.

These technology tools help us achieve language objectives that printed textbooks could only mimic. Language is for communication and these tools emphasize the skills of communication. However, there are two caveats. First, it places a burden on the teacher. Brainstorming in class takes 15 minutes; on a discussion forum, this is spread over several days. Teaching an online course is exhausting for the teacher, who is on call for most of the semester. Second, the tools should be used when appropriate; sending an email message to a classmate who is sitting next to you is artificial and defeats the purpose of the technology.
Many teachers resist using technology in the classroom because it requires a certain comfort level with using the tools and they are afraid of showing their ignorance in front of the students. The solution is to admit that students know the technology far better than we do and hand the tasks over to them as projects. For example, students can work in groups to create dialogues and short films to teach language. This has several advantages; since students are better at the technology than we are, the product is better. Second, the assignment has a tangible product, is interesting for students and, if it is done in groups, provides support for learning. Third, it meets the goals of language teaching; the activity uses language although it is embedded in a real world task. Finally, teachers can actually learn from their students how to use the technology.

10. The Way Ahead

The section above described how to use technology to further the aims of the language classroom as it stands today. However, it sidesteps one issue: the very nature of the language and texts that we use. The current focus is on the printed book, but technology has increased the importance and availability of multimodal texts.

Digital technology has had profound effects on the way we access, read, store and communicate information. The dominance of the printed book in Western societies is being replaced; first, the mode of representation is moving from words to images and, second, the medium is shifting from the book to the screen (Kress, 2005; cf. Prior, 2005), where information comes through both the visual and audio channels (Kress, 2000). In digital media, information is structured differently. For example, in PowerPoint the hierarchical structure of a text becomes flattened (Farkas, 2009), and information can get distorted (Tufte, 2003). Kress (2005) compares a college prospectus in its printed form and as a website; in the website, image and text are equally important, while hyperlinks offer multiple entry points that encourage a non-linear style of reading.

New technologies also affect language. Teachers complain that students use SMS shorthand in their formal essays. This is to be expected; with the advent of telephones, we got spoken interaction that was not face-to-face and so a specific structure developed to cope with this “secondary orality” (Ong, 1982). As a result, telephone conversations have structured beginnings to identify the speaker that are missing in face-to-face conversation (Schegloff, 1979).

The new technologies have given us access to ‘multiliteracies’ (The New London Group, 1996) that require readings of visuals, web pages, etc. We need to recognize this for two reasons; one, they are here to stay and if we ignore them, our material is limited and even out-of-date. Second, since our students are comfortable using these tools, we risk alienating them if we do not incorporate their features in the language classroom.
This paper examined the use of technology in the language classroom. In the classrooms that we wish to design, learners should be equipped with the tools for their own learning, while the teacher guides and provides support. The existing technology tools, such as the communication tools and the Internet, support and extend student opportunities and access to academic and authentic language skills. At the same time, we need to acknowledge ‘multiliteracies’ and incorporate them in our language classes.

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Using Technology in the English Language Classroom


**Colophon:**

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Teaching Literature through Language - Some Considerations

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Abstract

Teaching literature through language calls for active involvement of both the teacher and the taught. Here, the focus is on teaching literature and medium is the language. The context and form of a literary work brings forth meaningful discussion and enjoyment. The paper will discuss the importance of teaching literature in the language teaching and learning process, the question of choosing an appropriate literary text and some strategies for teaching literature by creating an awareness of linguistic possibilities and sensibility.

I think aesthetic teaching is the highest of all teaching because it deals with life in its highest complexity.

– George Eliot, 1866/1967: 9-10

A linguist deaf to the poetic function of language and a literary scholar indifferent to linguistic problems and not conversant with linguistic methods, are equally flagrant anachronism.

- Roman Jakobson, 1960: 377

1. Introduction

Language through literature is a subject that has been discussed among academicians for quite some time. However, the notion of literature through language may raise a few
eyebrows. Many universities around the globe offer a number of literature courses as part of the undergraduate program. Teachers who teach these courses often use the traditional method of lecturing on topics like theme, characterization, plot, motifs etc directly without giving any emphasis on the stylistic/linguistic aspect of the literary texts that they teach. Of course, students must be taught literature and it must be taught by creating an awareness of linguistic possibilities and sensibility. It is in this context that the idea of literature through language becomes relevant.

Teaching and learning literature through language demands active involvement of both the teacher and the taught in bringing the literary text to life. The medium is language and the context and form of a literary work arouse interest in the meaningful use of that medium. This, in the words of George Eliot is "aesthetic teaching". Here, the role of the teacher is crucial. His/Her role is to support the students' efforts to establish intensive relationship with literary texts without interfering too much in their act of creating meaning.

It is heartening to note that many academicians nowadays consider the importance of literature in language teaching. The time has come to realize that the ultimate objective of teaching and learning literature is the study of words, idioms and syntax at the highest level of thought and imagination. It is an exercise depicting as to how words and sentences are made and molded in order to communicate what the writer wants to say.

It is not literature through literature that is to be emphasized, but literature through language. In this paper, an attempt will be made to explain why teaching literature in the language classroom is important, what are some of the criteria to select suitable literary texts for students and what are some of the strategies that may be adopted while teaching literature. Robert Frost's poem "Stopping By Woods on A Snowy Evening" will be used as an illustration.

2. Why Literature?

Beyond the sentence are both a challenge and an opportunity. Surely, literary texts give us much aesthetic, intellectual and emotional pleasure in that the writer often seeks to express his/her vision of human experience through a creative, emotive use of language and this in turn provides much impetus and motivation for the students to learn the language. Learning Literature not only improves the basic skills like reading, writing, listening and speaking but also other language areas like vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. One of the pre-requisites for language learning is that students should have a feeling for the language which can be achieved through creative and critical use of literary texts where they can experience language in use.

For such experience to facilitate language learning, "the language experience needs to be contextualized and comprehensible" (Krashen 1985, 1993, 1999) and the learner needs to
be motivated, relaxed, positive and engaged (Arnold 1999: Tomlinson). Literature provides such rich experience to language learners and gives ample opportunities to develop their interpretative power- an important asset to language learning. It also provides a rich source for both teachers and students of shared experiences that can stimulate discussion.

Literature also can introduce the students to the varieties of English; it can be a source of linguistic and communicative enrichment, and it can be a powerful source of inspiration and motivation from which students may develop an interest for practical criticism.

Moody (1971:7) is of the opinion that literature also helps students improve their listening skills. The various topics in literature give students a chance for discussion which encourages oral practice. And often, a literary text is read out in full or in part by the teacher, or a record or tape version of it is played for the purpose of bringing out its rhythmic quality and stimulating interest. Thus, when used orally, Literature can develop the students' listening ability.

According to Obediat (1997:32), literature helps students acquire a native-like competence in English, express their ideas in good English, learn the features of modern English, learn how the English linguistic system is used for communication, see how idiomatic expressions are used, speak clearly, precisely, and concisely, and become more proficient in English, as well as become creative, critical, and analytical learners.

Collie and Slater (1990:30) point out four main reasons for using literature in a language class - literature is authentic material, it is helpful in cultural and language enrichment and finally students will have a lot of personal involvement. According to Maley (1989:12), the themes that literature deals with are common to all cultures in spite of the different approaches of the writers – death, love, human relationship, belief, nature etc and they are relevant to all human beings at all times. In short, literature is authentic material that can generate a new creative learning experience in the class and the students in turn will come out as competent learners of both language and literature.

3. Choosing an Appropriate Text

One of the challenges teachers face is regarding the selection of a suitable literary text for the students. The types of literary texts that can be used are plenty. However, a teacher should be extremely careful while choosing the text that s/he wants to deal with in the classroom. The needs of the students, their motivation, interest, and cultural background should be taken into consideration while selecting a literary work for the classroom teaching.

First of all, the teacher should enjoy the text that he/she chooses. It is also important to select a text of an appropriate length. Texts need to be appropriate to the level of the
students' comprehension. Shorter texts may be easier to use within the class time available, but longer texts provide more contextual details, and development of character and plot. According to Sage (1987: 87) lengthy texts might pose "the question of how to maintain students' interest". Extracts from a novel, abridged versions of a play or a novel and selected poems can be used in the classroom.

The most important criterion is of course to select texts that stimulate interest in the students. According to Brumfit (1986: 32), "of equal importance, however, is the choice of texts that lend themselves to student discussion and personal experience". Different themes will, of course, have different degrees of popularity at different levels. For example, a play like Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, with its theme of youthful passion, might interest students a lot. However, a text chosen should be culturally significant and appropriate. This is especially important while choosing texts for those students from the Gulf region.

Duff and Maley (2007: 12-13) believe that teachers can cope with many of the challenges that literary texts present, if they focus on some of the questions like:

- Is the subject matter interesting to the students?
- Is the level of the language suitable?
- Is it the right length for the available time?
- Does it need a lot of cultural or literary background knowledge?
- Is it culturally appropriate?
- Can the text be used for language learning purposes?

4. Integrated and Communicative Teaching Approach

One of the important strategies a teacher can adopt in the class is an integrated approach of teaching literature through language where the students are involved full well. In this method, language skills will not be taught in isolation but in an integrated way, incorporating a set of text-based, student-centered activities which as Collie and Slater (1987: 8) suggest "add fresh momentum into the teaching of literature by stimulating students' desire to read and encouraging their responses".

Teaching literature should involve pre-reading tasks, interactive work on the text and follow up activities. Activities like predicting, gap filling, creative writing, role-playing, integrating spelling with vocabulary etc can establish the necessary connection between language and literature which eventually make the teaching and learning of literature a very productive and enjoyable enterprise. These activities not only create a challenging environment where the students try to put their mettle in the best way possible, but also call for a great deal of attention on the part of the teacher who becomes a facilitator, blending in himself/herself the "intuitive response of a practicing literary critic and the analytical tools of a practical linguist" (Dutta: 522).
Roman Jakobson’s important statement quoted in the beginning of this paper implies that language, the medium through which a writer brings out his/her creative output claims a closer attention than most teachers of literature are willing to devote.

In an integrated approach, a teacher ceases to teach and instead he becomes a participant and guide who works with his/her students. Here, the classroom activities may be divided into three categories viz. "Pre-Reading Activities", "While-Reading Activities" and "Post-Reading Activities". Pre-reading activities are kind of warming up which can provide a forum to elicit from students their feelings and responses to ideas and issues in a prescribed text. "While-reading activities" aim at helping the students to experience the text holistically by developing a fruitful interaction between the text and the reader. Post-reading activities encourage students to reflect upon what they have read and they generate thoughtful discussion on different issues related to both language and literature arising from the text.

In what follows, I shall try to enumerate some strategies for teaching a poem in an undergraduate class. The selected poem is Robert Frost's "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening" (Appendix)

(A) Pre-Reading Activities

Before students read the poem, it is useful to involve them into activities that will create the right attitude for receptivity and enjoyment with the result that they are inspired to read the poem again and again. The activities involve the students who will be asked to make use of their experience of life and their imagination and intelligence which will enable them to guess what may happen in certain situations. The title of the poem, illustrations, keywords, warmers, language exercises are some of the tools that may be used in the classroom for generating inferences.

(i) Title

The title of a piece of literary work is important, as it tends to indicate the subject/theme of the text. The teacher announces in the class the title of the poem that s/he wants to discuss and without giving the poem ask the students to infer what is likely to happen in the text. After writing the title "Stopping by Woods on A Snowy Evening" on the board, the teacher may ask a range of questions to elicit responses from the students:

1. Is the title of the poem a sentence or a group of words?
2. What do you understand by woods?
3. What is the difference between "wood" and "woods"?
4. Give some examples of nouns that give you one meaning in the singular form and another meaning in the plural form?
5. Do you have woods in your country? Name them
6. Can you predict from the title what is likely to happen in the poem?
7. Is the poem going to be a description of the woods?
8. Is the poem going to describe some incident that took place in the woods?

At this juncture, students can be asked to work in groups, pairs or individually. The teacher may collect the answers and share with the students the different responses that they have given. With this activity, the teacher can generate interest among the students who will also bring forth inferences on the poem. In this way, students will have an opportunity to use their imagination and intelligence.

(ii) Illustration

Having discussed the title, the teacher may now give a pictorial presentation of the poem. Such an activity can provide important clues for predicting the content of the poem. There are many texts that have front-cover illustrations including pictorial representations of the contents. Alternatively, the teacher (if s/he has artistic talent) can draw a picture based on the poem or take the help of an artist friend.

An illustration of the poem, "Stopping By Woods..." should show a forest with a lake where the water is frozen as it is winter time. Near the lake there is a traveler who has stopped his horse and watching the beautiful scene. The horse has harness bells around its neck. The teacher asks the students to derive as much information as possible about the background/setting of the poem by closely examining the details. While students go through the illustration, the teacher may ask some questions like:

- What could be the time in the forest- evening/night/afternoon/dawn?
- Why do you think the traveler has stopped his horse in the forest?
- Do you know what is a "farmhouse"?
- Is the traveler afraid?
- What must he be thinking?
- What do you think about the lake? Why is it frozen?
- Is it a beautiful or frightening site? Explain

These questions, prompting further involvement and responses, bring students one step closer to the text and encourage them to read and understand the poem better.

(iii) Warmers

One line warmers can be picked up from the poem or chosen from maxims, proverbs and quotations that are closely related to some aspect of the theme or content. Warmers facilitate open discussion and help elicit inferences about the content of the poem. The teacher, choosing some related warmers, distribute them to students and asks them to
explain the idea contained in them. In order to elicit more interest in understanding the poem the teacher may choose the following one-liners:

- The woods are lovely, dark and deep
- Man's heart away from nature becomes hard
- A thing of beauty is a joy for ever
- There is pleasure in the pathless woods
- For every promise there is a price to pay
- Miles to go before I sleep
- The fear of death follows from the fear of life
- A man who lives fully is prepared to die at any time

Students may discuss the above in group, or in pairs and the teacher can ask them to write briefly about what they have understood from the warmers. The warmers help the students to formulate ideas on a more concentrated level about the possible meaning of the poem.

(iv) *Key words and expressions*

The text sometimes gives clues for predicting its theme or motif through the vocabulary used. It is, therefore, useful to pay some attention to the structure, organization, selection and collocation of lexical items in a literary piece. They usually appear in the form of key words/expressions sentences or lines and the students will be able to judge what the atmosphere within the text is going to be. In this case, the teacher can present a list of lexical items from the poem and may ask the students to prepare a mental picture of what they have imagined/understood from the connotative implications of the given words and expressions.

Watch …woods…fill up with snow

Frozen lake

Harness bells

The only …sound's the sweep

Of easy wind and downy flakes

Miles to go before I sleep

Students may be asked to discuss these in groups or pairs as being done earlier and they may be able to recreate the imaginative world depicted in the text. The teacher can
prompt some questions which may be of help for the students to come to certain conclusions:

- Why is the narrator watching the woods?
- Are the woods filled up with snow? What is the reason?
- What do the "woods" represent? Something good or bad?
- What do you understand by the expression "frozen lake"? Why is the lake frozen?
- The wind is described as "easy" and flakes are "downy" - Why?
- What do you think the poem is about? Does it convey a message?

The activities discussed so far are meant to elicit inferences from the students regarding the poem that they are going to learn. These activities will create a lot of interest and curiosity in the mind of the students and inspire them to read the poem closely. At this juncture, the teacher can ask the students to open the text and engage them in the following While-reading activities

(B) While-reading Activities

After doing the pre-reading activities, students are ready to read and study the text that they are supposed to deal with. Here, they are going to develop a purposeful interaction between the text and its readers. The following While-reading activities can be tried out in the class:

- Listening to a good reading of the text
- Reading of the text
- Language Exercises
- Checking against the inferences made about the text in the pre-reading activities

Students often enjoy listening to a text either on a tape or when it is being read out loudly by the teacher in the classroom. It is, of course, very advantageous if the teacher has a good voice quality and a dramatic sense while reading the text. This will help students to "feel" the language, its rhythm, intonation, sounds etc. If the text is long, the teacher can read some of the interesting sections which will encourage them to read the whole.

Now, it is the turn of the students to read first, silently and then loudly individually, in pair or in group. The teacher can then ask them to mark some of the difficult words or expressions in the text and help them to find out the meanings.

From the reading, students will be happy to note that they have formed some clear ideas about the poem before actually going through it.

(C) Post-reading Activities
Post-reading activities are meant to create a suitable situation for the students to express their reactions to reading the text. These will not only deepen their understanding of the text but also generate interest in the creative use of the language. Some of the post-reading activities are:

(i) **Comprehension Questions**

These questions are meant to assess how far the students have understood the text. The teacher may ask the following questions regarding the poem:

- What are "harness bells"?
- Why does the horse shake his harness bells?
- What other sounds alone can be heard in the woods?
- Why does the poet mention these sounds?
- "My little horse must think it queer" – What does "it" mean here?
- Can the horse think like a human being? Why does the poet give this quality to an animal?

Students may be asked to answer the questions orally or in writing and the teacher can go through the answers and if necessary improve upon them.

Other subsidiary questions may also be asked to know whether the students have understood the poem wholly:

- Who is the narrator of the poem? Is it the poet?
- What do you understand by "poetic persona"?
- Explain what a lyric poem is?
- Is the poet speaking to some one or himself?
- Do you know what soliloquy/monologue is?
- Why does the poet use the Present tense all through the poem?
- Why has the poet repeated the last two lines?
- Explain some of the figures of speech in the poem?

At every stage the teacher is required to give guidance/explanations to the students in answering the questions. They also may be asked to make use of the Internet and Library facilities available.

(ii) **Language Exercises**

A variety of language exercises can be introduced in the class at this juncture. These exercises may be either element-based, focusing on particular areas of language or skill...
based, focusing on any four skills of language learning. Some of the language exercises that may be carried out with regard to the present poem are:

- Giving antonyms of the selected words and phrases and change certain lines into passive voice (example: “He will not see me stopping here”)
- Change the use of present tense of the poem into past tense a different version of the poem.
- Studying structural peculiarities of the poem (Example: Inverted structure "Whose woods these are I think I know". Ask the students to put the line in the usual prose order. Or repetition of the line "And miles to go before I sleep")

(iii) **Memorizing**

Memorization is a useful pedagogical tool especially regarding poetry. It is not as some say a "rote exercise". On the contrary, memorization allows the students to 'feel' and experience language. It is a profound source of 'spiritual nourishment'. If the poem is very lengthy, some interesting lines or stanzas could be memorized and it is a very fruitful and rewarding experience.

(iv) **Creative Activities**

Re-writing exercises and role playing are two creative activities that the teacher can introduce in order to enhance the students' understanding and appreciation of the poem for the improvement of their expressive and receptive skills.

Re-writing activities may be 'free' or 'controlled'. In the former, students enjoy the freedom of expressing, in their own words, what they have understood from the text. Here they can write a parallel poem using the same theme in a different background, may be a local one. In controlled or guided writing exercises, students are given guidelines. They may be asked to summarize the poem in a fixed number of words, or to rewrite the text with a different ending.

In role playing, students are asked to assume different roles. Such activities help students gain self confidence and self esteem. In the case of the poem under study, one student can play the role of the poetic persona, who is the narrator of the poem and the other the traveler on horseback. There are numerous poems that the students can perform with the guidance and encouragement from the teacher. Frost's other poems like "The Death of a Hired Man", Mending Wall" "The Road Not Taken" are a few examples.

5. Conclusion

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There are umpteen strategies and methods for teaching literature in the class room. The strategies described in this paper are just a few. They can be applied in the case of teaching any other genres in literature- a short story, a novel or drama.

Whatever strategies a teacher adopts in the class, the aim is that students gain a fuller understanding of the text and have linguistically and conceptually prepare themselves to study it for interpretation and evaluation. Using the strategies discussed above, students learn how to make predictions and check them against the details in the given text. They also learn how to derive meaning of a text and form a semantic chain from the key words, examine how language is used to describe a setting and create desired effects, analyze how to assess them, and also find out ways of transferring the text and reconstructing its specific and literal meaning.

Thus, with awakened language sensitivity and improved literary insight, they gain the ability to read a literary work critically as a creative expression with aesthetic sensibility. In short, they have learned "literature through language".

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Appendix 1

Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening
Robert Frost

Whose woods these are I think I know.
His house is in the village, though;
He will not see me stopping here
To watch his woods fill up with snow.

My little horse must think it queer
To stop without a farmhouse near
Between the woods and frozen lake
The darkest evening of the year.

He gives his harness bells a shake
To ask if there is some mistake.
The only other sounds the sweep
Of easy wind and downy flake.

The woods are lovely, dark, and deep,
But I have promises to keep,
And miles to go before I sleep,
And miles to go before I sleep.

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Abstract

To understand foreign culture, one has to learn the foreign languages. Among foreign languages, Japanese language has a very important role to play throughout the world. This paper is based on the self-learning process of Japanese pictography (KANJI). We are developing an e-learning tool which will help us to learn Japanese pictography on our own. For that, a colligated study has been made on e-learning of Japanese pictography (Kato & Okamoto, 2003). With the rapid progress of computing technology, this e-learning tool can be of great use to the common people who are interested in learning Japanese language. At the same time, any educational institute’s foreign language department can implement this concept while teaching Japanese language to LANGUAGE IN INDIA www.languageinindia.com

Santanu Mukerji, M.A.
their students. The efforts which we make in this paper, its message, conceptualization and demonstration, fairly minimize the usual customary routine teaching and would inspire the young students to learn the Japanese language by themselves.

**Introduction**

Japanese language is spoken by 120 million people throughout the world (Honna, 2008). In the early centuries of the Christian era, Japanese people did not have a writing system of their own (Hidaka, 2010). As the Japanese began to interact with the Chinese (Norman, 1988), they adopted Chinese institutions and pictographic style. Chinese characters were introduced to Japan via the Korean peninsula in the fourth century A.D. In the next two centuries, Chinese books on philosophy and Buddhism were brought to Japan and studied by the Japanese aristocrats (Tan & Jones, 2003).

In the beginning, Japanese did use the authentic Chinese or a hybrid Japanese-Chinese style. A good example of the latter is 古事記 kojiki (Ancient Chronicles), written in 712. Since the Japanese did not have their own script, they soon began to use same Chinese characters for their own Japanese language (Verdonschot et al., 2010). In the beginning, they utilized the characters purely for their phonetic values, for example, the native Japanese word yama (which means ‘mountain’ in English) was written 也麻, with the first character representing “ya” and the second “ma” (Halpern, 2001). This method of writing is referred to as 万葉仮名 man'yōgana because it was used extensively in the 万葉集 man'yōshū, an eighth-century anthology of Japanese poems. (Kimbrough, 2005).

We have partially developed a group of essential pictographs or 当用漢字表 /toyokanjis for the Japanese language with the help of software technology as .NET. We made the database
with the help of ORACLE. Utilizing this software technique helps every one to access the pictography or KANJI stored in the data base with the input given in the software.

In this paper, we have depicted the effectual features, speedy response and excellent graphical environment of the e-learning of the possibility of future software, which will make e-learning process of Japanese language easier.

**Demand for Learning the Japanese Language**

![Pie chart showing interest in learning Japanese language](image)

**Fig-1:** The above figure shows the amount of interest shown by the Indians for learning Japanese

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Language in India www.languageinindia.com
10 : 7 July 2010
Sanjiban Sekhar Roy, B.E., M.Tech., and Santanu Mukerji, M.A.
e-Learning of Japanese Pictography – Some Perspectives
language during a public opinion poll on Japan. The survey was performed between 4th to 25th February, 2009. Courtesy: Embassy of Japan, New Delhi.
Fig-2: In the above figure we have chosen 14 important languages. X axis represents number of chosen languages and Y-axis represents number of native speakers throughout the world.

The Focus of This Study

We are designing this e-learning software for those who are eager to acquaint them with the written Japanese language and to enhance their elementary ability to read and write. This proposed e-learning software will be a dictionary like resource that will furnish the beginner with the knowledge of sufficient characters in written Japanese, which will enable students to read and write the language in everyday life. This dictionary represents 1850 characters which are prescribed by the Japanese Ministry of Education (Yamada, 1992). It will definitely make the learning process easier.

Review of Literature

This e-learning dictionary is partitioned into two major sections. The first part presents 881 characters designated by the Ministry of Education, Japan (Ogasawara, 2009), as the basic requirement for new learners. The second major section of the dictionary presents 1850 characters designated as standard for general everyday use in the publishing world. This includes the previous 881 basic characters, and the total characters represent the most significant measurement, which simplify the Japanese language.

The essential 881 characters are given with their on-yomi (reading taken from Chinese) kun-yomi (native Japanese reading) definitions and number of strokes (Ogasawara, 2009). All the words regarding Romanization and pronunciation of all kanji’s are in order of Hepburn (Hepburn, 1867) system of Romanization has been followed in this e-learning project.

Methodology
We are developing this soft dictionary which will be having effectual features, speedy response, and excellent graphical environment. It will be evolving as a great e-learning interactive tool. Consider the following examples of Kanji (Picone, Staples, Kondo, Arai and Arai) characters

休 = rest, vacation
人 = person
上 = top, above, raise

Using Microsoft .NET technology, we can draw Kanji characters so that people can learn these characters very easily. In this paper, we have tried a number of keystrokes to generate one Kanji character.

Below are the programming steps, where we have shown the possibility of using C# (pronunciation-C Sharp) language and Microsoft .NET technology. The following screen shot is a windows form application. We discussed the algorithm of the code used for the software here in this paper as follows.

I. Create a Windows Form Application in .NET using language C#.
II. Create the following controls in the form: NumberSelector, Enter (button), Exit Form (button), Next Kanji Button and one panel for displaying the Kanji information.
III. Initialize components for the form.
IV. Choose two adjacent rectangular areas on the form where the person kanji will be painted as shown in figure – with similar width and height.
V. Set the x, y co-ordinates for those rectangles.
VI. Choose two elliptical areas inside each rectangle in the central position – calculating the lengths of a and b (2a= height of rectangle, 2b=width of the rectangle) keeping in mind the following
   Equation of ellipse is defined as
   \[ x^2/2 + y^2/2 = 1 \]
   So the rectangle forms the bounds of the ellipse.
VII. Using DrawArc function in System. Drawing namespace, actually draw two arcs –which are part of two ellipses –as shown in figure.

VIII. Supply Pen object, points of rectangle, start Angle and Sweep Angle to the drawarc function.

   Start Angle = Angle in degrees measured clockwise from the x-axis to the starting point of the arc.

   Sweep Angle = Angle in degrees measured clockwise from the startAngle parameter to ending point of the arc.

IX. Thus, person kanji will be created.

X. To draw raise kanji, draw 3 lines in the drawing pane. Two will be horizontal and one will be vertical.

XI. The lines are drawn on each button click event of enter button.

XII. Two small triangles (of green color) are drawn at the edge of each blue horizontal line – to signal the end of drawing stroke.

XIII. The DrawLine function in System. Drawing namespace is used to draw the raise kanji.

XIV. Supply Pen object, start and end co-ordinates of the line to be drawn.

XV. The application can be closed with Exit button.

Screen Shots

Kanji
Fig-3: Picture is showing front page of our proposed software

Fig-4: Picture is showing Kanji and its explanation of our proposed software

Conclusion

Many high schools and colleges in India require foreign language classes for graduation. Learning a foreign language is more essential today than ever before. This learning process will Language in India www.languageinindia.com

10 : 7 July 2010
Sanjiban Sekhar Roy, B.E., M.Tech., and Santanu Mukerji, M.A.
e-Learning of Japanese Pictography – Some Perspectives
definitely make us more receptive; create opportunities for employment and transfer of knowledge, while bringing prosperity to us. Learning Japanese language is beneficial for personal, professional, social, and economic aspects. But the conventional class room teaching method may not always be effective and efficient. Using e-learning tool as a tool helps motivate the learners while making their learning more efficient. Also, the effectual features, speedy response, excellent graphical environment of the e-learning software surely make students desire more to learn the Japanese language. This will quicken the process of learning as well.

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10 : 7 July 2010
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Is It a Language Worth Researching?
Ethnographic Challenges in the Study of Pahari Language

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Abstract

Pahari, also called Dhundi-Pahari or Dhundi Kairali, is the indigenous language of the native population of Murree in the extreme north of the Punjab province, including some areas of Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa province ("Consensus reached," 2010). It is like other regional languages in Pakistan. It is an underdeveloped, unprivileged and ignored language which lacks proper orthography. A sociolinguistic study was conducted by the researcher to gauge the level of language shift and maintenance.

This paper does not directly deal with the results of the original research but with an intermediate issue of ethnographic difficulties faced by the researcher during the prolonged stay in the field for interviews and participant observation.

This study focuses on the reaction of the community members towards the idea of Pahari as a language as well as the emergent challenges during the presence of the researchers in the field.

The study concludes that Pahari needs to be maintained and sustained through the confidence building measures among the native speakers regarding the value and significance of their language.
Pahari as a Linguistic Group

Pahari, as its name suggests, is a language spoken by the natives of hills. Pahari is a general name for almost all the languages spoken from Nepal to Pakistan. This long path of Pahari languages contains many independent languages and dialects. Most often these languages are recognized by their specific geographical names or tribal names. *Ethnologue Languages of the World* 16th edition (Lewis, 2009) describes the Pahari in Pakistan and Pakistani part of Kashmir as Pahari-Potwari. This branch of Pahari has four major varieties in Pakistan.

These branches are:

1. Pahari of Murree Hills, Kotli Sattian, Gulyat and Circle Bakote, (also sometimes called Pahari-Potwari, Dhundi-kairali, Dhundi).
2. Pothohari spoken in Rawalpindi, Kahuta, Gojar Khan and Taxila.
4. Poonchi of Muzaffarabad, Neelam Valley and Rawlakot
   (Abbasi & Asif, 2010)

Pahari Used as a Common Name

The Pahari variety under study is sometimes referred to as Dhundi-kairali or only Dhundi in the language surveys (see, e.g., Masica, 1991) because it is principally spoken by two ethnic groups ‘Dhunds’ and ‘Kairals’. Dhunds are also called Abbasis.

This name Dhundi-kairali was first used by Grierson (*LSI*, VIII) which was later objected to, because most of the people did not know this name. According to Lothers and Lothers (2007), the speakers of this variety of Pahari did not usually identify themselves as speakers of Dhundi-kairali. Most of them were not even aware of such a name as Dhundi-Kairali. Therefore, the name Pahari (widely known and used by the community members), instead of Dhundi-kairali or Dhundi-Pahari (used in the books and language surveys only), is used in this paper to refer to this variety of language.

Background of the Pahari Community

The major tribe in Murree is Abbasi tribe which constitutes the majority population of this area. Sattis are the majority tribe in Kotli Sattian. The people of these areas, by and large, lived a tribal life for quite sometime before the independence of the subcontinent. After the departure of the British, they started mixing up with the people of other areas and a language contact situation emerged. These people had strong tribal feelings and a sense of superiority in every sphere of life. This community had strong sense of unity with bravery and courage as the symbols of its character. They usually had their own crops and cattle. They had vast areas of land under their control. There were other smaller tribes but they were not able to foreground themselves and hence lived dominated by the Dhund Abbasis.
Effects of Contact with Other Communities

The indigenous Pahari speaking community was faced with the contact situation when they opened up their avenues for the world. Murree was a hill station developed by the British and in the summer people started coming here to spend three months of extreme hot weather in the plains of Pakistan and abroad. Tourism was the industry which grew rapidly and the native population had set up their businesses here. These businesses directly or indirectly depended on the influx of the visitors. As a result, native people were exposed to the foreign culture and language. The people were influenced culturally and linguistically alike.

The Nature of Actual Research

Given this situation, in which language shift was taking place, I went into the field to see how much language shift had taken place and what the prospects of language maintenance were. I spent quite sometime in the field to collect data. My research was ethnographic in nature and I used participant observation to judge the very essence of the feelings and aspirations of the indigenous population. I participated in conversations with eight families of varying income groups, four each in rural and urban areas. I recorded the natural conversation of members of the families and interviewed them.

The results showed significant decrease in the usage of Pahari and increasing trend in the usage of Urdu. In schools and colleges, there was a growing tendency of using and patronizing Urdu and English as the media of instruction. Thus, I noticed that the native Pahari language was in the process of decline.

Ethnography

Ethnography is a technique used by anthropologists to approach the dispersed data in the culture and to interpret them in meaningful terms. It is primarily based on recording and interpreting distinctive things in a culture (Embers and Embers, 2009). In ethnographic fieldwork, the researcher throws himself or herself into the field by becoming a part of it with a view to infer the social meanings of the behaviour and other naturally occurring activities. Ethnographer approaches the community with a very basic and crude idea or a research question. This question is later modified as the culture and the community open themselves up.

Language is an important part of culture and a system of expression for the culture. Therefore, the phenomenon of language usage can best be elicited through ethnographic fieldwork. As participant observation is an important tool of ethnography, I resorted to be a participant to observe the real language use of the families which I had selected for observation and interviews. In my situation, I had to observe the natural language used by the community members among each other; therefore, participant observation was the best possible technique to be applied in my case too.
Participant Observation

Ethnography relies much on participant observation. Participant observation as a technique is widely accepted in Anthropology for the space it provides to the researcher. It provides an atmosphere for the researcher to collect diverse type of data. Participant observation is a suitable technique in my research work as the principal data is to be collected from the natural conversation of the people in the families. This is only possible if the researcher goes to these families and participates as an insider. Generally, it is very difficult to be a part of the families as an insider, because the outsider can never be an insider, howsoever much he or she may try.

Perhaps this was the reason that the classical technique of participant observation used to be very lengthy and the researchers had to spend six months to one year in the field to approach the true data from the people. But as far as my situation was concerned, it was easier as I did not have to go to a place where I was completely an outsider and where I had to first mix up with the local people to create a frank atmosphere for the information to be collected.

My Position as a Participant Observer

There were two elements which made it easier for me. The community where I wanted to collect data was hardly aware of this phenomenon of language shift. Therefore, it was not a great issue as compared to other social issues. Secondly, I was also a member of this community and had personal relation with the different families. I worked in eight families as a part of them. I kept on sitting with the members of these families and involved them in discussion. The real conversation usually took place when some guests came and then the real language was observed. On such occasions, it appeared that the participants were speaking spontaneously without any inhibition. So I always wanted to have some guests from the neighborhood to join the conversation. That would also serve to divert the attention of the family members to other issues from the recording that was being done.

Initial Expectations

This was my first ever ethnographic study. I had different expectations from the community members in regard to their response to my queries. I myself belonged to that community and Pahari was my native language too. In this regard, I thought that I would be able to easily accomplish the task of data collection. In the beginning, I planned to participate in sixteen families belonging to different areas of Murree. Then I reduced the number of families to twelve and finally I decided to record the natural conversation of eight families, because of the difficulty arising in the selection of the relevant families. However, I interviewed the members of twelve families to maximize the validity of data.

First Response
When I entered the field to select families, I came to know that it was not an easy job. I had to select the families according to a criterion which I had already fixed. I had to select four families from the rural areas and four from the urban. These four families each from rural and urban had to have a certain level of income. I did a pilot study of the families if they fulfilled my criterion. It was again not an easy job, because the families which I selected were not all suitable to be observed and studied. I wanted to have preferably those families which had all three generations currently alive. Finally, I selected families on my own to interview and participate. When I contacted those families, I came to know that I might not be able to get the help of all the members of the families because of the fact that people, especially men, would be away from their houses. Some had their jobs and they would come back late in the evening. Others were employed in different departments located in Rawalpindi/Islamabad or Karachi. So they would come back to their houses generally on weekends. When I entered the field to interview people, I also told them that I was working on Pahari; they first smiled and laughed as if to show ‘if this is a language worth researching’. Many of them did say that I was wasting my time and I should have worked on any other better language.

My Introduction at the Research Site

It is generally held difficult to gain access to the research site and the researchers have to be very cautious for their entry into the field and get them introduced. But, in my case, it was not as much difficult. I was a member of this community and had personal relations with the people. I was born in village Musyari which is adjacent to Murree city. It is one of the oldest villages of Murree. The residents of this village personally owned the area which is now called Murree city. Musyari was also the old name of Murree. I got primary and middle education from the local village schools and then I received my secondary and higher secondary education from Government High School, Murree and Government Degree College, Murree.

In this way, I developed my relations with the people of other villages as well. Later, I was appointed as a lecturer at the Government College Murree in 1999. Since then, I developed relations with many students belonging to all parts of Murree.

All these made my work a bit easier as my entry into the field was not very surprising for the people. There are numerous examples of the researchers who were not accepted by the community where they wanted to research and where they had to face a lot of problems. Sometimes they had to wait for a long time to settle down before they could start formal data collection. In my case, I was lucky enough to have my own native community to observe. This gave me mental satisfaction. But there were other unseen problems which crept into the setting which were not expected.

Unexpected Reactions

Despite the fact that I was a member of the community where I planned to conduct my research, I had to face some unexpected reactions from the families. Before I started my work I contacted different families and discussed with them my intent of recording the natural conversation. The
students who played the role of informants and introducers between me and the families told me that the families were suspicious about recording of conversation. They wanted to convey that the conversation might be harmful for them because there was a chance of saying something against the government or its policies. There were certain examples before the people when people were taken by the government agencies for their alleged involvement in militant activities. I observed that there was a sense of fear among the people regarding the recording of natural conversation in their homes. These feelings of the people did not hinder my work as I was able to satisfy them because of my personal contacts and family relationship. In spite of this, I felt that people were a bit reserved and thus I had to put some more labor to make myself as an insider.

**Recording Dilemma**

The recording of the natural conversation was not an easy job. In the western societies, ethnographers usually select the lunch or dinner time when all the family members get together and discuss the things of daily life. In this way a very short time can be helpful in getting a lot of data which comprise a variety of conversation of the people. The same has been done by Li Wei (1997) when he studied the Teochew community in Singapore.

In the Pakistani situation, however, this is not generally possible especially when the communities of the regional and indigenous languages are to be studied. In my fieldwork, I faced the same kind of general Pakistani problem. As Murree is a hilly area, the houses are scattered and lying at a distance from one another. Similarly, the houses are very scattered in the rural areas. The family kitchen may be outside of the house and the washrooms are sometimes separately built at a distance. So at lunch, people do not get together. Some eat their lunch outside, some sitting inside; some are seen in their courtyard. In this situation, recording of natural conversation becomes very difficult. So one has to take shots of different places while, being very careful all the time.

**Shyness**

It was again a very significant phenomenon which I observed during my fieldwork. I, being a male researcher, had to face this problem. Usually the women constitute the major population as the men folk go away for jobs and businesses. Women mostly live in their houses and have less world exposure. So, the presence of a male disturbed them to some extent despite the fact that I had developed very good terms with the family members. So, they were careful in speaking about anything which might not be good in the company of a male alien.

**Shame**

Language shame was another factor which hindered the people from speaking their heart out in the conversation. For them, Pahari was a weak language in comparison with Urdu, English or Punjabi. So, in the presence of a college lecturer and a Ph.D. researcher, they would like to speak...
in Urdu in place of Pahari, even when they knew Pahari very well. So, for some, Pahari could be used within their families only. They would like to use Urdu or Punjabi when somebody from outside came to their family.

**Conclusion**

The research which I conducted to know language shift and maintenance among Pahari speakers in the Pahari speaking community of Murree, revealed so many socio-psychological facts to me.

I passed through various stages of enlightenment and surprises. It was like a journey through the community and the psyche of the community. I can say that I started the research as a novice researcher, but, when I came out of this community, I was an educated person. I learnt a lot from the crude knowledge lying scattered in bits among the various sections of the society. I also learnt to deal with emerging challenges which is the hallmark of ethnography. I travelled from darkness, groping like anybody and came out with a clear vision of the socio-psychological behaviour of the Pahari community.

During this research, I was able to identify many more issues which have not been researched. The community was hesitant in the use of Pahari and especially when it was recorded. Sometimes, it looked as if Pahari were not a language to be used for recording in a technological device like the voice recorder. So, this cultural study enabled me to conclude that the users of Pahari should be encouraged to speak it. Moreover, it also raised a psychological question as to why Pahari speakers feel such an inferiority complex. This ethnographic study has opened up many questions to be answered in due course of time.

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*Is It a Language Worth Researching? Ethnographic Challenges in the Study of Pahari Language*


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Using a Reading Material for Interactive Reading

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Abstract

Reading is essentially an active as well as a communicative process. It is an important language skill required for academic and professional purposes. Quick, efficient and imaginative reading techniques are essential to achieve academic success. One’s professional performance also definitely depends on the quantity and quality of reading. In the learning process, reading comprehension follows the listening comprehension. It is the listening ability, which enhances one’s reading comprehension.

This paper calls for doing away with the conventional method of teaching in developing comprehension skills by introducing the Interactive Method and argues for the utilization of groups of students. In this context, the students are first exposed to listening, and then reading. They are required to discuss before taking up writing skills. Hence, interactive skills and group tasking, necessary for inculcating communication skills in the long run, have been successfully attempted.

Key words: reading techniques, professional performance, interactive skills, group tasking

Importance of Reading for Academic Achievement

Reading plays a major role in the learning process. Reading technical materials involves a complex process of obtaining discipline-specific information and retaining the same for future use and reference. Reading could be quite a challenging activity because of the complexity involved – comprehension is not always simple. Reading needs better
concentration and motivation and especially reading of technical materials needs critical analysis and evaluative understanding.

Reading is an important skill by which profound ideas and observations of the writer gently flow into the minds of the readers. Moreover, it is a communicative process to meet the academic and professional needs. Thus, students pursuing professional courses such as engineering need excellent reading skills because of their need to get exposed to different kinds of materials.

**Needed: Effective Linking of Four Processes**

Efficient reading could be achieved with the effective linking of the four processes: decoding, comprehending, text analysis and response. The process of reading could easily be influenced by social, cultural, educational, professional and intellectual frames of reference (Rizvi, 2005:219). In order to overcome any possible negative influence of these frames of reference, the basic purpose of reading should clearly be identified.

In academic contexts, a student has to read and interpret textbooks, research papers and articles in technical journals, teaching notes, notices, internet resources, technical reports, directories, encyclopedias, laboratory instruction sheets, safety manuals and regulations and reference materials. Unless the student reads with a purpose and comprehends the text clearly he or she may not be efficient in his or her academic activities as well as in his or her chosen profession. Hence, it is imperative to identify dynamic and productive grasping techniques to improve reading.

**The Goal of This Paper**

The present study aims to improve students’ reading comprehension focusing on analysis activities.

Comprehension in reading refers to the identification of the central theme, supporting details and the aspect/s around which the ideas are developed. Comprehension of a technical text needs critical and analytical thinking which leads to the effective linking of the factors involved in the reading process.

**The Study**

Researchers conducted an experiment in a class of undergraduate engineering students. The material given to them comprised of both the reading and writing aspects of the language.

The legacy of teaching comprehension exercise through the Conventional Method of Teaching (CMT), by merely reading the given passage and answering the questions appended to it, was dispensed with. This enabled us to ensure that the skills of reading and writing were imparted in an enjoyable manner.

**Developing Comprehension**
The word *comprehension* means ‘the power of the mind to understand’. It has two parts, namely, reading and interpretation. While reading the given passage, one realizes the content, the attitude of the author to the subject, and peculiar diction through four types of reading such as skimming, scanning, receptivity (subsidiary details) and critical.

The ultimate purpose of a comprehension exercise is to test one’s proficiency in the use of language through two skills - reading and writing.

The analytical activity of using group work in teaching comprehension allows the two parts of reading and interpretation to be developed simultaneously.

**Methodology**

A passage was selected for use in the class by the faculty. Loud reading of the given passage was done by a couple of students in the class. Twenty students who volunteered to take up the task were then divided into groups of five each. Each group was assigned a special task. The first five were to prepare five True or False statements on the passage. Another five were assigned five Short Answer Questions. The third and fourth groups were asked to frame Completion of Statements and Identification of Difficult Words for giving contextual meaning. Apart from the 20, one student was asked to summarize the whole activity.

The questions prepared by the students were then read out, reserving the answers. The teacher reframed the questions wherever necessary, pointing out correct answers. Finally, the teacher’s own contribution was read out and compared to that of the students for improvement.

In this interactive reading, the whole class was involved. That is, the class was wholly involved both in reading and writing. One among the group of five read, while the other four gathered material from the loud reading. Then, each one set one question, a True or false statement, a Completion of Statement and a Difficult Word in the passage. The group then reassembled to consolidate the questions. The final Questions were then prepared and made ready for presentation.

**Effectiveness of the Study**

This method introduced a **learner-centered approach** through group-tasking. Learner participation becomes indispensable and the learner understands the passage thoroughly. By analyzing the given text students noticed that framing relevant and appropriate and grammatically correct questions is more difficult than answering as in the conventional method. When these two went together there was greater understanding of the matter on hand.

Another skill-preparation for group work related to activities or performance that are needed as part of participating in the processes of placement for jobs. Development of communication skills, especially presentation skills, is given special attention in this group work. Simultaneously, the important aspect of fluency of language received greater attention as part of the preparation, and this was enjoyable.
Note that in order to make the exercise effective, teachers have to monitor every process.

**Skills Improved**

Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly (Adams Marilyn Jager 1990:27). Many approaches that are in practice to improve reading comprehension usually comprise a method where students answer teachers’ questions, write responses to questions or both. Here, many times students are tempted to write a specific portion of the passage related to the question without making any change.

The technique used for the present study, on the other hand, motivates the students to actively participate in the activity given. The objective of developing the interactive comprehension skills was easily achieved by the teacher. The experimented analytical activity encouraged the students to interact with text and make them critical readers.

In this focused activity, students become aware of text construction and their interaction with the text improves their cognitive development. In the language classes, passages from various text books could be used for this task. Through this activity, students could improve listening skill, reading skill, writing skill, framing questions, sentence patterns, functional vocabulary and, above all, a thorough understanding of the passage. This interactive reading would also help the students to prepare for the same type of tasks they would encounter in other subjects like filling in tables, labeling diagrams, preparing to make presentation, and help them learn to use the texts without plagiarizing them.

On the whole, the approach used for the study brings the following changes among the students during the reading activity.

1. Distinguish an active reader from a passive reader who normally reads the passage without understanding its meaning.
2. Bring out a better grasping of the text.
3. Improve all the skills of the language.
4. Help frame questions to bring out a better idea about the passage.
5. Motivate students to think aloud.
6. Direct students to make predictions on the theme of the passage.
7. Uncover the text structure.
8. Bring forth a clarity in framing questions, sentence patterns and in the use of functional grammar related to writing skills during the generation of questions.
9. Improve the functional vocabulary.
10. Create a visual representation of the theme of the passage.

**Conclusion**

The strategy used in the present study not only improves the level of understanding of writing but also involves a gradual release of responsibility. That is, instead of teachers asking questions and students answering them, this approach gives more responsibility to the students where both questioning and answering are done by the students. This technique
plays a pivotal role in developing and honing the skills of reading comprehension and at the same time it is easy for the teachers to identify the students who have difficulty in the correct usage of grammar. On the whole, the elaborate investigation of the subject and a thorough interaction between the students are made possible and this results in clarity about the subject of the text as well as skills of the language.

References


Annexure I

**Passage given to the students for reading**

When the first white men arrived in Samoa, they found blind men, who could see well enough to describe things in detail just by holding their hands over objects. In France, just after the First World War, Jules Romain tested hundreds of blind people, and found a few who could tell the difference between light and dark. He narrowed their photosensitivity down to areas on the nose or in the fingertips. In Italy, the neurologist Cesare Lombroso discovered a blind girl who could 'see' with the tip of her nose and the lobe of her left ear. When a bright light was shone unexpectedly on her, she winced. In 1956 a blind schoolboy in Scotland was taught to differentiate between colored lights and learned to pick out bright objects several feet away. In 1960 a medical board examined a girl in Virginia and found that, even with thick bandage over her eyes, she was able to distinguish different colors and read short sections of large print. The phenomenon is obviously not new, but it has reached new peaks of sensitivity in a young woman from a mountain village in the rural.

Rose Kuleshova can see with her fingers. She is not blind, but because she grew up in a family of blind people, she learned to read Braille to help them and then went on to teach herself to do other things with her hands. In 1962 her Physician took her to Moscow, where she was examined by the Soviet Academy of Science, and emerged a celebrity, certified as genuine. The neurologist Shaefer made an intensive study with her and found that, securely blindfolded with only her arms stuck through a screen, she could differentiate among three primary colors. To test the possibility that the cards reflected heat differently, he heated some and cooled others without affecting her response to them. He also found that she could read newsprint and sheet music under glass, so texture was giving her no clues. Tested by the psychologist Novomeisky. She was able to identify the colour and shape of patches of light projected on to her palm or on to a screen. She underwent rigidly controlled tests with a blindfold and a screen and a piece of card around her neck so wide that she could not see
Using a Reading Material for Interactive Reading

around it. Rosa read the small print in a newspaper with her elbow. And in the most convincing demonstration of all, she repeated these things with someone standing behind her pressing hard on her eyeballs. Nobody can cheat under this pressure; it is even difficult to see clearly for minutes after it is released.

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Importance of Task-Based Teaching in Second Language Acquisition – A Review

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Abstract

Task-Based language teaching has attracted the attention of second language learning which was coined and later developed by second language researchers and educators in reaction to other teacher-dominated, form-oriented methods. Since a better understanding of the theories of Task-Based English Teaching is a prerequisite to better understanding of the perceptions of teachers and how these perceptions affect their teaching, this paper attempts to deal with the issue of task-based in language teaching classrooms in detail.

Introduction

During the past decade, Task-Based language teaching has attracted the attention of second language learning. The term ‘Task-Based’ was coined and later developed by second language researchers and educators in reaction to other teacher-dominated, form-oriented methods (Long & Norris, 2000). Many researchers like Long and Prabhu advocated an approach in which students are given functional tasks that encourages their focus on the meaning and real world purposes.
A better understanding of the theories of Task-Based English Teaching (TBET) is a prerequisite to better understanding of the perceptions of teachers and how these perceptions affect their teaching. Therefore, the literature review will focus on the development of language teaching approaches towards TBET, and basic assumptions and the theories of TBET. These changes in teaching approaches should be made explicit to teachers; so that they can understand the rationale behind the implementation of TBET or that they may be aware of the inefficacy of the other approaches and the need to develop their knowledge and methodologies in adopting TBET.

The term task can mean different things to different people, and hence there are different interpretations of the word task. If we consider what the concept of task is and what other people have written about it, we find that the term has been defined in a variety of ways. In general education as well as other fields such as psychology, there are many different definitions of tasks. There is also quite a variety from within the field of second language teaching. A broad definition can be the following:

A task is an activity, which requires an individual, or a group of people to arrive at an outcome based on some given information. As a result, tasks include activities like cooking a meal, building a bookcase, buying a pair of shoes, filling out a form, making a hotel reservation, and finding an address. In other words, a task refers to different activities people do in everyday life.

This definition is a non-technical, non-linguistic one. In fact, it describes the sort of things that non-linguists would tell you they do if they were to be asked. In the same way as learners, if asked why they are attending a language course, are more likely to say, “So I can talk to my neighbors.” than, “So I can master the use of the subjunctive.” The Concept of “task” is defined differently among linguists advocating and researching TBLT. These definitions generally embed the criteria for task-based teaching. In fact, the differences are reflected in their scopes of coverage, which depend on the underlying assumptions of the linguists and researchers. Therefore a more specific definition, distinguishes language-mediated activities from other kinds of activities:

A task is an activity, which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective. In other words, a task can be considered as a piece of classroom work, which involves learners in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.

In implementing Task-Based English Teaching, the design of the syllabus at the planning stage plays a significant role. The Task-Based approach to language teaching includes three types of syllabuses, namely the procedural, the process and the task syllabuses (Long & Crookes, 1992).

Long (p. 7) lists the seven stages of a task-based language programme:
1. Task-based needs analysis to identify target tasks
2. Classify into target task types:
3. Derive pedagogic tasks.
4. Sequence to form a task-based syllabus.
5. Implement with appropriate methodology and pedagogy.
6. Assess with task-based, criterion-referenced, performance tests.
7. Evaluate program.

Task-Based Syllabuses: Procedural, Process and Task Syllabuses

Swan (1985) stipulates that defective language learning often occurs because of faulty syllabus design, not teaching approach. He states that ‘the student does not learn the language properly because we do not teach the right things or because we organize what we teach in the wrong way’ (p. 10).

The task-based syllabus is based on “an analysis of human learning in general and/or second language in particular” (p. 55). However, it was suggested that the task-based syllabus has not received enough research interests in SLA investigation.

A task-based syllabus is “more concerned with the process dimensions of learning than with specific content and skills” (p. 231). Nunan (1989) specifies two types of tasks, real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks. Tasks form the basis of the syllabus in which these tasks can be grouped around a common theme.

The Procedural Syllabus

According to Long and Crookes (1992), an example of the procedural syllabuses is the Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Project, which was conducted by Prabhu. The project focused on “meaning, i.e., task-completion, not language” through communication. Students needed to solve a problem or complete a task in each lesson. Opinion-gap, information-gap and reasoning gap activities were used in the project. The methods included the pre-task in which teacher presented or demonstrated the task, then it was followed by the task proper which was conducted by individual student. It ended with teacher feedback.

However, Long and Crookes (1992) criticized the project for being teacher-fronted and the preset tasks were not based on an analysis of students’ learning needs. In addition, it lacked the use of pair work or group work that could engage students in the experience of communication and language use. In fact, a formal evaluation was not conducted after the project.

The Process Syllabus

The process syllabus is another task-based approach to course design which looks into the learner development in terms of the learning processes and styles. Long and Crookes (1992) cite Language in India www.languageinindia.com

Hossein Shams Hosseini, Ph.D. Candidate, and N. Nadaraja Pillai, Ph.D.
Importance of Task-Based Teaching in Second Language Acquisition
Breen (1987) suggested incorporating a content syllabus within a process syllabus which includes “a repertoire of communication” for learners to work on. The basic idea is that the course design should provide the resources and materials for making general decisions about classroom language learning, alternative ways for making the decisions, alternative activities and a resource bank of pedagogic tasks for students (Long & Crookes, 1992).

However, the process syllabus has received some criticism including lack of a formal evaluation, unrealistic expectations in the performance of teachers and learners, a radical teacher-student relationship in the classroom, immense requirement for materials and resource. Indeed, the process syllabus also demonstrates lacks in the following aspects - a needs analysis prior to course, criteria for grading and sequencing tasks, focuses on form and SLA theory or research base.

*The Task Syllabus*

Richards and Rogers (2001) illustrate the differences of a conventional syllabus and a task-based syllabus. A conventional syllabus includes the following categories: themes and topics, text types, vocabulary items, language structures, functions, macro-skills – reading, writing, listening, speaking, competencies etc.

Task-based language teaching is more acceptable to SLA researchers when a focus on form is advocated. Long and Crookes (1992) favor the task-syllabus for a number of reasons.

An integrated approach to TBET ensures an integration of language and content instruction but it does not guarantee accuracy as learning outcome. The selection of tasks is the starting point which looks into learner interest and level of development. The course designer needs to pay attention to both a content syllabus and a linguistic syllabus. Prabhu (1987) points out that, “no syllabus of generalized task can identify or anticipate all the sources of challenge to particular learners” (p. 89). Thus, grading tasks cannot follow a precise algorithmic procedure but rather must proceed intuitively in accordance with a general assessment of task complexity (Ellis, 2003, p. 73-74). Tasks do not need to be graded as the same level of precision as linguistic content, so in a task-based syllabus, it is not so strict that the teaching and the learner’s syllabi need to match. So, both focused and unfocused tasks are selected.

The linguistic syllabus may include content obligatory language (i.e. the language that is required to learn a particular content) and content-compatible language (the language that can be usefully taught within the context of a particular content domain but which is not required for its successful mastery) (p. 76). The shortcoming of an integrated approach is that ‘learners may not be developmentally ready to process the linguistic forms that have been targeted for acquisition’ (Ellis, 2003, p. 76).

From the descriptions given by Ellis, it is appropriate to conclude that teachers need to experiment with different design because as ‘there can be no guarantee that the links the designer establishes between form and meaning will be valid for the learner’ (Ellis, p.78). By doing so,
learners are given different designs some of which may be suitable for their learning style. They should be psychologically ready and prepared to design a TBL syllabus which will be taught by them. Their decisions on designing the syllabus, sequencing the tasks...can ultimately affect the learning outcomes. Tasks provide students with the chance to experience real-world like language communication in the classrooms, nevertheless, teachers or syllabus designer can still incorporate a focus on form in the syllabus by using traditional instructional devices like exercises or focused tasks.

**Types of tasks**

The classification of tasks can be different depending on the perspectives of the linguists or researchers. Some classifications are general and others are more specific. The following is on the different types of tasks described in the literature.

**General types of tasks**

Willis (1996) proposes six task types according to knowledge hierarchies:

1. listing
2. ordering and sorting
3. comparing
4. problem solving
5. sharing personal experience
6. creative tasks

Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) classify tasks according to the types of interaction in the product:

1. jigsaw tasks
2. information-gap tasks
3. problem-solving tasks
4. decision-making tasks
5. opinion exchange tasks

It is important for course designers and teachers to familiarize themselves with the ways to classify tasks. The different components of a syllabus can be fulfilled as to be made up of different types of tasks.

**Real World Tasks versus Pedagogical Tasks**
Richards (2001) distinguishes tasks into two types – *pedagogical tasks* and *real world tasks*. “Pedagogical tasks are based on SLA theory and are designed to trigger second language learning processes and strategies” (p.162). Examples of pedagogical tasks are jigsaw tasks, information-gap tasks, problems solving tasks, decision-making tasks and opinion exchange tasks. According to Richards (2001), real world tasks “are designed to practice or rehearse those activities that are found to be important in a needs analysis and that turn out to be important and useful in the real world” (p.162). He further comments on the concerns teachers have on TBET including the broad definition of tasks, the unclear procedures for task design and selection and the emphasis on fluency over accuracy. The above concerns have inhibited the implementation of TBET in English teaching.

**Focused Tasks versus Unfocused Tasks**

Ellis (2003) distinguishes tasks into ‘unfocused’ and ‘focused’. “In the case of unfocused tasks, no attempt is made to design the task to ‘trap’ learners into using a specific linguistic feature...In contrast, focused tasks aim to induce learners to process, receptively or productively, a predetermined linguistic feature...Focused tasks, then, have two aims: one is to stimulate communicative language use as with unfocused tasks, the other is to target the use of a particular, predetermined target feature in meaning-centred communication” (p. 65).

In language pedagogy, there are two rather different attitudes regarding the use of tasks. ‘In task-supported language teaching, focused tasks have been incorporated into traditional language-based approaches to teaching. For example, the PPP approach makes use of focused tasks in the final stage of a sequence of learning activities that begins with the presentation of a pre-selected linguistic form followed by controlled practice. Learners are made aware of the linguistic focus and the task serves to provide opportunities for learners to use the pre-selected language item in free production. In such an approach, then, focused tasks serve as a methodological device for implementing a *structural syllabus*. In TBET, tasks whether of the unfocused or focused kind, are treated as units of teaching in their own right and serve as the basis for designing complete courses. In this case, a task is the actual means for constructing the syllabus’ (Ellis, p. 65).

**Sequencing Tasks**

Appropriately sequenced tasks are very important to the effectiveness of the task-based syllabus. The process of selection and sequencing of tasks plays an important role in a task-based syllabus. The selection of appropriate tasks, either focused or unfocused, could promote the use of focused linguistic forms. The sequence of tasks including the linguistic forms as well as content can ensure the level of difficulty is appropriate for learners at certain stages of learning. That means learners are linguistically and semantically prepared and ready to perform more challenging tasks and to achieve ‘maximum learning’ (Ellis, 2003, p. 67).
A task-based syllabus should have focused tasks and unfocused tasks (Ellis, 2003). Ellis (2003) also attempted to identify the criteria for task sequencing in terms of complexity including task input, task conditions, the process of performing a task and task outcomes.

“To sequence tasks, appropriate criteria for grading their level of difficulty for the learner have to be identified. This will suffice in the preparation of a task-based syllabus consisting entirely of linguistically focused tasks or a mixture of focused and unfocused tasks. Such a syllabus introduces a focus on form into a meaning-centred curriculum; that is, the syllabus consists of ‘tasks’ as defined above but also allows also for the systematic treatment of linguistic form” (p. 66).

Nunan (1989) provides some useful advice on sequencing and integrating tasks. He suggests that it is important to ‘look at the integration of communicative tasks with other tasks and exercise types which are designed to help students develop the enabling skills they will need to communicate successfully, or which are designed to develop such skills as learning-how-to-learn’ (p.118). In this way, teachers are able to exercise their professional judgment to choose appropriate teaching approach for their context in which students can obtain optimal learning of knowledge as well as skills.

One way to sequence tasks using a psycholinguistic processing approach (Nunan, 1989) in which tasks are sequenced according to the cognitive and performance demands exerted upon students as demonstrated in three levels – processing in the form of comprehension tasks, productive in the form of controlled production activities and interactive in the form of authentic communications.

Another way of sequencing task emphasizes task continuity within a unit of work. According to Nunan (1989), task continuity “refers to the chaining of activities together to form a sequence, in which the successful completion of prior activities is a prerequisite for succeeding ones” (p. 119). In fact, a textbook The Challenge is used to demonstrate how text continuity is dealt with; and the flexibility that teachers should enact in designing a task-based course. The textbook includes “modules” that are then divided into “chains” and there are various steps in each chain and two tasks at the end of the chain.

These chains in the module are related to the theme but they are not interdependent. The omission of one chain does not affect the quality of the learning. In fact, teachers and students can decide which chain they want to undertake depending on student ability and progress. The four macro-skills are included in each chain and students are required to listen, write, analyze, make notes, interview and report or discuss in pair or group.

Students must complete each step in the chain, as the preceding step is necessary for the succeeding step as it provides necessary information related to the task. The approach used in The Challenge is flexible as it allows teachers and learners to choose the direction for
learning. The needs and language proficiency of learners can be catered for if textbooks can provide such flexible approach to material design.

The aim of sequencing task is to make sure that it is at the appropriate level of demand for students. The danger of inappropriately sequenced tasks is that it can lead to unfavourable learning outcomes. Difficult tasks lead to the reliance on lexicalised interaction which would result in “fossilization and may produce only routine solutions to communication problems” (p. 23). Easy tasks hinder interlanguage development as no further consolidation has gained in the learning process. Skehan (1996a) proposes using language factors and cognitive factors to sequence tasks. These factors are described as follows:

Language factors

- syntactic complexity and range
- lexical complexity and range

Cognitive factors

- familiarity of material in the task
- nature of material: abstract vs. concrete
- reasoning operations required
- degree of structuring contained (p. 24)

Richards and Rogers (2001) points out that sequencing of tasks according to task complexity plays an important role besides selecting tasks. However, it is undeniable that ‘task difficulty is itself a concept that is not easy to determine’ (p. 232). Richards and Roger (2001) cite Honeyfield’s (1993) criteria for deciding task complexity: Procedures, input text, output, amount and type of help given, role or teachers and learners, time allowed, motivation, confidence, learning styles (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Task Complexity

Task complexity plays an integral role in selection and sequencing of tasks. Task complexity in task design is based on the following criteria (Ellis, 2003):

1. Factors relating to input include:

   (i) Input medium – whether the information is presented in written or pictorial form, whether learners can decode it in their own time or in the lesson, or whether it is culturally familiar or unfamiliar. It is believed that pictorial input is easier than writing and then oral, also familiar information is easier than unfamiliar information.

   (ii) Code complexity – it relates to the lexical and syntactical complexity of the input. Texts with high-frequency vocabulary and a low level of subordination are easier to understand.
than texts with low-frequency vocabulary and complex sentence structure. Research indicates that elaborate input (input that includes paraphrases and glosses) is more comprehensible than simplified input.

(iii) Cognitive complexity – it concerns the ‘cognitive demands of processing the content’ of the input information, whether the information type is static, dynamic or abstract. It was found that tasks with abstract ideas are more challenging than tasks with names of objects and actions (Prabhu, 1987). Another factor is the amount of information – including the elements or relationships involved. The degree of structure is also an element that affects cognitive complexity. Tasks with identifiable time sequence and clear structure are easier to comprehend.

(iv) Context dependency – whether contextual support like visual information is included. Context-free input is more complicated for learners. It was found that “texts supported by photographs, drawings, tables and graphs are easier to understand” (Nunan, 1989).

(v) Familiarity of information – it relates to ‘the relationship between the thematic content of the task and the individual learner’s world knowledge’ (Nunan, 1989, p.70). Learners may feel stressful when they are asked to communicate in an unfamiliar topic.

2. Factors relating to task conditions:

(vi) Conditions influencing the negotiation of meaning – the chance and time for negotiation of meaning can affect the task complexity. A one-way task does not have as many chances for negotiation of meaning rather than two-way tasks.

(vii) Task demands – whether the task involves a single or a dual demand, for example, to mark the route on the map imposes a single demand and to mark the route and describe it imposes a dual demand.

(viii) Discourse mode – a monologue promotes fluency and a dialogue can enhance accuracy and complexity.

3. Factor relating to the process of performing a task:

(ix) Reasoning needed – information-gap tasks are the easiest, reasoning-gap intermediate and opinion-gap tasks the most difficult. The number of steps involved can also affect the complexity in the process of performing a task.

4. Factors relating to task outcomes:

(x) Medium of the outcome – pictorial and written products are easier than oral ones. For beginner learners who have not yet learned to speak or write in the language, it may be
appropriate to use simple comprehension tasks.

(xi) The scope of the outcome – tasks with closed outcomes are easier than those with open outcomes.

(xii) The discourse domain of the outcome – the level of complexity is ranked from easy to difficult: lists/ description – narration/ classification – instruction/ arguments. The degree of complexity is related to the level of detail in the product. The complexity of instruction depends on the number and content of the specific directives.

(xiii) Complexity of the outcome – straightforward outcomes with a simple decision is easier than those with multi-faceted judgments. The greater the precision of the outcome, the more complex the task is as it requires greater lexical and syntactical accuracy (Ellis, 2003, p. 73).

In considering task complexity, it is appropriate to look at individual learner differences which in turn impact on task difficulty. According to Ellis, task difficulty can be adjusted by certain methodological procedures which “increase or ease the processing burden placed on the learner” (Ellis, 2003, p. 67). Teachers are responsible for imposing these procedures, for example, use of pre-task activities such as pre-teaching of vocabulary useful for the tasks or provision of planning time.

**Task Cycle**

Task designers have to ensure that a particular group of learners are given appropriately sequenced tasks with the right level of difficulty for learners’ competence. Skehan (1996b) points out that teachers need to be decisive of their choices in the different stages of task implementation. He has devised a comprehensive table to demonstrate the different stages of a task cycle.

Table 1: Stages in task implementation (Skehan, 1996b, p.24)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of phase</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-task</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cognitive:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ease subsequent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>processing load</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>foregrounding,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>e.g. introduction</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>to topic of task</td>
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<tr>
<td>observing</td>
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<tr>
<td>doing similar</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>tasks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduce new</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>forms into</td>
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<tr>
<td>attention</td>
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<td>explicit teaching</td>
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<td>implicit teaching</td>
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<td>consciousness-raising</td>
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</table>
It is clear that there are stages in the task implementation: the pre-task, during task and post-task. Each stage has its specific purposes to achieve. It is crucial that teachers realize these purposes in helping them facilitate students’ learning. According to Nunan (2001), language teaching pedagogy in the different stages needs to take into account three components:

(1) Language data: samples of spoken and written language. With exposure to a language, learning of its form, function and use is more likely to happen. Both authentic and non-authentic materials are useful for learners.

(2) Information: refers to ‘experiential information about the target culture and the linguistic information about the language systems’ (p. 2). This information of the grammatical principles and rules can be presented inductively or deductively.

(3) Opportunities for practice: extensive practice is essential for language learning. Nunan (2001) distinguishes practice into tasks, exercises and activities. ‘A task is a communicative act’ which has no focus on form and no linguistic outcome. An exercise has a focus on form and a linguistic outcome. An activity also has a focus on form and a communicative outcome (p. 3). As mentioned earlier, tasks are then further classified into real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks. Pedagogical tasks are carried out in the classroom to ‘activate acquisition processes’ (p. 5). Once the pedagogical tasks are specified, it is necessary for the syllabus designer to identify the knowledge and skills that learners need to have as to carry out the tasks in the lessons (p. 5). Therefore, teachers need to be properly informed and trained in the methodologies in order to achieve more effective implementation.

**Role of Teacher and Learner**

The role of teacher and the role of learner are interactive and inseparable. Regarding the role of teachers, CDC (1999) points out that the main role of teacher in TBET is a facilitator of learning: ‘teachers should always facilitate learning which involves balancing the amount of exposure and use of language, and ensuring they are both of suitable quality’ (p. 57). It also highlights the learner-centeredness of TBET which suggests teachers to pay attention to learners’
needs, to motivate them and help them build up self-confidence, positive learning attitudes and strategies. The process of learning is seen as important as the outcome. In addition, teachers should value the significance of cooperative and collaborative learning. The overall learning environment should be supportive for students to improve their language proficiency.

Willis (1996) states that the role of the teacher “is to select topics and tasks that will motivate learners, engage their attention, present a suitable degree of intellectual and linguistic challenge and promote their language development as efficiently as possible” (p. 23).

“One can generalize here and say that the teacher, in a task-based approach, needs to command a significantly wider range of skills than in more structural approaches. These include:

- an ability to select and sequence tasks for supplementary activities
- the competence to organize, appropriately, pre- and post-task activities
- a willingness to adapt task difficulty during the actual task phase
- a sensitivity to individual differences and the capacity to adapt tasks to take account of differences in learner orientation.” (Skehan, 1996b, p. 30)

Therefore, teachers should aim to develop the skills suggested by Skehan (1996b) in order to improve their teaching effectiveness.

Teachers are confronted with immense challenge in catering for individual variation in TBET because they need to maintain a balance between providing appropriate instructions to individual learners and designing tasks for learners in general. In implementing tasks, it is important to create conditions for a focus on form while the actual learning of the specific structure may not be effective due to the individual developmental sequence of the learners. Nevertheless, a focus on form helps learners notice the structure and may eventually lead to acquisition. Teachers, as syllabus and task designers as well as instructors, must take into account learner needs and then derive appropriate types of instruction.

Swan (1985) also thinks that ‘theoretical confusion can lead to practical inefficiency, and this can do a lot of harm, with time and effort being wasted on unprofitable activities while important priorities are ignored’ (p. 9).

TBET requires different and distinctive roles of learners, teachers and learning processes. Willis (1996) points out that exposure, use and motivation are essential conditions for language learning and task-based approach can engage learners in real interaction and fulfill the above conditions. Mok (2001) illustrates explicitly the change in the role of learner:

“...learners should be involved in evaluating their learning. The learning goals and/or objectives should be made explicit to them so that they can be responsible for checking, monitoring and finally evaluating their own
learning...the teacher is in a position of offering preparation and different support to the learners, beside being an organizer of activities and a resource person” (p. 4).

Murphy (2003) attempted to establish the importance that learners actually interact with the tasks in the classroom besides focusing on accuracy, fluency and complexity (p. 352). He cited Skehan (1998) and suggested that “teachers are primarily concerned with pragmatic issues, such as how learners can be encouraged to engage with tasks more effectively, and how tasks can be linked to form a coherent scheme of work (p. 353). Indeed, Murphy pointed out that learner participation could influence task performance ultimately.

“Learning outcomes are a product of three main factors; the contribution of the individual learner, the task, and the situation in which the task is carried out. This means any pre-designed task will be changed by the way the learner interacts with it” (Murphy, 2003, p. 353).

Murphy proposed that it is essential for the teachers to make clear the pedagogical objectives of the task to the learners as they need to realize their learning purposes to achieve the pre-designated learning outcome. In order to cater for individual differences, a task should allow flexible procedural routes to the same learning goal, “Tasks should therefore involve learners in reflecting on the way in which they carried them out, as well as on the language they used, thereby helping them to develop autonomy” (p. 354) – (critical evaluation by students themselves). The evaluation by students is useful for implementing future task-based courses and that teachers should also be course designers. In this way, they can fully understand the whole process involved in a teaching and learning cycle.

The idea of learning to learn is realized and the language competence and skills of learners will allow them to achieve accuracy, complexity and fluency in English and to meet the multi-dimensional demands of the 21st century. Such a change subsequently imposes a challenge on teachers and requires them to think and act differently in the classroom. The role of learners in TBET has also become more multi-faceted than in traditional approaches.

The role of learners and teachers are also described – the learners as group participants, monitors, risk-takers and innovators and the teachers as selectors and sequencers of tasks, preparing learners for tasks and consciousness-raising. Teachers need to introduce the topic, clarify task instructions, lexis and phrases to help task completion or even provide a demonstration of the procedures. It was argued that teachers need to focus on form before asking learners to participate in a task. Therefore, teachers can employ ‘a variety of form-focusing techniques, including attention-focusing pre-task activities, text exploration, guided exposure to parallel tasks and use of highlighted material’ (Richards & Roger, 2001, p. 236).

**Conclusion**

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com) 129
10 : 7 July 2010
Hossein Shams Hosseini, Ph.D. Candidate, and N. Nadaraja Pillai, Ph.D.
Importance of Task-Based Teaching in Second Language Acquisition
Task-based English Teaching (TBET) is a new teaching method. “Task” is a special term in language teaching and is different from language exercise. It has its specific features, forms and teaching steps. There are various tasks in language teaching and learning, but the focus of every task is on solving a communicative problem which has some connection with the real world, learners’ lives and learning experience that motivates their interests and participation.

Some of the concerns of teachers and educators related to the importance of Task-Based English Teaching and Learning were discussed in this paper, as well as how they have adapted new ideas to suit their situation. By way of conclusion, it may be considered that this study can be viewed from a more global and theoretical perspective, as an example of what is called the “Post method condition” in language pedagogy. There is now widespread acceptance that no single method or set of procedures will fit all teachers and learners in all contexts. Teachers can draw on the ideas and experience of others but cannot simply adopt them as a ready-made recipe; they need to develop a pedagogy based on Task-Based principles suited to their own specific context.

References


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Curriculum Change in the Air!

Internationally, the B Schools are talking about evolving a curriculum that would hopefully produce a new breed of management trainees who are not only good managers but good leaders as well. The management gurus are nurturing an idea of not just managerial effectiveness but also leadership effectiveness too. There is a feeling among the top B Schools of the world that there has to be a paradigm shift from theoretical knowhow to practical skills that would help the management trainees to transform themselves into effective leaders who have a pragmatic edge to their talents. The industry also seems to be ready to accept and demand this ideology.

Envisioning Requirements for Becoming an Effective Manager

There are specific requirements of becoming an effective manager. The first in the list is the variety of general skills, specific subject skills and mass subject skill. As a management trainee, one is required to write assignments, give presentations and, perhaps, take examinations at the end of the program. But the poignant question still remains: is cognitive knowledge enough for a young brain? Or is there something more required than just acquisition of domain knowledge in a span of two years.
Concept of Skills - Definition

The definition of skill as ‘Ability to do Something Well’ establishes the essential nature of any skill. The possession of ability is fundamental to anyone who must do, rather than just talk about to be effective in our personal, professional life. We need to do things practically well- that is called to be skilled.

Skills can be of many forms; some are task-oriented (reading of map); some are behavioral in nature (calming someone down); some take care of hand to eye coordination (typing, playing sports).

The skills thus can be classified into two categories - Hard skills and Soft skills.

1. Hard skills are technical in nature. Solving mathematical calculation, using PowerPoint and servicing a car can be classified in this category.
2. Soft skills are people-oriented. Persuasion, discussion and leadership come under this category. The management gurus are nowadays advocates a lot about ethic enhancement programs which cover this category.

The Connection between Skills and Knowledge

As a young learner no one will expect you to be skilled; on the contrary skill can only be acquired knowledge and then one learns to use that knowledge effectively; in due course of time one is not required to consult or learn because one becomes expert in doing his job. In other words, he has become “skilled”

Role of Competence in Skill Enhancement

Competence means ability to do something and gradually become skilled. Competence can be termed as a stepping stone in one’s way to attain perfection. In due course of time, with further experience and willingness to learn from our mistakes, we enrich ourselves. However we cannot forget we need opportunity and motivation to improve. Reflecting upon one’s performance and then analyzing one’s performance and making appropriate changes for future events form the basis for this approach.

Learning process happens when you memorize, experience, practice and reflect. There is a list of skills that is important for the Indian management trainee. It includes –

1. Basic skill
2. Communication skill
3. Computer or I.T. skill
4. Creativity
5. Presentation skills
6. Analytic skill  
7. Commercial Awareness  

**Multiple Intelligence and Skill Development**  

Howard Gardner wrote in his book *Frames of Min: The Theory of Multiple Intelligence* (1993), “an intelligence is the ability to solve problems, or create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings”. Through this approach, the think-tanks of major B schools got ideas for their R&D programs. There was a revolutionary change when both the elements, **hard skills** and **soft skills** were given equal weight. This concoction was called Multiple Intelligence. The curriculums for the B Schools were modeled on this ideology.  

Indian Institutes of Management are no exception. There was recognition given to the English teachers because they were the right choice for enhancing the linguistic competencies.  

The basic model of Gardner advocates the following skills  

1. Linguistic Intelligence  
2. Logical Intelligence  
3. Spatial Intelligence  
4. Musical Intelligence  
5. Kinesthetic Intelligence  
6. Interpersonal Intelligence  
7. Intrapersonal Intelligence  

**Linguistic Intelligence** relates to the ability to use language effectively in spoken and written forms. The research conducted by Mintzberg in 1973 revealed that up to 80% time of a management professional is devoted to communication, either verbally or in written format. Therefore, linguistic intelligence is paramount and is of considerable importance.  

**Logical Intelligence** relates to one’s ability to reason, and to problem-solving ability by using rationale and by using numeral based concepts effectively. They are essential for Strategic Management, Operations Management and Finance. Most of the personality development plans incorporate these ‘Hard Skills’ too.  

**Spatial Intelligence** relates to the ability to visualize objects in two or three dimensions. Professionals such as architects should have this ability.  

**Musical Intelligence** covers the ability to recognize musical notes and to create song and music, to read and write in musical notations. Music can be a powerful means to invoke your emotions or simply reflect them. It can add to our ability to communicate to others; it is even effective in memory enhancement.
**Kinesthetic Intelligence** is related to balancing our body. It is termed “motor skill,” for example, the fine movements involved in typing or playing keys of a musical instrument or surgery skills. Hand–eye coordination is a classic example of Kinesthetic intelligence; a state of becoming so perfect that one does not need to see the keyboard to type.

**Intrapersonal Intelligence** is looking inwards. It means understanding the strengths and weaknesses of the self. It is our own understanding of our self; what motivates us; why do we behave in a particular manner and our ability to reflect upon our performance.

**Interpersonal Intelligence** relates to the necessary skills of communication among the individuals in the workplace and in personal life as well. It deals with our ability to ‘connect’ with other people; it also deals with communication effectiveness, both with groups and individuals. Indian Management students are required to be well versed in this since they are supposed to interact with the domestic as well as international players.

**Naturalistic Intelligence** relates to working in close proximity with nature. Nature also serves as a great connection and today’s world is ‘going back to nature’ (to use Wordsworth’s expression). The Indian Corporate very strongly endorses Ecological Awareness. SAVE TIGER project is one such instance.

**Relevance of Emotional Intelligence and Skill Development**

In his book *Emotional Intelligence*, Daniel Goleman talks about the ability to motivate oneself in adversity; ability to control impulse and delay gratification; ability to regulate one’s mood and keep distress from dampening one’s ability to think; to empathize and never leave hope.

Goleman advocates the essential usage of EI (Emotional Intelligence) for technical skills and cognitive skills that essentially rely on more traditional intelligence like I.Q. tests. Anne McKae and Richard Boyatazis wrote in their book titled *The New Leaders* that the distinction between the average and the outstanding leader is the emotional intelligence, to be precise, factors like multi-intelligence, controlling one’s emotions in a given odd situation, ability to empathize with the subordinates and customers.

There are two parallels between the theory of Gardner and that of Goleman. Gardner has laid more stress on interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, whereas Goleman believes in focusing on emotions. His study shows that the people who scored highly in various EI factors have proved to be more effective in their managerial and leadership roles, when compared to their counterparts who are well verse in technical and cognitive skills. His theory says that first we need to understand our own emotions and know how it has impact on our daily professional life. It also includes getting better understanding of how our emotions affect other people.
Goleman has underlined four categories of EI for the business leader- Self awareness, Self management, Social Awareness, Relationship management.

**Self Awareness** is related to our emotional awareness that talks about the strengths and weaknesses.

**Emotional Awareness** is the inner voice that becomes our guiding light in our times of trouble and also otherwise. It also becomes our guiding value that gives us intuitive powers to choose the best course of action. Emotionally steady leaders can be candid and authentic, able to speak openly about their emotions. Typical emotional strengths and weaknesses include

- Keeping calm versus getting in panic
- Keeping going versus giving up
- Seeing the bright side of things versus becoming sad
- Controlling your anger versus losing your temper
- Feeling confident versus feeling afraid
- Empathizing
- Motivating oneself and others

**Managing Your Emotions**

It is paramount for the management students to control their emotions because if the emotions are given out without any control, the chances are the broader perspective of the problem may be lost and the power to take decisions in right earnest may be hampered. Goleman explains this by showing that activity in the part of our brain which controls our feelings, emotions, and intuition swamps that part of our brain which we use for reasoning.

**Can We Improve Our Emotional Response?**

The big question then comes to our mind is, can we alter our responses, or are we doomed forever? The answer is maybe, definitely. Our responses will take time to get tamed and there will be need for repetition of actions. Goleman thinks that EI can take place but that the emotional part of our brain may take weeks or months to establish new neural linkages, and learning is implicit – of which we will not know directly.

**Setting of Emotional Goals**

Emotional Intelligence cannot be learnt in the conventional class room situation. The reading part can just get one started. It is the actions themselves and their repetitions which form your new emotional response. So, for instance, to gain confidence one needs to practice. In this pursuit, one should keep giving one’s self a series of tasks. Goleman insists that whatever your age, you develop new neural pathways but that will take time and a good deal
of motivation. The message that is clear set is manageable, but challenging tasks try to put self in situations where one can feel the challenges and be determined to stick to them.

**Learning to Learn**

This skill has the maximum longevity because one will keep learning long after our academic studies are over. This learning will remain even when one is in job, or in career move. It is unlikely to have complete knowledge to perform solitary tasks; you will be required to have links to others in social or learning networking. George Siemens reflects that learning in ‘digital age’ means that ‘know-how’ and know how are supplemented with know where.

**Integrated Approach Required for the Indian B Schools**

The skill enhancement experts in India have categorically advocated an integral approach towards finding leadership effectiveness in the B schools. There is a necessity of giving more weightage to soft skills and, especially, ethics. The experts also feel the need to introduce the humanities’ point of view to the B schools which will give a diverse outlook to the students. Indian academia had led the world in terms of knowledge in the past; it is gearing up to do so again by not just producing students that are well versed in cognitive and technical knowledge, but also producing leaders who can show new path to the world by means of superior ethical codes and also by means of higher emotional intelligence.

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African American Literature and Ishmael Reed’s Novels – Hoodism

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Introduction

African American literature is the body of the literature produced in the United States by writers of African descent. The genre traces its origins to the works of such late eighteenth century writers. While African American literature is well accepted in America, there are numerous views on its significance, traditions, and theories.

To the genre’s supporters, African American literature arose out of the experience of Blacks in America, especially with regards to historic racism and discrimination, and is an attempt to refute the dominant culture’s literature and power.

African American writing is essentially a human and social document which deals with the experiences of Americans of African ancestry. In all, it makes a rich contribution to the fast growing corpus of critical response to African American literature.

African American literature has generally focused on themes of particular interest to Blacks in the United States, such as the role of African Americans within the larger American society. It explores the very issues of freedom and equality which were long denied to African Americans in the United States, along with further themes like African American culture, racism, slavery, and a sense of home and the African aspects of Neo-hoodooism.
The Slave Narrative

A subgenre of African American literature which began in the middle of the nineteenth century is the slave narrative.

The fundamental fact about slavery is that it put some human beings arbitrarily into the power of others, legalising inequality among men in perpetuity. It is a rejection of human equality. From a rhetorical vantage-point, the story of slavery demonstrates unending and invariable resistance to slavery by the slaves, resistance both to the demands of their condition and to the culture of the masters.

Ongoing Reinterpretation

In a very real sense, slavery is an area of southern historical scholarship that seems to be in a perpetual state of reinterpretation and renewal. This observation holds true for Black fiction writers and African American literary critics. Slavery as a subject continues to hold a particular fascination at least in part because it provides the ground for the writers of critical and imaginative literature. Slavery was condemned as a menace to the peace and safety of the nation.

The lives of the Black men and women have always been sharply conditioned by white patriarchal society and the economics of slavery. The white woman was considered as a ‘fir’ for the role of mother and worker who would continually increase their owners’ stock. As Black writers have liberated themselves from their slave past, a sense of the need for self-worth has awakened in their hearts. Black writers seek to explore their relationships through the framework of family and community. Their preoccupation with the redefinition of man-woman relationship after liberation from their slave past needs a serious consideration.

During the last twenty years a significant number of African American writers went back to revise the story of slavery in their works and the critics of African American literature too reflected the background of the African American literary tradition with the slave narratives.

Cultural Heritage of Slavery

American slavery is a complex piece of social machinery systematically designed to produce maximum exploitation of Black slaves while simultaneously controlling every aspect of their behaviour. Of course the white masters used violence as a threat to control the slaves. Whites felt the need to dominate the mental life of the slaves.

The songs and tales that were the very essential part of the cultural heritage of the African American had been their sustenance during the days of slavery. Crushed under the weight of slavery and racial discrimination the African Americans were unable to produce any significant literary achievement before the 1960s. Gradually the awakening among the African American resulting in the Civil Rights Movement and the changes in America after the World War II brought about the production of many literary texts.
American Literary Establishments

Before the 1960s several American literary establishments produced many an African American texts which presented the African American in a derogatory light. The Africans found this a threat to their self-esteem. During the 1960s African Americans strongly opposed the social, cultural, psychological and political institutions in America. They felt that these did not promote the original African values and beliefs. They wanted educational institutions and literature to bring out something which was uniquely African American. The positive images of the Blacks in America had to be accentuated.

There were many factors which contributed to the development of the African American literary area. The economic and industrial developments in the north resulted in the migration of a large Black population from the south in the 1950s. Hence after the 1950s Black urban population increased. Many changes took place between the World War II and the early 1970s in America. Industrialisation and technological advancements established America as a supreme power.

New Modes of Self-expression

Blacks acquired new modes of self-expression. There was serious questioning of the traditional authority and certain belief in their activities. The authority of the church which was meekly accepted by the Black slaves of the south was not accepted by the Blacks who were growing up in the urban American industrialised society. The white domination was no longer accepted by the Blacks. The technological wonders like television and telecommunication facilities brought the people closer. Also the Black soldiers who took part in the World War II and had experienced freedom refused to be cowed down by the white supremacy.

The unemployment rates were more in the case of Blacks than the whites and the resultant economic depression resulted in racial riots. These riots and the availability of more information heightened the Civil Right Movement and Black power struggles which questioned the moral and political scenario in America. In the early 1960s the Civil Rights Movement gave an opportunity for the downtrodden to channelise their frustrations and grievances which gave rise to the American social movements.

Seeking and Establishing a New Identity

As a result of these social movements the African Americans started to exhume the myths and legends from their historical past. They differentiated themselves from the Americans in their dress, speech and life style. As a result of this rebellion the American ideological apparatus became more flexible and Blacks were given more opportunity in the political and educational field. In the literary field recognition was given to African literature. The African American audience was recognised as a significant part of the reading public. There was significant upsurge in the Black poetry and fiction. Discussions and reviews of the African American texts appeared in major review journals and magazines.
African American texts and collections were purchased by public, college and university libraries and were stocked by bookstores. English departments offered courses in African American literatures. Minority Writers were considered for national awards. N. Scott Mamody, a Kiowan Indian, was awarded the Pulitzer Prize for the novel *House Made for Dawn*. Minorities-oriented research was granted fellowship by major foundations.

The dominant American cultural system gave way to the emergent cultural and literary minority. The difference in the cultures of the minority groups like Blacks and Asians were accepted and the worth of their literatures were recognised. There was a rise of independent Black publishing houses, journals and magazines – Jihads, Broadside Press, The Third Press, Third World Press, Vintage Press, Yard Bird Press, Black Books Bulletin, Black World, Freedom Ways, American Literature Forum and the Journal of Black Studies. African American writers thus had an opportunity to cater to the Black audiences in particular.

The creative lives of African American writers have historically been stunted by the political, economic and social restrictions of slavery. For most of the time African American writers in America have been categorically denied not only literacy, but the most minimal possibility of a decent human life. Centuries of oppression and bitterness has awakened a sense of self-worth and determination. Though Black writers have been involved in the development of African American writing since its inception their work has been slow to win critical acclaim mainly because they are Black writers who belong to minority in both class and caste.

**Characterization of African American Fiction and Writers**

African American fiction is characterised by a conflict and superimposition of Whiteman’s structures upon it. The socio-cultural impulses that inform Black writers’ work reveal that emphasis is on the folk values and African American forms of expression which have sustained the Black culture and their individuality. It is as truer of African experience as of American.

African American writers express explicitly the need for self-expression because they have a different historical experience from that of the dominant group. Their work is important and they have made serious attempts to understand the vast unexplored areas of human experience. It is perhaps more relevant today than it ever was before because it is possible to view their work outside the limits set by white male critics and against the background of their Black tradition. More than this, they offer a fresh assessment of Black man-woman relationship which seems to grow out of traditional roles. Their treatment of the theme and approach toward it differ radically and, there is a common focus on the ‘Black writers’ experience.

Their work forces the people to reflect upon the history, economics and environment which condition the lives of the Blacks in contemporary American society. Their texts, with many different settings, are potential interpretations of Black ways and Black life styles. The economic system of the old south was an exploitative mode of production which dehumanised the African slaves and compelled them to pass generations in a milieu of dispossession on the other hand the white patriarchal society enabled the plantation owners to sustain a double relation of master and
father to their mulatto children and to participate in both Blacks and Whites itself. Over the past century southern Black literature has evolved from a relatively sparse body of writings, mainly imitative of European American literary forms and thematically focused on the plight of Blacks in the South to a sophisticated literary canon form into a whole distinct identity.

**The Southern Black Novel**

As the southern Black novel evolved, from the nineteenth into the twentieth century, its use of narrative voice blended with other features of southern Black narrative prose to produce a particularly southern point of view in the Black novel. For more than a century southern Blacks wrote numerous prose narratives, which in their variety conformed to the autobiographical mode. There have been the fugitive-slave narratives and the ex-slave narratives the spiritual, social, political and personal novel.

At times, real-life experiences and incidents were the backdrop for fictional characters, at other times real-life characters; become the nucleus around which fictional experiences and incidents are presented. Southern Black prose writers were so attracted to the autobiographical mode that in numerous prose narratives they drew a very thin line between fiction and fact.

Folk tales and aphorisms, sacred and secular music, and the religious orientation or world view of southern Blacks have all influenced language, undergirded imagery and symbolism which, delineated characterisation, and motivated plot structure in the southern Black novel. Southern Black novelists as a group have thus made wide and varied uses of the cultural traditions of their region. The merits of southern Black literature have been widely acclaimed nationally and internationally.

**Anti-slavery Movement**

The emergence of African American literature has been a slow process connected in its beginning with the institution of slavery and antislavery stances. The antislavery movement was a powerful religious crusade, and religion played a far more important part in American life then than it does today. When the Anti-Slavery society was organised Theodore Weld opines:

> The Bible was presented as irrefutable proof that Jesus taught a doctrine of universal brotherhood: that man was created in the image of God; and that slavery reduced him to a piece of merchandise to be bought and sold in the market place. (Joshua 120)

The Central Executive Committee opines:

> God has committed to every moral agent the privilege, the right and the responsibility of personal ownership. This is God’s plan. Slavery annihilates it, and surrenders to avarice, passion and lust, all that makes a life a blessing. It makes a life a blessing. It crushes the body, tramples into the dust the upward tendencies of the intellect, breaks the heart and kills the soul. (Elizur 120)
Slavery was denounced as a sin always everywhere and only sin, aside from the evils of its administration. Abolitionists demanded that slaveholders be excluded from the pulpits of Northern churches and from the privileges of the sacraments, and those Southerners who finally championed the cause of secession lingered long on this aspect of the cause for action.

**African American Literature**

African American literature is the body of literature produced in the United States by writers of African descent. The genre traces its origins to the works of such late eighteenth century writers as Phillis Wheatley and Olaudah Equiano, reaching early high points with slave narratives and the Harlem Renaissance, and continuing today with authors such as Toni Morrison, Maya Angelou, Alice Walker and Walter Mosley being ranked among the top writers in America.

Among the themes and issues explored in African American literature are the role of African Americans within the larger American society, African American culture, racism, slavery and equality. African American writing has changed over the centuries, so, too, have the focus of African American literature. Before the American Civil War, African American literature primarily focused on the issue of slavery, as indicated by the subgenre of slave narratives. It explores the very issues of freedom and equality which were long denied to Negros in America, along with further themes like African American culture, racism, religion, slavery, and a sense of home.

**African American Writers**

African American writers express their vision of the world through the eyes of African American protagonists and are often concerned with their struggle of the protagonist to define themselves and to cease to be merely the passive object of forces beyond their control. Hence the works of the Black novelists reveal added dimension to the appreciation of their own reality. The significant feature of the literature of Black writers is that their works serve as records of thoughts, words, feelings and deeds of Blacks. Their words express the reality of being Black in white America.

These writers generally speak about search for identity and African American aesthetics because of the common oppression by their own men and by the whites. This unity is based on the awareness that all Black writers are oppressed personally, economically and socially. As African American writers have come into new awareness of their powers they have struggled to liberate them, and have enriched and expanded the international corpus of Black literature.

**Ishmael Scoot Reed**

Ishmael Scoot Reed is one of the most prominent authors in World literature. Through his writings and other works, he is instrumental in bringing recognition to the genre of African American literature. His novels revolve round the theme of isolation and identity, Black aesthetic and hoodooism. He portrays the lacerated self’s struggle for freedom of speech and expression in an incarcerating milieu. His accent is on the diversity of Black sensibilities, horrors of slavery,
modes of expression and independent thinking. He writes about Black people and Black readers because they are closest to his heart. He must accept that he tries to communicate all inclusive human experiences and conditions through the metaphor of slave experience.

**Ishmael Reed’s Narrative Aspects**

Reed’s narratives sing the praise of Black art, music, folklore in order to celebrate Black identity with the intention to rescue the qualities of resistance and excellence which helped them to survive slavery. He is far too talented to remain only a marvellous recorder of the Black side of provincial American life. One of the most striking aspects of Reed’s style is the complex centralisation patterns of his narrative.

Reed’s fictional practice goes beyond the system of definitions provided by traditional literary theories of narratology and centralisation. The notion of free indirect discourse, for example, cannot in a satisfactory way explain the way Reed combines narration and centralisation. Somehow his focalisers turn from mere media of filters into independent sources of information or narrators in their own right. Actually, in many instances, focalisation in the sense of mediation is abolished in his novels.

Reed is an unorthodox writer who has taken on the media, the writing establishment, feminists, politicians, Blacks, whites and the African institution of higher learning. He has been cited by critics the greatest contemporary African American literary figures of his generation. He is one of the most original and controversial figures in the field of African American letters.

Based on the progressive stages of the Black Aesthetic in literature Reed as a central figure in the new Black aesthetic movement because he believes that the Black writers can bring something unique-approximately the profound depths of Black music-to fiction which has, “an ineffable quality that is curiously Black” (Rubin 42). He is a deeply committed novelist and a highly conscious artist. As Lubiano observes:

His work remaps the terrain of African American cultural and social history and allows for a community of the imagination and, what is more, it interprets the ideology that produces the kind of world we inhabit. (BLC 68)

**Origin of Neo-Hoodooism**

Hoodoo is an American term, originating in the nineteenth century or earlier, for African American folk magic. Hoodoo consists of a large body of African folkloric practices and beliefs with a considerable admixture of American Indian botanical knowledge and European folklore. Although most of its adherents are Black, contrary to popular opinion, it has always been practiced by both whites and Blacks in America.

In the 1930s, some practitioners used the noun “Hoodooism” to describe their work, but that term has dropped out of common parlance. Folk magic is a world-wide phenomenon. The beliefs and customs brought to America by African slaves mingled here with the beliefs, customs, and
botanical knowledge of Native Americans and with the Christians, Jewish, and pagan folklore of European immigrants. The hoodoo tradition places emphasis on personal magical power and thus it lacks strong links to any specific form of theology and can be adapted to any one of several forms of outward religious worship.

**Hoodoo versus Voodoo**

Hoodoo is not the name of a religion or a denomination of a religion, although it incorporates elements from African and European religions in terms of its core beliefs. It is not at all correct to refer to African American hoodoo as Voodoo. Voodoo is a Haitian religion which is quite African in character. The word Voodoo derives from an African word which means spirit or God.

One reason for the confusion between hoodoo and voodoo is that the study of African American root work with respect to African systems of beliefs has only recently risen above the level of mere speculation. Older accounts of hoodoo tended to emphasize West African linkages, in part because that area of Africa was heavily traversed during the nineteenth century by English speaking Christian missionaries. Hence nineteenth century accounts of hoodoo by white authors call it Voodoo. However, by mid-twentieth century, with the publication of “Flash of the Spirit” (HAM 2) by Robert Farris Thompson, scholarly focus shifted to the Congo as the source of most of what anthropologists would call ‘African retentions’.

**Neo-Hoodooism**

Neo-Hoodooism is the name Reed gave to the philosophy and aesthetic process he employs to take care of business on behalf of the maligned and the mishandled. Hoodoo the African American version of Voodoo. It is a misunderstood term that actually refers to traditional African religious practices. As they have reasserted themselves in the diaspora—appeals to Reed because of its mystery and its eclectic nature. Thus provides him with an appropriate metaphor for his understanding and realisation of art.

**Needs of Neo-Hoodooism in Ishmael Reed’s Writings**

Ishmael Reed needs Neo-Hoodooism in his writings because Neo-Hoodooism is, in many ways, a truly Black art, but at the same time, due to the undeniable mix of ingredients in the New World, it is also something else. Unlike those who argue for a Black essentialism, Reed sees this hybridity as a virtue, rather than a defect or betrayal. A deep immersion in Blackness is simultaneously an immersion in Americanness, given the extent to which, as a result of slavery and its aftermath. Africa helped to make America; and, considering the give-and-take of many other cultural influences is an experience of the unfolding of multiculturalism.

Leaving aside for a moment his contributions as an author to American literature, it seems safe to say that when the history of multiculturalism in the late twentieth century is written, Reed’s entrepreneurial and promotional efforts have played a meaningful role. One of his consistent gripes about militants of all persuasions is that they lack a sense of humour.
Reed’s Iconoclasm

From the start, Reed’s iconoclasm has been aimed not only at the Western tradition, which has attempted to monopolize the World at the expense of other versions of experiences, but at the Black tradition as well. The risk of censure and ridicule notwithstanding, Reed always has gone against the grain of the prevailing critical- polemical fashion—a sign of his fierce independence as an artist and thinker. He has insisted continually on his right to do things his own way, and possesses an uncanny skill at pinpointing the follies and inconsistencies of many aspects of our consensus reality.

Neo-Hoodooism is an undeniable mixture of ingredients of the New World. Instead of Black essentialism, Reed argues hybridity as a virtue. Reed’s artistic vision is unique among African writers because his novels posits that Neo-Hoodooism, an African Voodoo derived aesthetic, evinces his post-colonial transformation of the English language, colonialist discourses, and imperial cultural systems into discourses of self-empowerment and self-representation.

In his writing, Neo-Hoodooism represents an attempt to rediscover pre-slavery and pre-colonial African languages and oral traditions to remedy the impact of physical and linguistic displacement that African Americans continue to experience in the United States. His novels are post-colonial writings whose production affects social, cultural, political, and historical contexts from African American, American multi-ethnic, Caribbean, African, Third-World, and global perspectives. Neo-Hoodooism is a post-colonial literary theory and a multi-cultural poetics. Reed reconnects the African diaspora to Africa within a global perspective.

Ishmael Reed’s Literary Style

His literary style is best known for its use of parody and satire an attempt to create new myths and to challenge the formal conventions of literary tradition. His works have been criticized as incoherent, muddled, and abstruse, and hailed as multicultural, revolutionary, vivid, and containing a deep awareness of mythic archetypes. The aesthetic preoccupations of Neo-Hoodooism, his rubric work and methodology adapted from the African American folkloric tradition.

Neo-Hoodoo borrows from Ancient Egyptians ritual accessories of Ancient Egypt which are still sold in the House of Candles and Talismans and Stanton Street in New York, the Botanical Gardens in East Harlem, and Min and Mom on Haight Street in San Francisco which are the examples of underground centres found in ghettos throughout America. It comes in all styles and moods.

Hoodoo involved dancing, painting, poetry, in other words it is a multi-media, the kind of effect that he tries to get in his work and not only to desirable what he is doing, but also no one can put him in any other kind of bag. His work is different from that of a Christian novelist or a Christian poet or someone who is up-dating the Old Testament. Many of the Black writers have been influenced by Christianity and Communism.
Many of the African American writers broke away from these traditions and developed systems of their own. He can give us an example of cowboys and the West North African reference, in his work. He used western experience and western tales for his detective work. It focuses on an investigation that included several lucky breaks, though somewhat challenged. It is a classic example of his technique.

Hoodoo involves possession, art and food, dance, poetry, and all those things that have been going on a long time, and it has always been subversive Black and all the hoodoo people were in business and owned property which is a very important thing. Until the worker’s paradise comes, people have to eat and they can support anyone who gives them jobs. And the people say, well the systems do not work, but the systems do work. White people got mortgages on their homes but it does not work for Blacks because of racism and so they get themselves in an impossible position. Hence, Hoodoo is a modern, sophisticated philosophy; it is always been open to the kind of change.

Reed’s writing, although emerging as it does from a specific political, economic, social and cultural experience reaches out to the entire world, and has a good deal of relevance to the post colonial situations in India. He is the first one to write it down as Hoodoo, in a conscious attempt to use explanation. “Neo-Hoodoo” is international. He is ultimately reaching for a different set of aesthetic values in reaction to western literary standards. This particular subject surfaces periodically among academics in African American literary.

Thus, hoodoo as a literary method describes that human life can be made to have meaning and it aims at making a fictional art. An evolutionary pattern emerges and treats Neo-Hoodooism as the source of oppression for the Black people in white America. It believes that every man is an artist and every artist is a priest and it has seen a lot of things in this old world. A salient aspect of African American Writings in hoodoo is the view of joy and sorrow, love and hatred, courage and fear, life and death-the stuff with which great literature is made all over the world.

**Conclusion**

Reed’s purpose in adopting the Neo-Hoodooism is an achievement of his writing because he is the high priest of Neo-Hoodooism, his philosophy of art and living derived from African religious practices and a select sprinkling of New World ingredients. Mere descriptions of his creative techniques fail to do justice to the results, which are often magical. Throughout this paper, I have analysed the satire of cultural politics and how Neo-Hoodoo aesthetics has been employed to attack the enlightenment ideas in the narratives under author consideration. Though, this paper aims at making an in-depth study of Hoodooism in Ishmael Reed’s fictional art. An evolutionary pattern emerges as Ishmael Reed, treats Neo-Hoodooism as the source of oppression for Black people in white America. Neo-Hoodoo believes that every man is an artist and every artist is a priest and it has seen a lot of things in this old world.
References


Instances of Code Switching in Indian Television Serials

B.A. Mahalakshmi Prasad, M.A.

Introduction

Any television viewer who watches Hindi language serials telecast on television will agree that much innovation has been introduced in the language used by the actors who portray different characters in TV serials, which are extremely popular with the young and the old alike in India. These dialogues used by the actors demonstrate creative ingenuity in the way they have blended Hindi and other local languages with English.

A keen observation reveals that in some serials, certain characters speak exclusively in English, Hindi or other local language while other characters code switch between these two or more languages.

This phenomenon in language use has been described in sociolinguistics as code switching. Although this sociolinguistic concept has been widely studied, its investigation has largely been restricted to speech or conversational situations, and mostly within formal settings.

Not much research has been carried out in the arena of Code Switching as a performance phenomenon as utilised by the actors to enhance their characters by adding depth and myriad shades to aid the transformation of the viewer.
The Goal of This Paper

The paper tries to look at the phenomenon of Code Switching in TV serials being telecast on Indian Television and tries to analyse the motivations for the use of Code Switching in the dialogues in serials being telecast in Hindi language in India in the framework of Butler's (1997) Performative Theory and Austin’s (1962) Illocutionary Acts.

Code Switching in Serials

Code Switching in serials is a deliberate tool used by the script writer/actor to bring out the shades of the character by adding unexpected nuances and depth in addition to the gestures, costume, and make up used by the actor to portray the character effectively.

Method

The study considers three programs, namely, Godh Bharai being telecast on Sony TV, Pratigya man ki awaz on Star Plus, and Geet hui Sabse Parayi on Star One. It investigates the language behaviour of the actors while trying to describe the code switching and code mixing behaviour in different contexts and at different levels.

Twenty-five viewers’ opinions about the serial regarding acting, costume, language use and dialogue were collected. The dialogues of the serials were recorded and orthographically transcribed. The sentences and the contexts where code switching, code mixing, or both were present were orthographically written and analyzed. In the present context, the term code switching is taken to include simultaneous use of English, Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, etc.

Table 1: Some examples of dialogues in the serial

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<table>
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<tr>
<td>1. Actor: Ja uske peeche ja , us pekad ke peeche ja”</td>
<td>Go, go after him, go after that drunkard”</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Actor- udhar usko jana hai, use Kuccho nahi pata hai”</td>
<td>&quot;He has to go there, he does not know anything.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>The word Kuccho is from a dialect of Hindi language.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Actor: Mein kehta hun na itla mate bikra tum vahan jao”</td>
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I am telling you, that is why child, you must go there”
Here itla mate bikra are words from Gujarati in a Hindi sentence

4. Actor: Ata kay Zala, usne phone kiya na
What happened, he called, did he not”
Ata kay zala are words from Marathi in a Hindi sentence.

5. are kutra ja na
Eh! Dog, go, here Kutra, dog is a noun inserted in the sentence, from Marathi language.

6. Actor: Babuji mein family ke ache ke liye to kehrali hun
Dad, I am telling this for the good of the family.

7. Actor: Dad, I am telling you, mein use maar dunga
Dad I am telling you, I will kill him

Discussion
Butler (1997) notes that the ability of words to “do things” makes hate speech possible, but he also states that, at the same time, such speech is dependent on its specific embodied context.

Example 5. kutra ja na.
Dog go

In this example, code switching is between Marathi and Hindi. The actor brings out the hatred and anger in the dialogue as well as making the other person of the communicative dyad feel inadequate. Here, the Marathi word *kutra* in a dialogue that is completely delivered in standard Hindi signifies a variety of meanings including the (contemptuous) opinion of the speaker towards the hearer.

Example 2: *thum yahan rasta rok ke kuyn kade ho, jab hum hamare bahuria ko ghar le jaa rahe hain?*
Why are you standing here blocking the way when we are taking out daughter-in-law home?

In this example, the actor shows that his daughter-in-law is closer (in that space) to him than the stranger by delivering the word *bahuria* in a softer voice and using the dialectal form of the word *bahu*. This is concurrent with what Austin’s (1962) illocutionary act concept where the word that varies with the context in which it is uttered implies that it is impossible to adequately define the performative meanings of words, including hate, abstractly.

If one keenly observes the Code Switching phenomenon in dialogues as
employed by the actors, the code switches are seen as striking examples that iterate Austin’s (1962) "explicit" performative sentence that makes explicit what act one is performing while conveying an implicit message about the status, educational background, religion, caste and other sociolinguistic variables.

Table 2: Viewers Opinion

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geet hui sabse parayi</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man ki awaz pratigya</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Godh Baharai</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
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1 = E-Excellent, 2 = F-Fair, 3=B-Bad

Graph 1: Graph of Viewers Opinion on Costume

Graph 2: Graph of Viewers Opinion on Acting
Instances of Code Switching in Indian TV Serials

Graph 3: Graph of Viewers Opinion on Dialogue

Graph 4: Graph of Viewers Opinion on Language
The audience of these serials largely are women between the ages of 25 to 50. The primary viewers of these programs were interviewed. Viewers generally identified themselves with the trials and tribulations of the character that is being portrayed. The audience felt that these serials were effective and sustained their interests due to the story. The actors’ performance of characters was effective and realistic by their utilisation of effective language use (Code Switching). While the actor’s costume and gestures reinforced the message, he or she was conveying.

As represented by the graphs shown above, the viewers were asked to rate the serial based on acting, costume, language and dialogue of the serials since, for any performance to be effective, the amalgamation of all these above mentioned factors must work in tandem. However, most of the viewers are of the opinion that dialogues and language used in the dialogues are very important to make the character realistic.

**Reasons for Code Switching**

Actors code-switched to English language, while hatching nefarious schemes! The episode writer used code switching to English when he or she wanted to show that the particular actor has returned from America or has had a western education.

Diglossic code switching is another common and widely prevalent feature in casual conversation in the data collected. It was obvious that the actors used the standard variety of the language in formal situation, and the low variety of the language in a non-formal situation. They also used the low variety while speaking in order to exhibit or reveal their rural background or the rough nature characteristics of the characters.

Context and social factors signal the importance of the actors for code switching events with consideration to literacy, status, solidarity, group membership, and audience. Emphasis of the character is achieved by (switching language) that is, the use of the guest language or the return to the host language to direct the viewer’s attention to the words and their subtle collocations.

**Summary**

This paper looks at the phenomenon of code switching in TV serials through the framework of Butler’s (1997) performative theory. The paper observes that the
actors code switch between a) one language to another, b) one dialect to another, c) one variety of register to another to effectively portray the character that the actor is playing, and this enables the character to become more real.

The dialogues also suggest that the actors’ code switched at the Word level, Phrase level and Syntactic level.

This study also concentrates on the reasons for code switching, the context of code switching, various domains of code switching, etc. and elaborates them. Some of the types of code switching behaviour along with their setting were identified. It is evident from the study that the change of topic and the change of setting influence the language behaviour. The change in language behaviour is used by actors as a powerful tool to portray the character that is played out in depth. Code switching helps effectively communicate the shades of the characters and to find their home in the viewer’s mind.

References


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The Role of Compounding in Technical English Prescribed for Engineering Students in Tamilnadu

P. Malathy, M.A., Ph.D.

1. Glimpses on Compounding

Compounding is frequently used in the word formation process in Technical English. Flexibility in compounding and the ease with which it can be applied to express complex meanings and concepts make compounds a great favorite in Technical English.

Compounding is a process whereby two free morphemes are combined as one word. They differ from both derivational and inflectional affixation as they are the exclusive amalgamation of two free morphemes. For instance, the form ‘black box’, consisting of two free morphemes, may be interpreted as a box that is black in colour, but the concept borne by the compound, blackbox, points out to the fluorescent orange colour box fitted in the aeroplanes to explore the history of any mishap during emergencies.

In the word rainbow, there are two individual morphemes ‘rain’ and ‘bow’ to mean two different things, when these are not combined. However, the combination of these two words gives a new dimension to the words, rain and bow, by associating a new meaning to it.
In compounding, when two or more free morphemes are combined, we get a form without any change in their original forms, but such a combination results in some new meaning. Adjacency of these free morphemes ushers in a new concept/meaning.

The prime difficulty in exploring the form and function of the compound words in English is that there are no systematic rules for the compounding of two or more free morphemes.

Perhaps, it might simply be expected that in English, two words will be compounded when they are frequently used together. However, to make things slightly more complicated, the English language also consists of compound words whose meanings have seemingly lost their connection to their constituents' meanings. The meaning of the word *deadline*, for example, has little to do with ‘death' or 'line'.

2. Compounding in Technical English

Compounding is prevalent in Technical English prescribed for engineering students in Tamilnadu, India (and this, indeed, is a good plan and wise move). For instance, the use of the compounds given below, frequently seen in engineering texts, may confuse the students when not expanded properly.

Fire-tube-boiler
Condenser-extraction pump
Butt-weld
Highbandwidth-internet-connectivity

An important goal of the syllabus prescribed for the engineering students in Tamilnadu is better comprehension of the compounds with a special focus on engineering texts.

The teaching and learning of the compounds poses some difficulty in the engineering classroom. It appears that the authors of engineering textbooks are more focused on the presentation and interplay of the concepts, etc., rather than on the presentation mode and language style they should adopt to make their texts readable and easily comprehensible. Thus, the compound jargon used in engineering texts often goes beyond the entry level of students’ comprehension. As a matter of fact, the conjoining of morphemes in compounds leads to ambiguous comprehension, if the students are not acquainted with the process of compounding and the meaning nuances/results that the combination brings about. Hence, it becomes very essential to resolve the ambiguity of such technical and engineering jargon.

The Tamilnadu syllabus, thus, is on right direction in focusing upon this important aspect of English language use, but the teachers of English and Engineering need to devise
suitable strategies to overcome the difficulties faced by the students through a variety of exercises. For example, the Engineering syllabus suggests exercises on expanding the nominal compounds and defining the technical jargon. What needs to be done, however, is to enable the students to use the compounds in a variety of contexts. Identification of the underlying structure, comprehension of the meaning of such compounds and use of the compound form should all be integrated.

3. Compounding and English for Engineers

The students of engineering learn the connotative discrepancies in some of the engineering jargon like powerhouse, software, workshop, etc. The ambiguity is resolved by expanding such nominal compounds. The students are taught that the connotation of powerhouse is extremely away from either ‘power’ or ‘house’, the meanings of ‘soft’ and ‘ware’ have nothing to do with ‘software’ and what ‘work’ and ‘shop’ mean are totally different from a ‘workshop’.

Thirumalai (2003, http://languageinindia.com/jan2003/languageinscience.html#chapter4) points out, “the English used in science [including engineering and technology] consists of a restricted range of sentence types that are also used in ordinary language. Thus, it is the literary and ordinary English that uses a number of types of sentences in addition to those types that are common to it and the language of science.”

What this implies is that our students of engineering need to continuously develop their competence in the ordinary use of the English language even as they are trained in the use of Technical English. The specific features of Technical English are located also in the coinage and use of Technical English. Compounding is a significant part of these special features of Technical English.

It is important for the teachers of English in the colleges of engineering to have a clear idea of the processes of the coinage and use of Technical English. However, the teaching of Technical English need not involve any detailed description of how technical terms are described using linguistic terms, etc. Use of linguistic jargon will further confuse the students. So, what needs to be done is to provide the students with a variety of exercises without using any linguistic jargon.

To help this process, I list below various important processes of compounding in English, available in most books on English grammar.

For simplified comprehension, the compounds used in Technical English are classified under two sub-units, namely,

1. Syntactic Compounds

Language in India www.languageinindia.com 10 : 7 July 2010
P. Malathy, M.A., Ph.D.
The Role of Compounding in Technical English Prescribed for Engineering Students in Tamilnadu
2. Juxtapositional Compounds

3.1. Syntactic Compounds

The syntactic compound serves in sustaining the flow of the discourse by strictly following the syntactic rules of English. The following combination of free morphemes gives the general use of syntactic compounds in Technical English.

a) Verb + Noun
b) Adjective + Noun
c) Verb + Preposition
d) Preposition + Noun
e) Phrasal Compounds

Verb + Noun

It is a combination of two free morphemes where the verb precedes the noun in the same word without the separation of the morphemes either by a hyphen or by leaving a space in between.

Typewriter – Combination of the verb, ‘type’ with the noun, ‘writer’
Talktime – Combination of the verb, ‘talk’ with the noun, ‘time’
Stopclock – Combination of the verb, ‘stop’ with the noun, ‘clock’

Adjective + Noun

This concatenation comprises of an adjective and a noun. As this combination sustains the norms of syntax, it is categorized under syntactic compounds.

Software – ‘soft’ serves as an adjective and ‘ware’ is the noun
Joystick – ‘joy’ serves as an adjective and ‘stick’ as noun.
Fax machine – ‘fax’ serves as adjective and ‘machine’ as noun.

Verb + Preposition

In this amalgamation the verb precedes the preposition and thus preserves the syntax of the language.

Login – ‘log’ is the verb and ‘in’ is the preposition
Printout – ‘print’ acts as the verb and ‘out’ is the preposition
Shutdown – ‘shut’ is the verb and ‘down’ is the preposition
**Preposition + Noun**

These compounds aid to stick on to the syntactic norms of the precedence of the preposition before nouns.

- Upgrade – Combination of the preposition, ‘up’ with the noun, ‘grade’
- Overflow – Combination of the preposition, ‘over’ with the noun, ‘flow’
- Inplant – Combination of the preposition, ‘in’ with the noun, ‘plant’

**Phrasal Compound**

This type of syntactic compounds exhibits the combination of a minimum of three free morphemes that are perhaps hyphenated in the written discourse.

- Fire-tube-boiler – Combination of three free morphemes, ‘fire’, ‘tube’ and ‘boiler’
- Condenser-extraction-pump – Combination of three free morphemes, ‘condenser’, ‘extraction’ and ‘pump’
- Out-of-Print – Combination of three free morphemes, ‘out’, ‘of’ and ‘print’

**3.2. Juxtapositional Compounds**

The second classification of compounds signifies the need for juxtaposition of the compounds. These compounds hardly aid in sustaining the syntax of a sentence, besides exhibiting the salient feature of assuming absolutely discrepant meanings when juxtaposed (Baruah, T.C., p. 90).

In other words, the free morphemes of the juxtapositional compounds are simply placed side by side and are not connected by any syntactic rule. There are combinations of five different types.

a) Noun + Noun
b) Noun / Abbreviation + Present Participle
c) Present Participle + Noun
d) Noun + Verb
e) Adjective + Noun

**Noun + Noun**
The occurrence of two nouns immediately one after one another is the specialty of this type of juxtapositional combination. In this combination, the first word acts as a qualifier. This combination may also include hyphenation.

Screw-driver, Fire-Extinguisher, etc.

**Noun/Abbreviation + Present Participle**

This category exhibits the precedence of a noun/alphabet or abbreviation before a present participle.

C-Debugging, E-Learning, etc.

**Present Participle + Noun**

In this combination, the present participle assumes the role of the qualifier of the noun that follows.

Moulding-Machine, Packing-Container, etc.

**Noun + Verb**

In this combination, the noun and the verb occur as wholesome units where the noun precedes the verb.

Manhandle, Heartbeat, etc.

**Adjective + Noun**

This combination is a popular occurrence of syntax that admits the presence of adjective in front of a noun. But, as a matter of fact, this is also a category of juxtapositional compounds as the free morphemes join together to form a single meaningful unit.

Main Memory, Molten metal, etc.

4. Some Additional Tips for Exercises

1. Collect the textbooks prescribed in your college for various engineering courses. Arrange them in the order in which these are used in various courses. Some may be the textbooks used in the first semester, some in the second semester, etc.

2. List the technical terms.

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com) 10 : 7 July 2010

P. Malathy, M.A., Ph.D.

The Role of Compounding in Technical English Prescribed for Engineering Students in Tamilnadu
3. Classify the technical terms used in the engineering textbooks under various groups, as given in the description of compounds in earlier sections.

4. Workout a variety of exercises that would include: Identification of the underlying structure, comprehension of the meaning of such compounds and use of the compound form in an integrated manner. Focus on the spelling and space between words. Focus also on the verb endings when such technical terms are used. Relate these to the common use in newspapers and technical journals.

5. Emphasize through examples how simple use of the language as seen in short sentences and straightforward expressions will help clarify their (students) thinking and presentation. Ultimately, simplicity and neatness of pattern help easier comprehension of any presentation.

5. Conclusion

Compounding is a frequently used process of word formation in Technical English. Mastery of compounding helps quick comprehension besides avoiding elaborate explanation all over the text every now and then.

However, students have difficulty in fully comprehending the compounded technical terms as the relationship between the components of a technical term may not be easy to identify. We need to develop this skill in our students to enable them not only to comprehend and use the texts they encounter in engineering textbooks, but also to express themselves with clarity.

At some level, use of the jargon becomes a must, and the jargon itself comes to represent almost everything that a competent engineer wants to present to others.

Thus there is a need to help our students to master the coinage and use of technical terms and their underlying processes, with suitably graded exercises based on a sound and sufficiently adequate description of compounding in English.

The strategies of compounding discussed in this paper will help the teachers of English to devise their own suitable materials and strategy to impart the essential compound jargon of texts to the students.

References


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Abstract

This is a socio-pragmatic investigation into polite request strategies made by Yemeni learners of English as a foreign language. For this study, 196 Yemeni learners of English were asked to respond in English to six different situations in which they carried out the speech act of request. The data was collected using a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The data was analyzed according to the models proposed by Blum-Kulka, et al (1989).

Blum-Kulka, et al’s (1989) analytical framework classified request into three levels of directness: direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies, and non-conventionally indirect strategies. Five strategies are considered direct (mood derivable, performative, obligation statement, want statement), two strategies are considered conventionally indirect (query preparatory, suggestory formulae), and two strategies are non-conventionally indirect strategies (strong hints and mild hints).

Results indicate that the Yemeni EFL students prefer to use conventionally indirect strategies more than other strategies when the social distance, social power and ranking...
of imposition are very high between the requester and requestee. On the other hand, they would choose to use direct strategies when the speaker and hearer have equal status and when the speaker has a higher status than the hearer to show solidarity between them.

**Key words:** Request, Politeness, Request Strategies, direct, indirectness

**Introduction**

In recent years, linguistic studies have shown a shift of emphasis in second and foreign language teaching and learning theories from a grammatical or structural approach to a communicative or pragmatics studies (Widdowson, 1987; Canale, and Swain, 1980) as cited in (Al-Zumor, 2003).

One of the important approaches in pragmatics is the application of the notion of speech acts. The basic notion of speech act theory is that language performs communicative acts. This theory was developed by Austin (1962) who proposed that speech is a unit of speaking, used to perform different functions in communication and certain actions can only be carried out using language.

Following Austin (1962), an utterance can be categorized into three layers:

(1) **Locutionary act** refers to an utterance simply constructed by its literal meaning. For example, if your friend tells you, “the suit you wear is very nice”, you get the meaning that this expression describes the suit.

(2) **The illocutionary act** is performed by the utterance. As a consequence, “the suit you wear is very nice” can function as a compliment from your friend to praise your choice.

(3) **The prelocutionary act** refers to the effect of the utterance on the listener. Under such circumstances, if the listener is good, he may realize the indirect meaning; the listener will thank and offer the speaker his suit as a gift.

Austin considered the illocutionary act as the most important act, because it is actually what the speaker wants to achieve through the action of uttering the sentences. For example, “could you lend me your book, please?” is an illocutionary act and can function as a request. The requester asks the requestee to perform something for him.

Searle (1969) built on Austin’s work and proposed a systematic framework by which to incorporate speech acts, or more specifically, illocutionary acts, into linguistic theory.

According to Searle, Austin’s classification of speech acts is problematic and inconsistent. Searle (1976, cited in Lin, 2005) argues that Austin’s classification “does
not maintain a clear distinction between illocutionary verbs and acts; nor are the categories based on consistently applied principles.”

Furthermore, Searle classified illocutionary acts into five categories which reflect the different types of conditions underlying speech acts:

1. Representatives which tell people how things are, (e.g. suggest, insist, swear, etc.)
2. Directives which try to get people to do things (e.g. order, request, invite, etc.)
3. Commissive which make us commit ourselves to do things (e.g. intend, favour, etc.)
4. Expressive which make us express our feelings and attitudes (e.g. thank, congratulate, apologize, etc.)
5. Declarations which make us bring about changes through our utterances (e.g. resign, appoint somebody, fire somebody, etc.)

Furthermore, Searle (1975) categorized speech acts into two types ‘direct speech acts’ and ‘indirect speech acts’.

1. Direct speech acts are defined as utterances in which the meaning of the expression is consistent with what the speaker means or intends.

2. Indirect speech acts are defined as utterances in which there is no relation between the sentence meaning and speaker meaning. For example, when the speaker utters the sentence as “can you reach the dictionary?” and mean it not merely as a question but as a request to pass the dictionary. The problem posed by indirect speech act is how a hearer can understand the indirect meaning of the sentence.

According to Searle (1975) what speaker means is more than what a speaker says. He also contends that certain linguistic forms will tend to become conventionalized standard idiomatic forms for indirect speech acts. For example, utterance such as “can you reach the dictionary?” is conventionally used to make indirect request.

Searle (1979:48) also states, “the chief motivation for using indirect forms is politeness.” Using the ‘can you’ form as a request instead of using imperative shows that the speaker is polite and does not presume to know about the hearer’s ability and also gives the hearer the option of refusing.

**Politeness and Speech Act of Request**

Language in India www.languageinindia.com
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Polite Request Strategies as Produced by Yemeni EFL Learners
The terms *politeness* play an important role to protect face during the realization of speech acts such as requests. Brasdefer (2005) states a request is a directive act and a pre-event which initiates the negotiation of face during a conversational interaction. Request is a type of speech act where the speaker (requester) demands from the hearer (requestee) to perform an act which is for the benefit of the requester at the cost of the requestee.

This act can be verbal or non-verbal. Request belongs to the directive type of speech act (Reiter, 2000). Leech (1983) refers to it as ‘impositive’ in order to avoid confusion in using the term ‘directive’ in relation to direct and indirect illocutions.

A request is composed of two parts: head act and modifiers. Head act is the main utterance which conveys a complete request and can stand by itself without any modifiers in order to convey request. The head act is followed or preceded by modifiers that mitigate or aggravate the impact of the request on the addressee (hearer) (Reiter, 2000).

Face is “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself. This face is emotionally invested, and [it can be] lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to interaction” (Brown and Levinson, 1987:61).

Lin (2009) points out that making requests, as a directive which involves the speaker’s effort to get the assistance of the hearer, is one of the most difficult speech acts for learners, especially second language (L2) learners, because it calls for considerable cultural and linguistic expertise on the part of the learner, and requires a high level of appropriateness for their successful completion.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), requests are intrinsically face-threatening because they are intended to threaten the addressee’s negative face (i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition). They explain that direct forms appear to be impolite and face threatening act, but indirect forms tend to be more polite and are a suitable strategy for avoiding threatening face.

Al-Eryani (2007) states different cultures have different perceptions and interpretations of appropriateness and politeness. Moreover, Chen and Chen (2007) state that the appropriateness of requests depends on a culture in a specific situation and some factors which influence the production of requests such as status of the hearer, familiarity, age, the sex of the participants, and social power.

Furthermore, Lanteigne (2007) states that cultural differences affect perceptions of politeness and one can be polite within one language and/or culture, but impolite in other
languages and/or cultures. On the other hand, politeness depends on the culture of society.

In addition, Warren-Rothlin (2007) states that most languages have a wide variety of strategies for communicating politeness, however these are always highly culture-specific and relate closely to broader cultural norms.

**Theoretical Background of the Study**

The primary theoretical framework of this study is based on Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (1987). The main idea of Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory is that certain speech acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus require softening by means of politeness strategies.

The theory focuses on the effects of linguistic choices on the face wants of the hearer, whether they feel approved of, liked, or respect. The theory emphasizes softening of the request as the main purpose for using politeness strategies. This study is also based on an adaptation of Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project) coding scheme used to study the realization of speech acts in a number of languages such as American English, French, Hebrew, Argentinean Spanish, Russian and German.

**Related Literature**

Several research and many studies have been conducted in the area of speech acts of request. Blum-Kulka (1982, 1983) conducted a study on the request behaviour in Hebrew and compared it with the Canadian and American speakers of English.

The findings of those studies show that the degree of social distance and power relationship between interlocutors are very important factors in making request. And also those studies confirm the view that each language provides the forms for its speakers to perform speech acts. However, the choice of the appropriate form for a speech act is not language specific, but culture specific. Also they confirm that politeness value is not determined by the language form, it is determined by the context of speech act, because what may be viewed as polite in some culture may not be viewed with the same degree of politeness in another culture. Therefore, misunderstanding and using inappropriate forms in cross cultural communication should be expected.

Reiter (2000) carried out across-cultural study of linguistic politeness in Britain and Uruguay based on Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (1987). In her study the collected linguistic data are analyzed by using a modified coding scheme from the Cross-
The findings show that British English and Uruguayan Spanish speakers varying the way they frame their requests according to the social distance between the interlocutors. The Uruguayans employ higher levels of directness than the British. On the other hand, the British employed higher levels of non-conventional indirectness which had vary low incidence in Uruguayan Spanish. Reiter (2000:180) concludes that “with the case of request it seems that speakers of Uruguayan Spanish don’t consider ‘negative’ politeness as weighty as the British who show more of a need to redress the addressee’s’ negative’ face.” Reiter’s study suggests that Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory is applicable to the British and Uruguayan community.

Maria Kogotsidis (2002) conducted a study to examine whether there are marked cross-cultural differences in the degree of requestive directness between the Greek native speakers (GNSS) and the British English native speakers (ENSS) in telephone business encounters. The subjects in this study were two hundred random callers were used as subjects, one hundred Greek callers (46 female, 54 male), and one hundred English callers (54 female, 46 male). Due to the nature of telephone data, no homogeneity in the callers used could be ensured (their age, educational background, social background, cultural background etc.). For this reason, only their gender was recorded. The method of data gathering followed the collection and comparison of telephone opening requests produced by callers at the call centre of a UK airline based in the South of England and semi-structured interviews were also carried out in relation to the telephone operators who received the calls. These interviews were conducted in order to gain some qualitative insights into how the callers’ requests and telephone behaviour were perceived by the hearers (operators). The findings of the study show that there are marked cross cultural differences in the strategy selection and degree of directness employed between the GNSS and the ENSS as far as their requesting strategies are concerned, and reveal the tendency on the part of the Creek native speakers to employ greater directness in their requestive production more than ENSS.

Byon (2004) conducted a study to investigate and describe socio-pragmatic features of American Korean Foreign Language learners in the Korean communicative act of request. The subjects in this study were 150 female university students. Fifty female Korean native speakers provided the native Korean data, fifty female American English native speakers provided the native English data and fifty female American native speakers of English who were Korean Foreign Language learners provided the non-native data. The data of the study was collected through a written questionnaire in the form of the Discourse Completion Test. The findings of the study show that the American Korean
foreign language learners as advanced learners appear to develop a greater sensitivity to the use of politeness strategies in requesting than is seen in native speakers. Also the study supports that the American Korean foreign language learners as advanced learners do not acquire fully native speakers-like ways of requesting and they tend to produce longer request than native speakers do. The KFL learners used a greater number of formulae are more varied in form than the Korean native speakers. Also the findings of the study suggest that the study can help the KFL teachers become aware of cultural differences in language usage, by emphasizing the importance of a curriculum that utilizes the act of request within its cultural contexts. Also KFL textbook dialogues should be constructed so as to reflect the Korean way of speaking and thinking.

Felix-Brasdefer (2005) conducted a study to examine the notions of indirectness and politeness in speech act of requests, including head acts and external modifications, among Mexican university students in role play situation. The subjects of the study were ten NSs of Mexican Spanish included four male and six females. The data of the study was collected through an open-ended role-play. The findings of the study show that NSs of Mexican Spanish prefer to use conventional indirectness strategies by means of ‘query preparatory’ when making request in situations which display + Power or + Distance, whereas prefer to use directness strategies when the relationship between the interlocutors was closer (-Distance). Also the study proves that there is no relation between indirectness and politeness as observed by Brown and Levinson’s (1987) and Leech’s (1983). The findings of the study show that direct requests are situation-dependent and seem to be the expected behavior among Mexican subjects in a solidarity politeness system (-Power, – Distance). Also the findings of the study are consistent with other studies which found that directness in German and Polish cultures should not be considered impolite, but rather should be seen as a way of expressing closeness and affiliation.

Marti (2006) conducted a study to identify the realization and politeness perception of requests made by Turkish monolingual speakers and Turkish-German bilingual returnees and investigate the possibility that the Turkish-German bilingual returnees’ pragmatic performance may have been affected by pragmatic transfer from German. The researcher used in his study (DCT) in order to collect data from Turkish monolinguals and Turkish-German bilingual returnees, in order to elicit requests in 10 different situation and to investigate the relationship between indirectness and politeness. The findings of the study are generally in accordance with Blum-Kulka (1987) there is no linear relation between indirectness and politeness. Indirectness and politeness are strongly connected concepts. Also the study shows the Turkish speakers adopt quite direct strategies whereas German speakers prefer indirect strategies.
Chen and Eileen Chen (2007) conducted a study to explore the use of request strategies and the effect of social variables on Taiwanese EFL learners and American native speakers. Fourteen native English speakers and fifty Taiwanese EFL learners participated in this study. The researchers used Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989) to collect data. The findings of the study show that conventionally indirect strategy is the most preferred choice for both groups and in term of the influence of social variables the analysis of the main request strategy types reveals when the interlocutors have equal social status, they prefer to use conventionally indirect strategy whereas the speaker’s social status is higher than the addressee’s social status, the choice of strategy tends to move towards directness. Therefore, the study show that cross cultural variations influenced by the factor of social status.

Lin (2009) carried out a study to compare the use of query preparatory modals in conventionally indirect requests made by native speakers of English (NS-Es), native speakers of Chinese (NS-Cs), and Chinese learners of English-as-a-foreign language (EFLs). The subjects of the study were sixty native speakers of Chinese in Taiwan and 60 native speakers of English in the US. They were all university students aged from 21 to 30 at the time of the study. Each group was composed of 30 males and 30 females. All the Chinese participants of the study were students in the third year in National Sun Yat-sen University and National Kaohsiung Normal University and American participants were students in the University of Illinois. The data were collected by using the Discourse Completion Task (DCT). The findings of the study provide support for Blum-Kulka’s (1989) generalizations on the conventionality of indirect request. First, although the same range and types of modals are used in Chinese and English, the preference orders and distributions of the sub-strategies vary cross-culturally, which results in inter-language deviations from what is observed in DCT-elicited NS English data. Second, the sub-strategies also vary in terms of form, function, and distribution.

Jalilifar (2009) investigated the request strategies as used by Iranian learners of English as a foreign language and Australian native speakers of English. The respondents of the study divided into two groups. First group involved 96 BA and MA Persian students and second group 10 Australian native speakers of English. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was used to collect data related to the request strategies used by each group. The situation in DCT was based on two important social factors: power and social distance. The result of the study that there is pragmatic development, particularly in the movement from direct to conventionally indirect strategies on the part of EFL learners, the learners who have higher proficiency in English use indirect strategies more than other strategies, whereas native speakers of English balance between this strategies. The learners who have lower proficiency in English use direct strategies more than other strategies. In terms of the influence of the social variables, the findings of this research reveal that as
far as social dominance is concerned, EFL learners display closer performance to native speakers. But in terms of social distance many differences are observed between the types of request strategy made by native speakers and Iranian learners. It seems that EFL learners have not acquired sufficient sociopragmatic knowledge to be able to display the proper social behavior. That is, they are not sensitive to both social power and social distance.

The Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate polite request strategies as produced by Yemeni learners of English as a foreign language and the effect of social distance, social power and ranking of imposition in the choice of request strategies in their daily conversation. The current study does not aim to investigate the gender differences in the choice of polite request strategies.

Method

Subjects

The respondents of the study comprise 196 undergraduate students, namely 98 male respondents and 98 female respondents. The respondents were university students who are studying at the Departments of English language, Sana’a University, Faculty of Education Sana’a, and Arhab. The respondents are relatively homogeneous in terms of their cultural background and academic/linguistic experiences.

Procedure

All respondents were asked to fill out a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). This test was originally designed by Blum-Kulka (1982) and has been widely used since then in collecting data on speech acts realization both within and cross language groups. The questionnaire used in this investigation involves six written situations. Respondents are then asked to complete each dialogue by writing a suitable request in English language. Respondents were asked to put themselves in real situation and to assume that in each situation they would, in fact, say something they were asked to write down what they would say. The researcher administered the questionnaire in the second semester of the academic year 2008/2009.

Table 1: Classification Situations According to Social Variables
Polite Request Strategies as Produced by Yemeni EFL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situations</th>
<th>Social power</th>
<th>Social distance</th>
<th>Ranking of imposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Customer asks the waiter for bill.</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Speaker asks his brother to bring some vegetables.</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- A university student asks teacher to lend him his book</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- An employee asks his/her manager to leave work early</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Student asks his/her friend to borrow his/her note</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Speaker asks his neighbour to drive him to market</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>-SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Analysis**

The analysis of the data of the study is based on an adaptation of Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project) coding scheme used to study the realization of speech acts in a number of languages. Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) analytical framework is based on the universal premise that request strategies in all languages will show three major levels of directness: direct, conventionally indirect, non-conventionally indirect. According to this scale, the researcher can identify request strategies types as produced by Yemeni learners of English as a foreign language. The researcher will use SPSS to analyze data in terms of frequency and percentage.

**Discussion of the Results**

The result presents the distribution of request strategy types in Tables and Figures. The frequency and percentage of the request types occurred across s situations. In this section the researcher will analyze the data and the findings will be presented in terms of request strategies used by Yemeni EFL learners.

**Situation 1**

In situation one (Customer is asking the waiter for bill.), table 2 and figure 1 below show that Yemeni EFL Learners have a great tendency to use direct strategies by mean of mood derivable 62.8% in addressing the waiter more than other strategies. The next most frequently chosen strategies are indirect strategies by means of query preparatory 35.2% and direct strategies by means of want statements 2.05.
The finding has shown that Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use direct strategies when the requesting people in lower position. It has shown that the more distant the relationship and power between the interlocutors, the more likely it is for these subjects to issue a request directly. It should be noted that direct requests strategies which implied by Yemeni EFL Learners were often modified by the lexical which mitigate the direct request such as ‘please’, ‘excuse me’, ‘I am sorry for bothering you’, if you don’t mind’ and ‘I wonder if’

Table 2: Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Request Strategies in situation one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Want statements</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query preparatory</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood derivable</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Situation 2

In situation two (Speaker is asking his younger brother to bring sugar.), table 3 and figure 2 below show that Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use direct strategies by means mood derivable 62.4% more than other strategies and the next most frequently chosen strategies are indirect strategies by means of query preparatory 26.0% and direct strategies by means of want statements 3.6%, obligation statements 1.5% and hedge performative .5%.
The finding has shown again that Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use direct strategies when requesting people in lower position. Direct strategies or imperatives are classified according to Scollon and Scollon (2001) as solidarity politeness strategies because they imply that the speaker assumes only a small social distance between him/herself and the interlocutor.

The findings of situation one and two reveal that the Yemeni EFL learners prefer to employ direct strategies by means of mood derivable more than indirect strategies when requester in higher position than requestee. Also the preference for direct request strategies in these two situations seems to be an instance of positive politeness strategies.
according to Brown and Levinson (1987). Furthermore, the explanation for this is that Yemeni culture permits to use direct request strategies when requesting people in lower position than requester.

**Situation 3**

In situation three, (A university student is asking his teacher to lend him his book.), table 4 and figure 3 reveal that Yemeni EFL Learners have a great tendency to use indirect strategies by means of query preparatory 87.2% in addressing their teacher more than direct strategies by means of want statements 7.7%, mood derivable 3.6% and hedge performative 1.5%.

**Table 4: Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Request Strategies in situation three**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedge performative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood derivable</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want statements</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query preparatory</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings as shown in Table 3 reveal that Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use query preparatory request strategy more frequently than other strategies. This result support that the three social factors, the distance (D) between the speaker (S) and the hearer (H), the power of the hearer over the speaker (P) and the risk of imposition determined the performance of the subjects in this situation, and that gives support for the claim of Brown and Levinson (1987).
Situation 4

In situation four, (An employee is asking his manager to leave work early.), table 5 and figure 4 below show that Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use indirect strategies by means of query preparatory 60.2% in addressing their manager more than direct strategies by means of want statements 27.6%, mood derivable 9.2%, and hedge performative 1.5%. Non-conventionally indirect strategy by means of strong hints 1.5% is also observed in the data to show a high degree of politeness in this situation.

Table 5: Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Request Strategies in situation four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedge performative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong hints</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood derivable</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want statements</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query preparatory</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings as shown in Table 5 reveal that Yemeni EFL Learners prefer to use indirect strategies when the hearer has social distance and power more than the speaker and when
the ranking of imposition is very high. So the performance of the respondents in this situation gives support for the claim of Brown and Levinson (1987).

The findings of situations three and four reveal that Yemeni EFL learners prefer to use conventionally indirect strategies by means of query preparatory more than other strategies. The explanation for this is that the requestee is in a higher position, so Yemeni EFL learners prefer to use query preparatory strategies to show their respectable and deference by making indirect request or negative politeness strategies to protect their faces and the requestees’ faces.

**Situation 5**

In situation five, (Student is asking his friend to borrow his note.), table 6 and figure 5 below show that Yemeni EFL Learners prefer to use indirect strategies (query preparatory 69.9%) in addressing their friends when the ranking of imposition is very high more than direct strategies (want statements 13.3%), (Mood derivable 13.3%), (hedge performative 1.5%), (strong hints 1.0%), (mild hints .5) and (performative .5%). Furthermore, the non-conventional indirect strategies (strong hints) and (mild hints) are also observed in this situation in a low statistical level.
The findings as shown in Table (7) reveal that Yemeni EFL Learners prefer to use indirect strategies when the ranking of imposition very high and cost the hearer something even though with friends. Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use indirect strategies in this situation in order to show a high degree of politeness and mitigate and minimize the impact of request on the hearer and to protect his/her face and the hearer’s face.

![Figure 5: Request Strategies Used by Yemeni EFL Learners (situation 5)](image-url)

### Table 6: Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Request Strategies in situation five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mild hints</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong hints</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedge performative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood derivable</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want statements</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query preparatory</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Situation 6**

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)
10 : 7 July 2010
Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate
Azimah Binti Sazalie, Ph.D.
Polite Request Strategies as Produced by Yemeni EFL Learners
In situation six, (Speaker is asking his neighbor to drive him to city mart.), table 7 and figure 6 reveal that there is a greater tendency by Yemeni EFL Learners to use indirect strategies by means of query preparatory 81.6% in addressing their neighbors more than other direct strategies by means of want statements 11.2%, hedge performative 3.1%, mood derivable 2.6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies by means of strong hints .5%, conventionally indirect strategies by means of suggestory formulae .5% and direct strategies by means of obligation statements .5%.

Table 7: Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Request Strategies in situation six

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obligation statements</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestory formulae</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong hints</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood derivable</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedge performative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want statements</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query preparatory</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>196</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings as shown in Table 7 reveal that Yemeni EFL Learners prefer to use indirect strategies when the social distance and the ranking of imposition are very high and cost the hearer something. Yemeni EFL Learners tend to use indirect strategies in this situation in order to show a high degree of politeness and mitigate and minimize the impact of request on the hearer and to protect his/her face and the hearer’s face.
The findings of situations four and five reveal that Yemeni EFL learners prefer to employ conventionally indirect strategies by means of query preparatory because of that ranking of imposition is very high, so the respondents prefer to use indirect strategies/ negative politeness strategies to be more polite than usual. Therefore, the performance of the respondents in these situations gives support for the claim of Brown and Levinson (1987).

**Conclusion**

In this paper the researcher examined the notion of polite request strategies among Yemeni EFL learners. It was found that conventionally indirectness, mostly realized by means of ‘query preparatory’ and directness realized by means of ‘mood derivable’, ‘want statements’, ‘hedge performative’, ‘performative’, and ‘obligation statements’. Also non-conventionally indirectness was found in some situations with low frequency and percentage by means of ‘strong hints’ and ‘mild hints’.

The findings reveal that in situations one and two, there is a great trend by EFL learners to use to employ higher levels of directness with softeners such as ‘please’, ‘excuse me’, ‘I am sorry for bothering you’, if you don’t mind’ and ‘I wonder if’. Yemeni EFL learners employed high levels of directness without the fear of losing 'face'. This is not indicating the appropriateness of directness in 'close' social distance relationships, but probably the fact that it is the expected behavior in such situations. The use of direct strategy (imperative) by Yemeni EFL learners could be attributed to the closeness and the solidarity between the interlocutors. Al-Zumor (2003) states that imperatives with
softeners are more frequently used by Arab speakers when addressing their juniors as well as their equals provided that the situation is not difficult, when the action desired to be performed by the addressee is a light favor. In short, the preference for direct requests by Yemeni EFL learners seems to be an instance of solidarity or positive politeness between interlocutors.

The findings of situations three and four show that there is a preference by Yemeni EFL learners to use conventionally indirectness strategies with high frequency and percentage in situations when the speaker (requester) has lower power and distance than the hearer (requestee), and requester has higher power and distance than requestee the preference strategies are conventionally indirectness strategies.

In situations five and six, there is equal power and distance between interlocutors but the ranking of imposition is very high so Yemeni EFL Learners employed indirectness strategies more than direct in order to mitigate and minimize the impact of the request and face threatening act.

Finally, the current study proves that Yemeni EFL learners employ different polite request strategies (direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect) with softeners to mitigate and soften the impact of upcoming request. Also it proves that the social factors (social distance, social power and ranking of imposition) are very important and affect the choice of polite request strategies.

References


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**Discourse Completion Test (DCT)**

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

10 : 7 July 2010

Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, M.A., Ph.D. Candidate

Azimah Binti Sazalie, Ph.D.

Polite Request Strategies as Produced by Yemeni EFL Learners
Dear Respondent

You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire which contains situations in which you might find yourself. This discourse completion test (DCT) will help in analyzing polite request strategies as produced by Yemeni EFL learners which expected to yield fruitful results. Your responses will be dealt with in purely academic manner and will never be used for any other purposes than for this research. I would like appreciate it if you could complete this questionnaire as soon as possible. Thanking you for your help and co-operate.

First, please fill in the following form information about yourself
Age: …………………………………………………………………………………………………..
Male/Female: ………………………………………………………………………………………
Major: ……………………………………………………………………………………………
Level: ……………………………………………………………………………………………

Please read the following short description of situations in which you may find yourself. Think of what you might say in responses. Write your response in the space provided. Respond as if you were in an actual and real situation.

1. You have a delicious meal in a college’s restaurant and now it is time to ask the waiter to prepare your bill. What would you say?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

2. You want your younger brother to bring some vegetable from the near-by grocery. What would you say?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

3. You are university student and you want to request professor who teaches you teaching methods to lend you his book to do your assignment. What would you say?
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
4. You are an employee in a company. You want to request the manager of your company to let you leave work early because you have an appointment with a dentist. What would you say?

5. You have missed an important class and you want to borrow your friend’s note. What would you say?

6. You want your neighbor to drive you to city mart. You want to buy some fruit for your family. What would you say?

Thank You

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Manju Kapoor’s *Difficult Daughters*  
**A Saga of Feminist Autonomy and Separate Identity**  

Mayur Chhikara, Ph.D.

**Abstract**

Manju Kapur presents the yearning for autonomy and separate identity in her women protagonists in this post-modern novel in a traditional thread. The novelist has portrayed her protagonists as women caught in the conflict between the passions of the flesh and a yearning to be a part of the political and intellectual movements of the day. Thematically the novel supports a romantic story of Virmati and her intellectual yearnings. In the chain growth of the events, Virmati becomes the difficult daughter for her mother as well Ida for her.

**Stoic Women in Difficult Daughters**

Manju Kapur in *Difficult Daughters* presents the image of the suffering but stoic women eventually breaking traditional boundaries in the backdrop of traditional narrative thread. In post-colonial era, partition (traditional narrative thread) has ever been the most prolific and prominent area for creative writers. “A number of novels were written on the theme of the destruction it brought and the plight of the refugees. They faithfully record the reign of violence that characterized the period and provide a sad, telling commentary on the breakdown on human values”. (Dhawan 14)

**The Traditional Narrative Thread**

Using the traditional narrative thread, Manju Kapur has invigorated the English language to suit narration of what she felt about her women and their lives in post modern India in a
culture where individualism has often remained an alien idea and marital bless—the women's role at home is a central focus. Dora Sales Salvador (356), in her note to her Spanish translation of the novel, appropriately stresses: 'Kapur emphasises the efforts made at that time by numerous women who, while demanding equal opportunities, equal access to education and life-opportunities going beyond convention, were a visible force in the non-violent resistance to the British’.

Likewise Christopher Rollason (2004) comments that the search for control over one's destiny, surely the key theme of *Difficult Daughters*, refers to the Independence aspired to and obtained by a nation (despite its cruel division by a fateful Partition), but also to the independence yearned after (and finally not obtained) by a woman and member of that same nation (or of one of its rival communities).

**Manju’s Women Characters**

Manju Kapur, in her novels, presents women who try to establish their own identity. In *Difficult Daughters*, Virmati, in her quest for identity, who is also the central character of the novel, rebels against tradition. She is impelled by the inner need to feel loved as an individual rather than as a responsible daughter. Mrs. Kapur herself asserts that “conflict between mother and daughter is inevitable and I suppose I was a difficult daughter. The conflict carries on through generation because mothers want their daughters to be safe. We want them to make the right choices—'right' in the sense that they are socially acceptable. My mother wanted me to be happily married; I want my daughters to have good jobs.” (Bala and Chandra 107)

The very title of the novel 'Difficult Daughters' is an indication to the message that a woman, who tries in search of an identity, is branded as a difficult daughter by the family and the society as well.

**Women in Patriarchal Society**

Indian society is a patriarchal one. Women under the patriarchal pressure and control were subjected to much more brutal's and social ostracism. They were discriminated and were biased in lien of their sex. In patriarchal system, man is the legal head of the family or state coincided with the weakening of female–female bond and especially the dissolution of mother-daughter relationship (Irigaray 30). Irigaray further comments that such a system ensured that property and children belonged to the same genealogy. The same life women lived and struggled under the oppressive mechanism of a closed society is reflected in *Difficult Daughters*. The conflict for autonomy and separate identity remains an unfinished combat in *Difficult Daughters*.

**The Story**

*Difficult Daughters* is the story of a young woman, named Virmati born in Amritsar into an austere and highly reputed household. The story tells how she is torn between family duty, the desire for education and elicit-love. This is a story of sorrow, love and compromise.
The major portion deals with Virmati's love affairs with professor and rest part describes fighting struggle for freedom. The novel ends with the birth of Ida. This girl Ida grows and asks to her relatives more & more about her mother. Her relatives especially her Kailash Mama narrates the whole aspects of Virmati to Ida. Ida is the narrator of *Difficult Daughters*.

Narration is developed by co-existing past and present side by side. *Difficult Daughters* is not a pure third-person narrative. Rollason (2004) writes that Virmati's story is told mostly in the third person (with some recourse to the epistolary mode), but is framed by the first-person narration of a search. The search is that of Virmati's daughter, Ida, as she seeks to reconstitute her mother's history.

Ida, an educated woman, divorced and childless, apparently leads a freer life than her mother's in external terms; yet inside her she feels, even if not quite so acutely, some of the same anxieties as had plagued her mother: 'No matter how I might rationalize otherwise, I feel my existence as a single woman reverberate desolately' (3).

Virmati is the eldest daughter of Kasturi and Suraj Prakash. Kasturi has eleven children. One after another she gives birth to children and thus the whole burden of household work increases over Virmati, being the eldest daughter. Her grandfather is a reformer and renowned landowner who attaches much importance to education with women. The family setup is thoroughly conservative. Virmati’s family takes her to be eligible for marriage as she is skilled in stitching, cooking, reading and other household duties which a girl of her age must know before marriage in Indian tradition. At this stage, Virmati's parents decide to marry her to an engineer, Inderjeet, but due to the death of his father their marriage is postponed for two years.

**The New Education**

The new education and the life of Kasturi generate a new urge and emotion in Virmati to get herself free from the bondage of patriarchy that denies or deserts her freedom and choice. She falls in love with a professor, Harish Chardra, who is married, lives next door and finds an intellectual companion in him. When the time for her marriage with Inderjeet comes, she uses a hitch of suicide to avoid it and declares that she does not like the boy and wants to study further. So marriage is settled with Indumati, the second daughter. Virmati is committed to continue her study at Lahore. As decided by family elders, now Kasturi has to go with Virmati to Lahore for helping her to take admission in RBSL College and principal assures Kasturi that there will be no problem. Virmati becomes centre of focus because of her revolutionary zeal. She doesn’t yields to the age old traditions of Arya-Samaj family. Professor's course of meeting to Virmati has yet not stopped and during this period she becomes pregnant. Virmati thinks of her own love while the entire nation is busy in freedom movement. Mrs. Kapur writes:

“Strike, academic freedom, the war, peace, rural uplift-ment...Independence Day, Movement, rally, speeches..an outcaste among all women. She thought of harish who loved her. She must be satisfied with that.” (Kumar 104)
After feeling restless with his relationship with Harish, she aborts her child. After completing her B.T. she returns to Amritsar and is offered the headmistress ship of a school, she joins it. The happiest and most attractive period in Virmati's life is, beyond doubt, which she spends in Nahan, ‘clean and prosperous, was ruled by an enlightened royal couple' (182), the capital of Sirmaur, the small Himalayan state run by an enlightened maharaja which gives her refuge for a while as the headmistress of a girl's school.

**Female Autonomy**

Rollason (2004) comments, “In the micro-state to which her destiny leads her, she has no family or close friends. She attains a near-exemplary level of female autonomy. For the first and only time, she has her own place to live, Virginia Woolf's famous ‘room of one's own': and yet she falls”. But in Sultanpur too Harish visits her and there meetings are observed by Lalaji. She is dismissed so she decides to go to Nariniketan but on the way she meets Harish's close friend Poet who is already aware of their intimate relationship. She resolves that if professor doesn't accept her she will desert him for good but eventually he gives his consent. So Poet does not let her go and calls Harish. He performs all the rituals of marriage. Professor with Virmati returns home. During her conjugal life Virmati feels that it would have been better if she had not been married with Harish. Suman Bala and Subhash Chandra rightly analysis the man-woman relationship and argue:

“But her acceptance of the treatment meted out to her by her lover, the professor totally belies her expectations. The professor’s pursuit of Virmati even after she has been sent to Lahore....reluctance and constant postponing of the marriage in spite of her frequent entreaties....Male geocentricism blinds them to the situation of women.”
(Bala and Chandra 108)

It can be argued that Professor Harish Chandra enjoys the bliss of both the worlds: Ganga as a maid servant who fulfils his everyday needs, keeps his house tidy and Virmati who satisfies her academic urge. She succeeds to marry Harish but doesn’t secure any place for herself in the family. She is not even acknowledged for her intellectuality.

**Fight Against Mother Figure**

Apparently the novel doesn’t seem to profess or propagate feministic outlook but there is undercurrent of feministic autonomy and separate identity. After sometime she gives birth to a daughter Ida. And at the beginning of the novel this girl Ida ponders over her mother's life. Vandita Mishra comments in The Pioneer:

“Kapur never permits Virmati any assertion of power of freedom. Because even as she breaks free from old prisons, she is locked into newer ones. Her relationship with the professor, for instance. ....Even years of studying and working alone do not give her the confidence to strike independent roots and grow.... Eventually, marriage to marriage to the man of her choice in no triumph either...”

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Mayur Chhikara, Ph.D.
Manju Kapoor’s *Difficult Daughters* - A Saga of Feminist Autonomy and Separate Identity
Virmati has to fight against the power of the mother as well as the oppressive forces of patriarchy symbolized by the mother figure. The rebel in Virmati might have actually exchanged one kind of slavery for another. But towards the end she becomes free, free even from the oppressive love of her husband. Virmati is even not allowed to attend the funeral of her father. In this traumatic situation, Virmati plans to pursue M.A. When she returns she comes to know that all members of her family have gone to Kanpur because of communal tension. Meanwhile Virmati gives birth to her daughter Ida, the narrator.

**Struggle to Assert Separate Identity**

Virmati never corresponds to the age old tradition but makes Ida to fit in the channel of the family. In her futile attempt she tries to keep her under control. But Ida emerges a woman of no passion. Virmati was a difficult daughter for her mother and Ida is for her. Sumita Pal rightly focuses on the autobiographical nature of the novel:

“Like Virmati, Maju Kapur was born in Amritsar and teaches in college. Her family was victim of partition and was Arya-Smajis like Virmati’s family....Manju Kapoor admits that she herself has been a difficult daughter for her mother whose priority was marriage and she, in turn wants her daughters to have good jobs.” (Pal 137)

Well it is a troublesome task to estimate the relationship between the professor and Virmati. But one can clearly see that whenever Virmati tries to assert her autonomy and separate identity, she is repulsed and ordered to be part of the contemporary society, its culture and rituals by psychotherapy of the professor. Virmati’s academic temperament and achievements also do not help her to assert her separate identity in front of the intellectual height of the professor.

**Feminism – Unfruitful Attempt**

This shows that feminism is the consequence of the culture or society shaped and governed by men to suit their needs and interests regardless of the women’s basic needs and happiness (Kumar 108). The aspiration of Virmati is condemned to failure, thanks to the incomprehension she receives from both her own family and that of the man she marries - but also thanks to her own mistakes, for no-one obliged her to marry who became her husband, and she was free not to make the choice she did. Gur Pyari Jandial (2003), correctly points about the unfruitful attempt of Virmati: 'what is necessary is to break the patriarchal mould, and for Virmati to have tried to do that in the forties was a great achievement'. Dora Sales in an essay on the novel in English comments: 'In Difficult Daughters we do not listen to Virmati's voice. She could not speak out, being certainly situated at the juncture of two oppressions: colonialism and patriarchy. What we have is her daughter's reconstruction and representation'.

**Tradition and Modernity – An Unfinished Combat for Feminist Identity**

The novel is straightforward, startling and evocative of Virmati’s pains and torn personality. Manju Kapur's female protagonists are mostly educated, aspiring individual caged within the
confines of a conservative society. Their education leads them to independent thinking for which their family and society become intolerant of them. They struggle between tradition and modernity. It is their individual struggle with family and society through which they plunged into a dedicated effort to carve an identity for themselves as qualified women with faultless backgrounds.

The novelist has portrayed her protagonists as a woman caught in the conflict between the passions of the flesh and a yearning to be a part of the political and intellectual movements of the day. The women of India have indeed achieved their success in half a century of Independence, but if there is to be a true female, independence, much remains to be done.

The fight for autonomy and separate identity remains an unfinished combat and a million dollar question. Throughout this novel Ida’s declaration echoes that she doesn’t want to be like her mother and wants to assert her autonomy and separate identity. Ida wants liberty and doesn’t want to compromise as did her mother. This idea of the novel can be summed up in the utterance of angry Ida:

“This book weaves a connection between my mother and me, each word-brick in a mansion I made with my head and my heart. Now live in it, Mama and leave me be. Do not haunt me anymore.” (Kumar 108)

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Abstract

The subcontinent was turned into a diabolical region in August 1947 when the British announced the division of the subcontinent into India and Pakistan. Wickedness, violence, and pure evil erupted into powerful mass that soared out of control and consumed everyone that came in its path. Khushwant Singh’s *Train to Pakistan* and Bapsi Sidhwa’s *Ice Candy Man* describe the monstrosity of the events with such artistry that the tragedy comes alive.

The two novels were published with the gap of three decades. Still they share a lot of details while retaining their individuality as well. Instead of depicting the events in political terms, the novelists have provided human dimensions which bring to the event a sense of reality, horror and believability.

Bapsi Sidhwa narrates the story of upheaval of the 1947 partition of India through the eyes of a young Parsee girl Lenny growing up in Lahore. The character of Ayah is introduced to refer to several millions of displaced, looted and raped Hindus and Muslims during one of the harshest political phases in the history of the subcontinent.

While on the other hand, *Train to Pakistan* not only records man’s bestiality, but it also proves that man is essentially humane and sincere. Even society’s marginalized characters like Juggat Singh can be a ray of hope and life for the depressed and distressed souls.

Key Words:

Partition fiction, communal violence, trauma, abduction, intolerance
Introduction

August 1947 marks the end of the British Raj in the Subcontinent. The departure of the British from the subcontinent led to the creation of two independent states, Pakistan and India. The division was based on two ‘nation theory’ with the argument that the Hindus and the Muslims cannot live together as one nation since both have distinct social, cultural and religious identities. The Muslim majority regions of Punjab and Bengal were divided, with west Punjab and east Bengal forming West and East Pakistan, and India in the middle of the two (Hassan: 1993). This resulted in massive and violent migration of the people across the divide. Muslims moved into Pakistan, and Sikhs and Hindus moved into India with the prospects of peaceful and better living, with their own religious as well as ethnic identities.

Ironically, this mass scale migration entailed crimes of unprecedented violence, murders, rapes and bestiality. It is very difficult to give an exact account of the people who became the victims of the partition trauma but its “impact can be compared to that of great war on Britain or the second world war on Japan and France” (Roy: 2009). Describing the monstrosity of the situation, Urvashi Butalia (1998) says that the partition left one million dead, 75000 women abducted and raped, and turning twelve million displaced into refugees status.

Unfortunately, the split between Pakistan and India served to heighten each other’s hostilities instead of bringing peace in the region. Civil tension continued mounting for months: thousands of families were split apart, homes burnt down and villages abandoned. Some women were so embarrassed of the sexual humiliation that they refused to return home and opted for suicide. The destruction of families through murder, suicide, and kidnapping caused grievous partition trauma.

The Partition Literature

The tragedy of the partition encounter has given rise to fictional explorations with an attempt to define the inner turmoil and social complexes that plagued the subcontinent. The vast volume of partition fiction in English, Urdu, Hindi, Bengali and other languages of the Subcontinent faithfully records the gruesome human disaster in the wake of partition. The incredible suffering and bewilderment of the people of the subcontinent has been a favourite theme with the Indian and Pakistani writers.

Khushwant Singh’s Train to Pakistan (1956), Atia Hussain’s Sunlight on a Broken Column (1961), Rahi Masoom Raza’s Adha Gaon (1966), Bhashma Sahni’s Tamas (1973), Amitav Ghosh’s Shadow Lines (1988), Bapsi Sidhwa’s Ice Candy Man (1991), short stories by Saadat Hassan Manto and the poems of Faiz Ahmed Faiz are some such examples that attempt to give us an insight into the public frenzy, communal hatred, extreme disintegration and large scale sectarian violence.

The Focus of This Paper

The objective of this paper is to compare the two partition narratives: Train to Pakistan by Khushwant Singh and Ice Candy Man (also published as Cracking India) by Bapsi Sidhwa.
Both the novels have received worldwide recognition and admiration for documenting faithful representation of mutual hatred, mistrust and enormous upheavals culminating in the result of partition.

The two novelists witnessed the partition turmoil themselves as Khushwant Singh was thirty at the time of partition and Bapsi Sidhwa was only eight years old in 1947. Khushwant Singh is a renowned Indian writer whereas Bapsi Sidhwa originates from Pakistan. Although they


From [http://www.bapsisidhwa.com/home.htm](http://www.bapsisidhwa.com/home.htm)
share the same theme of partition and post-partition turbulence in their novels, they upheld their own unique mirrors to reflect upon the physical tortures and psychological outbursts that became the order of the day when the division of the subcontinent into Pakistan and India was announced. Both the novels paint a vivid picture of the separation between the Muslims, Sikhs and Hindus in the summer of 1947. “The theme of exile, of belonging and non-belonging is a common link between writers from post-colonial cultures” (Bassnett: 1998).

This paper endeavours to explore the points of similarity and departure between these two classics of the post-colonial literature. In the two novels, i.e., Ice Candy Man and Train to Pakistan, all the events are based on facts but rendered into fiction with skilful artistry.

**Plot Construction in Train to Pakistan**

*Train to Pakistan* pictures a moving account of the tragedy of Partition, in the small Indian frontier village of Mano Majra. Mano Majra is a small village on the banks of river Sutlej. Predominantly a Sikh village, it houses both Sikhs and Muslims who have lived there for generations like brothers. The Sikhs are the landowners, the Muslims their tenants and the district magistrate is a Hindu, namely, Hukam Chand. It is a model of calm country life and inter-racial harmony. Into this peaceful setting, arrives a band of dacoits who rob and kill the local money lender - Lala Ram Lal (a Hindu). The police arrest the usual suspect - a local budmash (gangster) - Juggat Singh.

At the time of the incident, Juggat Singh was making love with his Muslim beloved in the fields. He is considered to be the strong suspect because of his former associations with the bandits, outlaws and the dacoits. Later, the girl also conceives his child. Arriving the day after the killing, the mysterious European-educated young man with the ambiguous name of Iqbal heads to the gurdwara (Sikh temple) to ask for a place to stay. He is also arrested in connection with the murder.

The simple lives of the inhabitants of Mano Majra are regulated by the trains which rattle across the nearby railway bridge. Partition and Independence do not really mean much to any of them until a strange incident happens. Hell breaks loose one day when a train from Lahore silently comes over the bridge at an unusual time and is found to be full of dead Sikhs. But the people swear it will not happen to them, they will not see harm come to their friends and neighbours. Soon, the people of Mano Majra are influenced by outsiders and corrupted to turn on their old friends.

A few days after the corpses have been burnt in Mano Majra, another such train follows. It is then when Mano Majra changes. It is then when the village becomes a battlefield of conflicting loyalties and with new refugees and mobs entering the village. Mano Majra is suddenly thrown into the harsh reality of mass exodus. What had previous been a rumour is now suddenly a reality. Plots are hatched, tales are spread of the death and destruction in other towns and villages, frenzy is whipped up very quickly. But, of course, the train to Pakistan is involved. Friends become foes and long lasting traditions of brotherhood and peaceful coexistence quickly vanish.

Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

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Umar ud Din, M. Kamal Khan and Shahzad Mahmood
Reflections on Partition Literature - A Comparative Analysis of *Ice Candy Man* and *Train to Pakistan*
The Sikhs are ready to kill the Muslim neighbours. The Muslims decide to move to the refugee camps for survival. The Hindus and the Sikhs decide to take revenge upon the Muslims by killing all the passengers on board a train carrying the Muslim refugees fleeing India and heading to Lahore.

Aboard is also the beloved of Juggat Singh. He comes to know of the heinous conspiracy and decides to rescue the passengers. He does so but at the cost of his own life. Thus the passengers of the train escape a massive blow and reach the destination without any serious harm to them. Juggat Singh becomes a ray of hope and peace for all despite being an outlaw throughout his life.

**Ice Candy Man**

In *Ice Candy Man*, Bapsi Sidhwa describes the communal violence and the turmoil during the partition through the eyes of Lenny - an eight year old young Parsi girl from Lahore. Lenny’s comprehension of the horror and pity hovering over the city of Lahore is told through the story of what happens to her beloved Hindu Ayah- Shanta. Lenny is lame and helpless. Ayah looks after her as her sister and takes care of all her needs. She takes her outside in the pram on Waris road and Jail road frequently. Ayah’s sexuality attracts men of varying occupations and religions. Of these suitors, Masseur and Dilnawaz (the Ice Candy Man) have strong rivalry against each other to win the favors of Ayah.

Lenny is eye witness to the amorous advances of Ayah towards her suitors. She is also becoming conscious about the changing environment around her. The rumours of the division of India are in the air. Political gatherings are very common raising slogans against the British Raj while demanding an independent homeland for the Muslims.

One day the riots breakout in Lahore in a locality far away from Lenny’s house. This leads to the killing of innocent people on both sides. The news of bloodshed spreads like wild fire. Soon the entire Punjab province is seen burning in the fire of hatred and communal violence.

In the meanwhile, Ice Candy Man, out of sheer hatred and jealousy, manages to kill Masseur and paves his way to get Ayah. One day he waits for his sisters on Lahore railway station. When the train arrives from Gurdaspur, everyone on the platform is shocked to see the ghastly sight. The train is loaded with mutilated bodies of Muslim passengers. There is no woman on board but sacks full of the beasts.

This ugly sight turns friendly Dilnwaz into a person possessed with frenzy and a desire to kill all the Hindus. He loves Ayah from the core of his heart but this train scene makes him forget all his loyalties and devotion for Ayah. He abducts Ayah and takes her to the Hira Mandi of Lahore. Ayah is forced to offer her body to appease the sensual desires of the visitors and Ice Candy Man plays the pimp. She is just Hindu for Ice Candy Man. After a few months, Ayah is forced to embrace Islam and Ice Candy Man marries her as he is in true love with her. Only the urge for vengeance transforms him into beast and the killer.

Later with the help of Lenny’s relatives, Ayah is rescued from the prostitution house and she reaches the relief camp at Amritsar. Ice Candy Man also follows her across the Wahga border.
into India. Lenny’s delicate mind is shocked to see all this happening before her very eyes and she is unable to shun all these abominable realities.

A Contrastive Study

A careful study of the narratives of the two novels unfolds the fact that the horror and trauma in the subcontinent was unleashed only when the people on both sides of the divide happen to receive trains full of mutilated corpses. It is the train that is the sole cause of uncontrolled violence and bloody massacre.

Communal Violence

All the novels that are written in the backdrop of partition give a vivid account of the communal violence that erupted in the subcontinent when the British announced its division into Pakistan and India. The most affected area was the Punjab province since it was one of the two provinces that were divided into two halves. This led to huge migration from one city to another to seek a peaceful land for their survival while giving rise to unprecedented violence and crime scenes.

Lenny in Ice Candy Man says that she was “born with the awareness of war” (p.31). Besides the rivalry between Masseur and Ice Candy Man for Ayah's favours, there is a far larger conflict between India and Pakistan regarding who should live where.

Once it was decided to divide Punjab between India and Pakistan, rioting starts. Things just fell apart, and Muslims and Sikhs and their Hindu supporters became vengeful towards one another. Friends became foes. They killed and looted indiscriminately. Both sides were in the vice-like grip of frenzy beyond control. Passages describing bloodshed and murder highlight the brute in human beings. After Master Tara Singh's rousing address against the division of Punjab, the mob turns "maniac." Even the police were targeted. And then there is towering inferno in Lahore. Lenny observes:

The Sikhs milling in a huge blob in front wildly wave and clash their swords, kirpans and hockey- sticks and punctuate their shrieks with roars: Pakistan murdabad death to Pakistan! -- And the Muslims shouting: " So? We'll play Holi-with-their-blood -." (p.134)

The terror the mob generates is palpable -- like an evil, paralysing spell. The terrible procession, like a sluggish river, flows beneath us. Every short while a group of men, like a whirling eddy, stalls -- and like the widening circles of a treacherous eddy dissolving in the main stream, leaves in its centre the pulpy and red flotsam of a mangled body. (p 135)

The whole world is burning. The air on my face is so hot. I think my flesh and clothes will catch fire. I start screaming: hysterically sobbing -- how long does Lahore burn? Weeks? Months? (p139)
Ice Candy Man reports to his friends that a train from Gurdaspur has arrived in Lahore filled with murdered Muslims. He shouts, “Every one is dead. Butchered. They are all Muslims. There are no young women among the dead. Only two gunny bags full of women’s breasts” (p159). This act of violence against Muslim women spurs him to inflict violence on Hindu and Sikh women. He exclaims, “I want to kill someone for each of the breasts they cut off the Muslim women” (p166). He satiates his appetite for revenge by kidnapping Ayah and forcing her to prostitute her body.

The pictures of this mass scale destruction and disaster can also be traced in Train to Pakistan as well. In the opening lines of the novel, Khushwant Singh says: “The fact is both sides killed. Both shot and stabbed and speared and clubbed. Both tortured. Both raped.” The peaceful and serene atmosphere of Mano Majra starts to crumble when a group of dacoits kill Ram Lal – the money lender. The situation is worsened when two ghost trains arrive from Pakistan, full of murdered Sikhs and Hindus. All of them have been gruesomely hacked to pieces. The severity of the situation can be judged from the fact that the fuel stock for pyre to burn the corpses was totally used and bodies could not be given cremation. A large number of dead bodies was buried in a big pit dug near the station.

Mother Nature also plays havoc in this hour of trial and trauma. During the monsoons, as the turbid floodwaters of the Sutlej River that borders the town begin to rise unchecked, the gory remains of Muslims killed in retaliation float by, joined by the carcasses of their still-yoked cattle and horses. Flocks of vultures hover ubiquitously overhead, ready to devour the dead.

Sikh villagers describe the panic in the following words:

An old peasant with a gray beard lay flat on the water. A child's head butted into the old man's armpit. There was a hole in its back. There were many others coming down the river like logs hewn on the mountains. (...) Some were without limbs, some had their bellies torn open, many women’s breasts were slashed. They floated in the sunlit river, bobbing up and down. (p. 176)

Note that Train to Pakistan mentions the mutilated breasts of the bodies arriving from the Pakistani side, even as Ice Candy Man also uses the same reference. Apart from the mention of mutilated breasts on both the sides, the way Ice Candy Man expresses his determination and convincing his friends to take revenge upon the Sikhs and the Hindus, the Sikh leader in Mano Majra is also shown doing the same and invoking the Sikhs:

“I’ll tell you what to do.” He paused, looked around and started again. He spoke slowly, emphasising each sentence by stabbing the air with his forefinger, “for each Hindu and Sikh they kill, kill two Mussulmans. For each woman they abduct or rape, abduct two…For each trainload of dead, send across two… That will stop the killing on the other side. It will teach them that we can also play this game of killing and looting. (p. 162)

It is after these instigations, the Sikhs conspire to derail a train heading to Pakistan and tasking revenge upon the Muslims.
Thus, we see that both the novels give us a good account of what followed in the wake of post-partition trauma.

Victimization of Women

The partition narratives are testimony to the fact that the women of Sikhs, Hindus and Muslims were among “the greatest victims of religious and cultural persecution” (Pennebaker: 2000). On both sides of the newly created border, women were kidnapped, abducted, raped and brutally killed. Defilement of a woman’s body was considered to be the greatest dishonor that a family had to endure. And the violence inflicted upon women was equivalent to a sacrilege against one’s religion, country, and family. Recalling the chilling shrieks and moans of recovered women at the time, Bapsi Sidhwa asks herself, “Why do they cry like that? Because they are delivering unwanted babies, I’m told or reliving hideous memories. Thousands of women were kidnapped” (Sidhwa: 1997). It has become the norm of the victors that they tend to celebrate their triumphs on the bodies of women while crossing all the limits of humanism.

The most abhorring scene in the novel *Ice candy Man* is the abduction of Ayah. Muslim mobs show up at Lenny’s house in search of the Hindu Ayah (p.190). Ayah is kidnapped by Ice Candy Man and the mob. She is forced to prostitute her body and coerced into having sex with Ice Candy Man. Ice Candy Man successfully strips Ayah of her identity as a woman and as a Hindu. Whatever love he has for Ayah is smothered by his complete subjugation of her. He keeps her in the *kotha* (brothel) even after marrying her. Although Ayah escapes her abductor, but even with her family in Amritsar, she will be marked by her defilement during partition. Thus, she will suffer the psychological and emotional outbursts forever. This is true of Hamida - the new ayah of Lenny. She depicts a woman who has been besmirched and subsequently discarded by her family. Godmother tells Lenny about Hamida that she was kidnapped by the Sikhs. People “can’t stand their women being touched by other men (p. 227). Lenny is tormented by the wailing of a recovered woman at the refugee camp near her house.

In *Train to Pakistan*, Khushwant Singh gives a similar account of atrocities being inflicted upon women of other religions. He tells the tale of a young girl - Sundari. She was going to Gujranwala with her husband on the fourth day of her marriage. Her arms still covered with red lacquer bangles and her palms bright with henna (mehndi), she is happily day-dreaming on her way to her new home when the bus on which they are riding is attacked by Muslims. Her husband is stripped naked and dismembered before her eyes; she is gang-raped.

The mob made love to her. She did not have to take off any one of her bangles. They were all smashed as she lay in the road, being taken by one man and another and another. That should have brought her a lot of good luck. (p. 147)

Apart from such horrible accounts, we learn from both these novels that the ghost trains carrying the dead bodies also carry sacks of women’s breasts. The amputation of breasts of women is one of the most gruesome injuries faced by the women. Many women died trying to avoid sexual violation, preserve their chastity, and protect their religious and family
honour. Some women set themselves ablaze and sometimes all the women in family committed mass suicide.

**Romance**

The two novelists appear to be similar in introducing the element of romance to the historical subject. Both of them want to give a coloring of imagination to the realistic depiction of the history of partition. Both the novelists develop the love story between the individuals of diverse religious and ethnic identities. Ice Candy Man and Ayah is a good example of such representation where Ice Candy Man is a Muslim suitor of the Hindu Ayah.

The narrative of *Train to Pakistan* is woven around the love affair of the Sikh gangster Juggat Singh and his beloved Nooran – the daughter of the village priest. Both these love affairs vary considerably. Whereas Ice Candy Man is responsible for deserting, kidnapping and defiling his beloved Ayah, Juggat Singh averts mass destruction being inflicted upon the Muslim passengers aboard the train to Pakistan just because his beloved is also amongst the passengers fleeing to Pakistan. Juggat Singh does not care for his own life and sacrifice it to save humanity at large.

Commenting upon this heroic role played by Juggat Singh, Sisir Das (1995) says:

> The revenge plan of the Hindus to blow up the train is aborted by the notorious gangster Jugga, whose beloved Nooran, the daughter of a Muslim weaver, also was aboard the train. Love triumphs over hatred: it is the love of an individual for another individual that saves the train. The train went over him and went to Pakistan. (p 374)

In contrast to the Ice Candy Man and Ayah’s love affair, there are numerous accounts of other love affiliations in *Ice Candy Man*. Love exists in its many forms and faces throughout the book. There is the cruel, pitiless face of love, and the warmth of the love between Godmother and the child, Lenny, the caring and nurturing love between Ayah and Lenny, and between the mother and Lenny. Even Slave sister and Godmother, in spite of their constant bickering, have a strong bond. Love takes an awful shape when Ice Candy Man allows Ayah to be kidnapped by the mob. There are different forms of love in the novel - love of religion, love of land, love of power. With regard to Ice Candy Man, his love constantly changes its shape and role. He himself changes frequently. He is a slippery character. Ice Candy Man shows that side of love which is obsessive. A lot of cruelty is perpetuated in the name of love and crimes of passion are exonerated because it was done for love. The love between Godmother and the child - an unconditional love - is the purest love presented in the novel. Thus, love is a great force in public affairs as it can either inflict or avert the miseries to be faced by the people.

**Children and the Psychological Trauma of Partition**

During the tragic history of partition, vicious acts were not confined only to the adults. Even children were also exposed to same violent and angry world. They too could not escape the harsh realities. Those children who were lucky enough to survive the partition were haunted
by the horrible memories so much so that they were physically and psychologically handicapped forever.

Bapsi Sidhwa has focused on this aspect of tragedy as well through the characters of Lenny and Ranna. In one of the incidents, Lenny witnesses a Sikh mob attacking the streets, burning buildings, and fighting with Muslims. Lenny’s eyes focus on a man tied to several vehicles and then viciously torn apart:

[Her] eyes focus on an emaciated Banya wearing a white Gandhi cap. The man is knocked down. His lips are drawn away from rotting, paan-stained teeth in a scream. The men move back and in the small clearing, his legs sticking out of his dhoti right up to the groin - each thin, brown leg tied to the jeep. (p 145)

At first, Lenny is upset and terrified; however, when she returns home she is curious and is eager to know the meaning of what she has seen. Lenny “selects a large lifelike doll” and begins to fiercely tear it apart until “the cloth skin is ripped right up to the armpits spilling chunks of greyish cotton and coiled brown coir” (p148). By doing this, Lenny is “inflicting her psychic pain on a physical body, and is then able to return to a sense of everyday life normality and survive in the traumatic experiences she is exposed to. Lenny’s physical re-enactments prove her total confusion with the world around her. The innocence of her child mentality holds her back from reaching a true understanding of the events she is witnessing.

The abduction of Ayah reflects Lenny’s childhood innocence falling a prey to the wicked world around her. She blames herself as responsible for the kidnapping of Ayah. Thus she suffers most intensely throughout the course of the novel.

Ranna’s encounters in the village of Pir Pindo entail substantial physical and psychological damage. Ranna, being such a small boy, is innocent to the capabilities of men and is thrown into a world where he is a stranger to violence and brutality. Ranna suffers a great deal of pain at the hands of others; he has a massive gash in his head, spear punctures in his legs, and extensive body damage from his flight to safety (p 213). It would be difficult for any child to fathom a reason for why this is being done to him or her; however, Ranna accepts his wounds and easily adapts to a will to survive. While Ranna’s physical wounds will heal, the scars left behind will forever remind him of the treacherous day when his family was stolen from him. Every atrocity that he witnesses is imprinted on his mind forever.

Ranna recalls his father’s death:

There was a sunlit sweep of curved steel. His head was shorn clear off his neck. Turning once in the air, eyes wide open, it tumbled in the dust. His hands jerked up slashing the bleeding stump of his neck. (p 213)

Ranna’s ability to re-enact such a gory scene proves just how cemented the events are in his mind. Ranna remembers every detail of his father’s head, his bodily actions, and his blood- a sight that he will retain forever.
Bapsi Sidhwa presents a detailed account of the psychological and physical tortures that the innocent souls suffer at the hands of the cruel world around them. However, Khushwant Singh does not touch upon this aspect of the partition devastations. He only upholds an adult’s mirror to reflect upon the complexities of the partition.

**Goodness of Human Character**

Partition fiction in English and in English translation, on the one hand, records man’s bestiality and savagery and, on the other, the vast volume of it underlines that man is essentially sincere, committed to upholding humanity to survive and sustain itself. In partition fiction, some characters, indeed, stand for universal goodness. Iqbal, Juggat Singh, Lenny’s family members, and Imam Din are some such gems that sparkle even in the darkest clouds of violence, hatred and communal riots.

Juggat Singh and Iqbal in *Train to Pakistan* are socially marginalized individuals but they represent the sunny side of life. Iqbal is against the exploitation of the poor by the rich. He is against the partition of India. He believes that no good to the people of India and Pakistan will come out of this partition, violence and the transfer of population. He is the man who requests repeatedly Meet Singh, the priest in the Gurudwara at Mano Majra, to stop the violence and killings. He comes to know that near the bridge at Mano Majra, the Sikhs and the Hindus are planning to attack the train that will carry Muslims of Chundun Nager and Mano Majra to Pakistan. This plan of mass-destruction will take place under the aegis of the militant boy leader. Iqbal passionately requests Meet Singh:

> You cannot let this sort of things happen! Can’t you tell them that the people on the train are the very same people they were addressing as uncles, aunts, brothers and sisters? (pp. 159-60)

His vision of life registers the ultimate triumph of man’s human values over the menacing lunacy overtaking the country during time of the Indian partition in 1947.

Juggat Singh, a social marginal at Mano Majra, who lives at the outskirt of the village, is a diehard daredevil. He is involved in several train robberies, car hold-ups, dacoities and murders. The police arrest him for being suspect in killing Ram Lal - the Hindu money lender. He is put behind the bars. When the communal tension reaches the point of outburst at Mono Majra, i.e., when the Sikh and Hindu fundamentalist forces plan to attack the train near the bridge carrying the Muslim migrants to Pakistan, the local police inspector on the instruction of Hukum Chand, releases Juggat Singh from the police custody. Juggat Singh after his release comes to know the blueprint of the train attack by the boy leader. He also comes to know that Muslims along with Imam Baksh and his daughter Nooran will be travelling to Pakistan by that train. The social marginal, Juggat Singh, rises to the occasion and decides that he should save those Muslims travelling by that train. Khushwant Singh introduces the love story between Juggat Singh and Nooran in *Train to Pakistan* to show that the religious difference between Juggat Singh, and Nooran, a Muslim, does not stop Juggat even from the sacrifice of his own life to save the life of Nooran. Khushwant Singh concludes his novel thus:
The engine was only a few yards off, throwing embers high up in the sky with each blast of the whistle. Somebody fired another shot. The man’s body slid off the rope, but he clung to it with his hands and chin. … The rope had been cut in shreds…. The engine was almost on him. There was a volley of shots. The man shivered and collapsed. The rope snapped in the centre as he fell. The train went over him, and went on to Pakistan. (p. 172)

By the time the indescribable height of communal violence reaches Lahore in *Ice Candy Man*, the Parsee family decides to be neutral, i.e., they will not take any sides with either the Muslim League or the Indian National Congress. The members of the Parsee family, particularly Lenny’s mother and grandmother, are very much concerned about the plight of the minority people. It is Godmother who manages to recover Ayah from her abductor and arranges for her to move her to the refugee camp at Amritsar. Not only that, they get the services of Hamida to replace Ayah as the nanny of Lenny. Hamida too is the victim of savagery and is discarded by her family. But the humane attitude of the Parsee family offers her an opportunity to forget all her past trauma and relive as an active member of the society. In short, it is these characters who, amidst the mind searing brutality, are interspersed with delicate visions of immense compassion and humanity. These are ready to serve the cause of humanity at large irrespective of their religious, ethnic or political identities.

**Film Productions**

The narrative accounts of the partition trauma provided the film producers enough scope to recapture the harsh memories of the division of the subcontinent. Many of the film writers draw their inspiration from the literary sources. ‘Earth 1947’ (1999) and ‘Train to Pakistan’ (1998) are the visual representations of the *Ice Candy Man* and *Train to Pakistan* respectively. Both the films succeeded in winning admiration from the experts and the viewers. *Train to Pakistan* was directed by Pamela Rooks and the movie was nominated in Cinequest San Jose Film Festival 1999 in the best feature film category. ‘Earth 1947’ was directed by Deepa Mehta and leading role of Ice Candy Man was played by Aamir Khan. It is also a must watch movie to have closer look at how the earth is divided and the innocence is destructed.

**Conclusion**

It is appropriate to say that Bapsi Sidhwa and Khushwant Singh have successfully created a discourse to bring the turbulent past to the forefront of society. The novels encompass the issues of independence and partition, using it as a means to explore other issues which then emerge as the larger picture of the devastation, bloody birth of nations and continued problems. The novelists have astutely reproduced the racial, religious, socio-economic and political biases which led to the historic bloodshed, plundering, defiling and disintegration of the society.

Both the writers belong to different generations. They agree on the point that if the educated people have taken a right step at right time, then there would not have been such a massive bloodshed in the subcontinent. The novels are autobiographical in nature. *Ice Candy Man* truly reflects how the child narrator (Lenny) perceives the world around her and is haunted by
the psychological outbursts of the brutality of the events. *Train to Pakistan* gives an adult’s faithful account of the treacherous world and its complexities that surround the characters.

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**References**


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Abstract

The role of mother tongue in teaching and learning of English has been discussed in literature. The influence of mother tongue is proved both positive and negative in teaching and learning of English. A learner’s L1 is an important determinant of Second Language Acquisition. The L1 is a resource which learners use both consciously and subconsciously to help them arrange and re-arrange the L2 data in the input and to perform as best as they can. When and how L1 is put to use depends on Linguistic, Psychological and Sociolinguistics factors. Perhaps the influence of L1 is most evident in L2 phonology. Second language acquisition is a developmental process; L1 can be a contributing factor to it.

The cultural features connected with L1 use can be put to good effect when teaching L2. While attempting a writing task in any examination in which a sample writing task may be like writing an article for an international student magazine describing ‘a festival or celebration in your country,’ or similar topics that refer to their own cultural backgrounds, learners quite often resort to the knowledge of L1 to overcome their difficulty with English equivalents (e.g. Eid ul Fitr, Holi, etc.). This can be used as an opportunity to exploit L1 for L2 practice.

Introduction

Language in India www.languageinindia.com
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Ravi Bhushan, Ph.D.
Mother Tongue! The Neglected Resource for English Language Teaching And Learning
This paper makes an attempt to understand the role of L1 in the teaching and learning of English in the background of various socio-cultural factors.

The use of mother tongue, while teaching and learning English, has been an issue of debate. Most teachers feel that the use of L1 should be minimized, and they feel guilty if they use it a lot. When challenged they find it difficult to say why. Against the use of L1 is the general assumption that English should be learned through English, just as you learn your mother tongue using your mother tongue. But the idea that the learner should learn English like a native speaker does, or tries to ‘think in English’, is an inappropriate and unachievable aim.

**A Reasonable Goal**

English is a world ‘lingua franca’, and what we should be aiming for today is to make our learners into speakers of their own language who are also fully competent speakers of English. And a dangerous side-effect of banishing L1 from the English classroom is the implication that somehow the learners’ mother tongue is inferior, or ‘doesn’t count’, thus discriminating against the learners’ linguistic identity.

The only really valid argument, in my opinion, in favor of minimizing (not banishing) L1 use is that over-use of L1 lessens the time available for English use in the classroom. Obviously, we want our students to have maximum exposure to English in our classes. But this means limiting L1 use, not banishing it altogether.

Insisting on keeping English only as the medium to learn English, even when students don’t understand what is being said, may lead to discouragement and frustration of the learners. We shall use English as long as the students understand it well enough to get the message, and insist on their using it as long as they can get their message across. Otherwise, allow L1 use.

**Some Purposes of L1 in Learning L2**

Some purposes of L1 use might be: for explaining difficult grammar, for giving instructions which might not be understood in English, for checking comprehension, and for saving time which can then be used for communicative work in English etc. Now, the question is how to decide when to use English and when to use L1? It’s essentially a question of professional judgment.

Many times during a lesson, we need to ask ourselves: should I insist on English here, or should I use mother tongue? It’s necessarily a split-second decision. The answer will depend essentially on how easy or difficult the message will be to convey and understand in English. The solution of saying things in English and then translating into L1,
incidentally, is not a solution at all. Students learn very quickly that they don’t need to listen to the English as the mother-tongue version is coming up, and this strategy simply gets them used to ignoring the English. This is not to say there is no place for translation: I think there is.

There is no rule that you should never use L1 in English classes; nor, on the other hand, is there any excuse for using L1 most of the time. Like many other teaching strategies, the use of L1 involves rapid decision-making: is it worth switching to L1 at this point? Or would it be better to stay with English? Can mother-tongue(s) be used in a multi-lingual classroom? When, if ever, can translation be useful in the English classroom? What is the place of L1 in explaining vocabulary? Is it useful to compare/contrast L1 and English? Can L1 help error-correction? Can/should L1 be used in classroom management?

An Undesirable Effect of Banishing L1 from L2 Classroom

A dangerous side-effect of banishing L1 from the English classroom is the implication that somehow the learners' mother tongue is inferior or doesn't count. This needn't necessarily be the case if the teacher makes learners aware that the reason for not using L1 is to give them greater exposure to the target language and thus help them improve, and that it is not done to denigrate their own language. After all, unless learners take courses in a target language community outside their home countries, they will be surrounded by their mother tongue anyway: the language classroom can thus be their opportunity to escape from the mother tongue influences that may be an inhibition to learning.

Secondly, the whole issue of using L1 in the classroom, in fact applies to only those teachers who are proficient in the learners' mother tongue. Explaining grammar, for example, is often a complex linguistic operation which some teachers who do not share the learners' mother tongue may not feel competent to do accurately. I think, essentially, we have to examine or re-examine the reasons for not using L1 in the classroom and decide whether they remain valid or not.

Mother Tongue Only Movement

I think it’s worth examining the recent history of the ‘mother tongue only movement’. When the prevalent belief was that "native speaker teacher is the best", this view of only using mother tongue supported the fact that more often than not the teacher didn't speak the language of the students they were teaching, therefore they had no choice but to use English only. From that grew a theory that has only recently been discredited to an extent and a more flexible view of "it depends on the context" has come along to replace it.

On English Only Efforts

Language in India  www.languageinindia.com  212
10 : 7 July 2010
Ravi Bhushan, Ph.D.
Mother Tongue! The Neglected Resource for English Language Teaching And Learning
Caution needs to be used when urging ‘English Only’ as sometimes this can negate the students’ right to speak their own language amongst their peers if that is appropriate - they are not just students in the classroom, they are also people. The inevitable role of translation needs to be considered. It is totally normal and in a sense, impossible to control, that translation plays an important role in language learning. I do not mean the grammar-translation method; I mean the natural role of translation in communication. I find this very convincing and cannot see why negotiating in and out of English and the mother tongue of the students should not be a healthy addition to other activities and one that provides emotional and linguistic support to the process.

As I wrote above, caution and discretion should be used in using translation so that the use of translation does not become the primary of form of teaching, which would result in students assuming that “they don’t need to listen to the English as the mother-tongue version is coming up.”

**The Problems of Thinking in English**

Working with teenagers, one has to be practical and encourage students to use more L2 during the lessons, especially if we are talking about mixed ability classes. Another point which has come up is the issue of 'thinking in English': how far it is achievable, and how far it is desirable.

To begin with, what we need to do is teach them to speak English as well as possible. What goes on in their minds (what language they’re thinking in) is not directly accessible to us and, so, we can't have much influence over this process immediately. Long term continued use of English in a variety of situations may help the process of thinking in English. In addition to the length of exposure, age also may be a factor in this cognitive process. However, we also notice that most learners (particularly older ones) will continue to think in mother tongue to some extent. Think about counting - which language do you use?

**The Reasons for Not Using L1**

Let’s look carefully at the reasons for not using L1 and see how valid they are. A justifiable reason is in order to maximize the exposure of students to L2, and engagement with it. Other reasons - such as 'let's teach them the same way they learned their first language' - seem to me a bit not directly relevant, given the fact that, in a school-learning situation, there's no way we can give them the exposure, motivation and number of caregivers which a child has when learning his/her mother tongue. Anyhow someone learning a first language is usually exposed to that language only. Even in cases where there is simultaneous acquisition of two or more languages, children have no possibility of using any language other than to which they are exposed.
The point about a teacher who doesn’t know the students’ mother tongue very well is, of course, quite valid; it’s obviously difficult to explain something in a language you don’t know very well. But this argument avoids the main issue, which is, given a situation where the teacher and students share a language other than English. How far should this language be used in English lessons, and for what purpose?

Although there are some valid reasons for using L1 in the classroom, it is often resorted to when teachers worry that their learners won’t understand. (Often the teachers, who are not adequately proficient in English, resort to this unfortunate situation.) I think we should trust our learners more and give them the chance to experiment. Have you experienced the situation when you as a teacher tend to be more benevolent as regards mistakes students make and they notice that and ask you with a scowling look on their faces why you don’t correct every single mistake they make, this being their response to a stereotypical image of a teacher in their learning experience? Our not correcting them is very often seen as our negligence, not as our wish not to impede communication.

**Create Conditions of Belonging**

I think that the most important thing a teacher can do in the classroom is to create the conditions in which the learner feels that s/he belongs. Part of that includes understanding that in learning a foreign/second language we are doing more than simply absorbing a body of knowledge. We are, in fact dealing with our student's sense of identity. As any one who has learnt another language realizes speaking it involves more than just remembering a bunch of rules and words but quite often adopting a new, perhaps alien identity. I found that this is particularly true of adult learners, whose sense of self has fully developed. As a result I think that using L1 in the classroom lessens that sense of shock and possible rejection.

**Conditions for the Use of L1**

In our own classrooms, we should prefer, possibly hesitant, error-full English contributions on the part of students over utterly correct, but limited sentences, interwoven with L1. They need to resort to L1 occasionally: and it's up to us to make sure that they only do this when they cannot possibly manage in English. I think the same basic rule goes for us: only to use L1 when there is no way we can get them to understand through English. Or, when doing it in English would be so long and boring and frustrating that it would actually save time for English use to do it in L1. There is no need to feel guilty when using the L1. It is a point of professional judgment, and this is especially so when the teacher is not able to convey ideas in L2.

A point to consider, when deciding to make use of L1 or not, is the reason it is being used, or rather its role in the classroom, and it has to be said that various kinds of lessons,
each based on assumptions about what education and teaching are about, and what kind of L2 language we want our learners to end up with determine different answers to this. There seems to be a simple idea of L1 appearing almost willy-nilly in the classroom.

However two trends that appear are

i. The idea of translating difficult words and parts of any text teachers are working with into L1 where spending time on them would be a waste of effort and confusing, and

ii. The teacher using L1 to give instructions or explanations of the procedure(s) of the lesson and its rationale, so that lesson’s aims and objectives are clear and achievable.

Teachers may judge when to use each of the above and might like to think about the kinds of lessons each is likely to appear in.

There is a third use I’d like teachers to consider.

iii. How about actually incorporating texts written in L1 into the L2 lesson?

Exploitation of L1 in this way could be meaningful and bring strategies learners use into the limelight. It could bring out differences between the two languages and as such help overcome kinds of fossilization that can occur because of other kinds of teaching where the differences are so great that the difference does not lend itself to learners making the kinds of mental adjustments that are required.

We must all have experienced times when the depth of what learners have to do cognitively cannot be overcome. The adoption of such a technique, though, does return us to the idea/discussion of what kind of L2 are learners aiming for and how perfect do we want them to become. As mentioned above, using L1 allows students to compare and contrast English with the language they know best.

Various course books now encourage students to translate model sentences into their own language as a means to study form and meaning. Cognitive processing makes learning active and more memorable. Whether to use L1 or not also depends on the aim of the activity and language skill being practiced.

**Loop-input Activity**

Divide the group of participants into four groups and give each group one of the four texts. The groups work collaboratively to translate their text into mother tongue. Once
this is complete, they pass their translated text to another group who must translate it back into English. Again, they pass on their translated text to another group who will translate it back into mother tongue, do it one more time, so that everyone has seen all four texts.

Follow-up activities could include:

1. Comparing the various versions of each text and discussing problems or difficulties that arose.

2. Discussion of the value of the activity that they were involved in.

3. Discussion of the content of the four texts, etc.

Of course, if you want to focus more on the cultural/political issues, you could use (or write) different texts.

On Translation

Translation helps us to understand better the influence of one language on the other, and to correct errors of habit that creep in unnoticed. And, because translation involves contrast, it enables us to explore the potential of both languages – their strengths and weaknesses. Translation is a natural and necessary activity. If translation is going on outside the classroom - in offices, banks, factories, shops, and airports, etc., then why not inside the classroom?

Language competence is a two-way, not a one-way system. We need to be able to communicate both ways: into and from the foreign language. Understandably, textbooks place great emphasis on competence in the foreign language. Yet little guidance is given on how to communicate back into the mother tongue, as many professionals need to do in their daily work. Translation is ideally suited for practicing this vital skill.

Back-translation Class Activity

In this kind of activity, before they tackle the task of translation, students talk about the topic to generate vocabulary and language they could find in the text. In small groups students translate the text into L1. Groups swap their L1 translations and retranslate them into L2. Then the original and the L2 versions are contrasted and discussed: Have any important ideas been lost? Does this loss affect the meaning of the text? Have words been changed and are these changes important? Have any sentence structure alterations affected the meaning of the text? After the discussion, students can work together to make more appropriate changes.
The text should not be too long, too complex or too distant from students’ ESP knowledge. Translation can be valuable if it is tailored in such a way that it is a practical, learner-focused and process-based (not product-based) activity including all students and all stages of the process. It gives students time to plan, think, discuss, evaluate and edit their work. It also allows teachers to pin-point errors stemming from L1. A good way of making L2 utterances comprehensible to learners is by inserting comprehensible L1 items here and there that would not have been understood had they been in English.

L1 should be used if/when it assists learning, and not because a teacher doesn’t know L2. The ‘lingua franca’ approach implies bilingualism, which in its turn legitimizes L1 use side by side (though not necessarily mixed), with L2. Create your own ‘Class Companion’. Learners find L1 equivalents for new vocabulary items learnt via L2. They then make a wall chart or use a notebook to create a class glossary which can be used for reference throughout the term. They can compare their own work with what they find in the companion.

A similar thing can be done with grammar presentation and practice. New structures are taught avoiding explicit rule explanation in L1. Learners then discuss and/or write what they have understood about the new structure in L1. They compare this with what they find in the companion. This gives learners a little more autonomy in that they can navigate their own routes to meaning rather than relying on something too prescriptive.

Cultural Features

The cultural features connected with L1 use can be put to good effect when teaching L2. While attempting a writing task in any examination in which a sample writing task may be like writing an article for an international student magazine describing a festival or celebration in your country’ or similar topics that refer to their own cultural backgrounds, learners quite often resort to the knowledge of L1 to overcome the difficulty of English equivalent (e.g. Eid ul Fitr, Holi, etc.).

This can be used as an opportunity to exploit L1 for L2 practice. First, the learners transcribe the item into L1 script and then they write a brief description of what it is in English. There are a whole range of culturally bound items which you can get your students to explain in L2. Code switching is a universal phenomenon especially in IT, ICT and business. I think that all of us use the word computer, hardware, software , CD, floppy disk, cash flow, mergers , email account, provider , servers etc because these are the words not easily translated into L1 because they perfectly pinpoint the meaning in just one word and any effort to translate them into L1 is done in vain. So here are some ideas to integrate both L1 and L2 in ways that encourage learning.

Play-Telephone Activity
Give a short passage in English, either spoken or written to a student. They then translate it into their own language and then pass it on to the next student. This student then translates it into English and then passes onto the next person in line who translates it into their own language and so forth until the message ends up back at the beginning with the teacher. You could then discuss what happened to the message and the changed meaning.

**Use Comic Strips Activity**

The basic idea is to get students to attempt to translate the humor in comic strips. Are the obstacles cultural, linguistic or is there something else? Then ask them to translate a cartoon or comic from their own language into English. If possible compare their examples with other official translations. Is it faithful to the original? Is it still funny? Can it be improved? Watch a short part of a film on DVD without sound but with the subtitles in the students own language.

The students then translate into English the dialogue, utterance. This could be done by students working on their own at first. Then they get into groups and compare their versions and agree on a common translation. The students then watch the film (with or without English subtitles, depending on the level) and discuss why their versions are different. Is it a matter of right and wrong? Or are there other matters at issue such as the inability to translate between languages without losing some of the original meaning? In this particular activity a badly translated movie is just as useful as a well translated one.

There are two problems which concern me, One is that when you legitimize the use of L1, there will be teachers who over-use it (use it when it does not enhance learning, just because it's an easy option or because they feel more comfortable using it). And then the whole lesson slips into an L1 based interaction which leads to less learning of L2. The other is that if you de-legitimize the use of L1, teachers will just feel they shouldn't be using it at all, and either simply don't (in which case some valuable learning opportunities will be missed and some learners will get frustrated and demotivated), or do, in a hit-and-miss manner without any clear rationale of why and when, and feel guilty about it.

The use of L1 in teaching and learning L2 must be critically analyzed with out resorting to over-simplification ('it's always good' or 'it's always bad') and one should try to make careful decisions about when and why it is justifiable and productive. L1 could be used for error correction too, e.g. a student says in English 'I play football yesterday'. The teacher must respond with a literal translation into L1 and should ask was that really what student wanted to say?” The L1 version makes the error very obvious, and the student immediately corrects himself/ herself. There are lots of ways of correcting, of course (recast, repetition with rising inflection, meta-linguistic explanation, elicitation, etc.)

**The Use of Target Language**
We should be using the target language in class in order to maximize the learners’ exposure to and engagement with it, even if this results in occasional confusion and lack of understanding. There are times, even in an ‘English-only’ class when, a quick translation or elicitation of an L1 concept can be helpful.

I think both approaches are acceptable: I personally tend towards the second but it’s a question of teacher’s personality and inclination, the type of class and teaching goals, rather than being ‘right’ or ‘wrong’. L1 can be used to teach learning skills, to talk about the target language and culture, to explain why it’s worth learning. Experience suggests that it should be determined by the age group of the learner as well as the purpose of learning L2.

In a class with students less than 10 years old, where imitation plays an important role, only L2 may be the best way of ensuring that L2 is taught and learnt. However, if we are in a class where the average age is above 15, I think only the teacher should use L1 but the learner should be allowed to use both till he/she finds himself/herself in a comfortable position vis-à-vis the learner group. No ideal time frame can be fixed for this.

The purpose of learning would be crucial in determining the motivation level. As in the Indian context, motivation is at a very low level, using only L2 may retard the process rather than facilitate it. I think the use of mother tongue depends on the level and background of the learners.

**To Conclude**

Using L1 in the ESL classroom has long been considered an important issue among researchers. Some of them believe that use of L1 develops the L2 learning process and emphasizes its systematic, cautious and restricted inclusion into the classroom practice. The L1, when used, has been primarily for purposes of translation, explanation or classroom management. It is hypothesized that learners’ knowledge of L1 can be used as a scaffolding device to enable the learning of an L2. L1 can be used as a resource to teach L2, develop vocabulary, enable reading capabilities, for punctuation rules, emphasizing grammatical differences across two languages etc. It does not use the aid of simple translation of words in the new language but uses a cross-referencing method that can be learnt by a teacher who teaches all the subjects in a village school, a common scenario in a country like India. In all these, however, it should be ensured that the class does not look for translation all the time and for all items taught.

**Further Reading List**


Language in India  www.languageinindia.com


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Breaking the Good Mother Myths –
A Study of the Novels of Amy Tan

Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.

Myths of the Perfect Mother

"The loss of the daughter to the mother, the mother to the daughter, is the essential female tragedy," (237) writes Adrienne Rich in Of Woman Born: Motherhood as Experience and Institution (1976). Paula Caplan, in The New Don't Blame Mother: Mending the Mother-Daughter Relationship (2001), speaks of the dangerous myths about mothers that have pervaded the culture and created or aggravated many of the problems between mothers and daughters.

The myths of the perfect mother give rise to impossible expectations and set mothers up for failure. These included the myth of the imperfect female body, the myth of the ideal mother and the myth that working mothers are not good for their children. These myths of mothers and their relationships with their daughters are rooted in mid- nineteenth century and this continued in psychoanalytical theories on child rearing which gave rise to the child expert in the 1950s. Most of these myths have been constructed in a patriarchal society and are responsible for destroying women’s self respect and respect between mothers and daughters.

Three Myths

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Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.
Breaking the Good Mother Myths – A Study of the Novels of Amy Tan
There are three myths that stand out. The first popular myth is the story of Oedipus and Jocasta. The second widespread myth is that of Electra, daughter of Clytemnestra and Agamemnon and sister of Iphigenia and Orestes. The third, the *Homeric Hymn to Demeter* (acclaimed to have been composed in the sixth or seventh century) is the oldest known version of the mother-daughter myth of Demeter and Persephone.

The mother-daughter relationship which has an emotionally charged content can be explored by examining conflict and how this is resolved. The conflict is constructive and the daughter gets a safe training ground for independent living. It also explores the damaged sense of self experienced in the mother-daughter relationship within a patriarchal culture.

Malinowski in his *Myth in Primitive Psychology* (1974), states that myth, “vouches for the efficacy of ritual and contains practical rules for the guidance of man. Myth is thus a vital ingredient of human civilization;” (101) Joseph Dorairaj in his book *Myth and Literature* (2003), talks about demythologization and states that it is “a literary enterprise that aims at endowing a literary artifact with a contemporary dimension, i.e., relevance and applicability to the present.” (94-95). He further opines “Demythologization, which aims at decontextualizing a classical myth and subsequently recontextualizing it in a given context taking into consideration the given horizon of inquiry, is fraught with wide ramifications” (141).

**The Goal of This Study**

This study attempts a study of the movement of the daughter towards the mother, after a brief estrangement. The mothers who had migrated to America tried to dictate terms and bring up their daughters in the strict cultural and familial traditions that they had learnt in China. The daughters who were born in a different country saw the easy lifestyle around and rebelled against their mothers. The daughters who were born in America have many models of motherhood around them and they compare their mothers with their American counterparts. They set for their mothers certain criteria which they feel would help them assess their mothers and they concluded that their mothers had fallen short and did not belong to the category of the good mother. The daughters did not comprehend that these ideals were just myths and the love of a mother was beyond all comparison and judgment.

**Daughters and Mothers**

The matriarchs in the novels of Tan are shown to be fighters who did not rest till their goals were reached. They made sure that the daughters moved into understanding and broke the myths they had created. The daughters learnt to listen and to assimilate the experiences of the mother and the vast knowledge she offered. They journeyed back to
their mothers, to life and happiness. The previous chapter dealt with the difficulties the daughters faced in life and how they were rescued by the mothers from psychological estrangement. In this chapter the daughters had to break the myths they had relied on and moved from resistance to acquiescence, to the source and origin of their power and might, their mother or the mother figure.

In the novels of Tan, the daughters believed in a few myths of a ‘good mother’. It was essential that these myths be broken down for a perfect understanding between mother and daughter. Tan has clearly brought out her finding that it is always the mother or the mother figure that helps the daughter to find the right meaning of life and establish her own identity. The daughter may be late in realising this but the relationship is always repaired and replenished. It is only when the daughter turns an adult herself that she is able to understand her mother and understand that these myths have to be broken or demythologized to appreciate and respect the mother. A few of the myths that are developed in these novels are those that are created by the daughter and the society.

**Myth 1: Good mothers trust the daughter’s choice**

Following the myth of Persephone and Demeter, where the mother is unable to accept the choice of her daughter, the mothers in Tan’s novels also face difficulty in directing their daughters to the right choices. This ranges from the food that they eat, the clothes they wear, their careers and their spouses. The daughters opposed this intrusion of the mother and felt that their mothers were incapable of being ideal mothers only because they did not allow them a free choice.

There are four daughters in *The Joy Luck Club* who created myths of ideal mothers from all the examples they saw around them. The daughters find the American mothers perfect. Jing mei Woo is forced to learn the piano in which she is not interested. As she grew up her mother hoped that she would have a fancy job, but her daughter was only a free-lance writer. Jing wished that her mother could just agree to her wishes and let her alone like the mothers of her American friends. But her mother was a taskmaster who refused to take a negative answer. Jing mei had to do things whether she liked them or not.

The myth Jing mei created, that her mother did not respect or trust her choice, dissolved when she discovered her mother’s true motives. She learnt that her mother Suyuan Woo had lost two of her daughters during the war and she wished that Jing would be the essence of all her daughters and achieve the best. She yearned to give her what she could not achieve or give the other daughters. Jing had not been interested in learning the truth of her mother’s story which she had often tried telling her and it was only after her death that she found that it was necessary to learn the truth about her mother and when she did this the myth was broken.
Waverly Jong adored Marvin “He graduated third in his class at Lowell and got a full scholarship to Stanford. He played tennis… He made everyone laugh and his own laugh was deep, sonorous, masculinely sexy” (JLC174). But once her mother Lindo saw him she told her all his negative points so much that Waverly began to hate Marvin. Later Waverly fell in love with Rich Schields who worked in the same firm with her. She had never known such pure love and was frightened if her mother would spoil it. Waverly once ventured to ask her opinion of Rich and Lindo truthfully told her that he had too many spots on his face. Waverly tried to save Rich and said that they were freckles and were a sign of good luck. Lindo simply asserted that she remembered the time when Waverly had suffered from chicken pox with many spots and had to stay at home for ten days. Lindo wanted to know if she considered this luck too. But when Waverly went home to talk to her mother, Lindo told her how she knew that they were in love and that they wanted to marry. Her mother was actually very upset that her daughter had wicked thoughts about her. The myth that she had about her mother not trusting her choices was wiped out when she sat down and talked to her mother. Waverly realised that she had still a lot to understand about her mother. Slowly Waverly understood:

I saw what I had been fighting for: It was for me, a scared child, who had run away a long time ago to what I had imagined was a safer place. And hiding in this place, behind my invisible barriers, I knew what lay on the other side: Her side attacks. Her secret weapons. Her uncanny ability to find my weakest spots. But in the brief instant that I had peered over the barriers I could finally see what was really there: an old woman, a wok for her armor, a knitting needle for her sword, getting a little crabby as she waited patiently for her daughter to invite her in. (JLC183-84)

Olivia is the daughter in The Hundred Secret Senses, in which Tan portrays a neglecting mother and a half sister who takes on the role of the mother. Louise, Olivia’s mother was involved in much social work and was unable to care for the family. She visited her daughter Olivia just to tell her that she had made a wrong choice in marrying Simon. She explained this with enormous examples of men in her life. She felt that men had a lack of commitment and she explained, “Simon didn’t love you enough, because he was lacking not you. You are abundantly lovable. There is nothing wrong with you” (HSS 55). It was only this mother who needed another to carry out her maternal duties and Kwan, Olivia’s half sister came to her aid. Olivia despised the interference of Kwan but it was she who helped Olivia mend the marriage. She was able to convince her that Simon was the best choice and that it was a relationship that had gone on from the previous birth. It was only when Olivia believed Kwan and accepted her offer of help that she moved to love and accepted Kwan, after a long number of years.

Ruth, in The Bonesetter’s Daughter was born and brought up in America and could not accept the hard and disciplined life that her mother wanted her to follow. As she grew up she felt it necessary to defy her mother and adamantly refused to give in to all the

Language in India www.languageinindia.com 224
10 : 7 July 2010
Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.
Breaking the Good Mother Myths – A Study of the Novels of Amy Tan
conditions and Ruth and LuLing fought viciously over various issues. In later life Ruth fell in love with Art and lived with him and his two daughters and in the age of luxury and convenience, the couple considered commitment a hindrance. Marriage became old fashioned and living together was considered the right alternative. Ruth could not accept her mother’s resistance to their living in relationship. But later she realised the importance of marriage when she saw the living example of Mr Tang and her mother LuLing. Even Art, Ruth’s husband admired the relationship Mr. Tang and Luling had: “He’s been in love with her since she was a little girl,” Art said. “She’s not just a source of temporary companionship. He loves everything about her, and that includes who she was, who she is, who she will be. He knows more about her than most couples who are married.” He drew Ruth closer to him. Actually I’m hoping we might have that a commitment through time, past, present, future…marriage.” (BD 348)

LuLing became a prey to dementia but she had left behind the story of her life written in the Chinese language and as Tang translated the papers he fell in love with her and she in turn reciprocated. Even in a state of ill-health the mother was able to be a guiding light for her daughter and Ruth learnt from her mother the right choice, thus breaking the myth.

Thus the first myth of the good mother trusting her daughter’s choice is broken and the daughters learnt that the mothers made the best choices for them or steered them on the path of the right choice. They appreciated that the good mothers corrected them and pulled them away from wrong choices and they were happy for the pain they experienced and they saluted the mother figure.

**Myth 2: Good Mothers always express their love**

The strongest trial for this myth was in the life of Jing mei Woo, one of the daughters in *The Joy Luck Club*, who learnt that her mother had to desert two of her daughters in China during the war. Jing could never accept the fact that a mother could just leave behind two babies. She used this as her trump card to always exasperate her mother. Jing later dropped out of school and had a mediocre job of writing brochures, and when she was slighted at a party by her friend for her bad job, her mother seemed to take her friend’s side and criticised her daughter’s work. Her mother had hosted the Chinese New Year Dinner and invited all her friends and their children. During the meal Jing realised that she was constantly humiliated by Waverly, Auntie Lindo’s daughter. She insulted her about the free lance work she had done for their company saying that Jing did not have enough style. Jing felt very small and she had to accept that she was just a copywriter who worked for a small advertising agency. “I felt tired and foolish, as if I had been running to escape someone chasing me, only to look behind and discover there was no one there” (JLC207).
After dinner Suyuan Woo presented Jing with the jade pendant that she had always worn. She said that it was her life’s importance; Jing pondered aloud if she had given it to her only because of the disaster at the dinner but her mother told her that Waverley was no good and assured her that she was the best. Jing later learnt the true circumstances that her mother underwent and the yearning she had for her daughters always. This proved Suyuan’s love for her and she also understood that her mother loved the lost daughters also and was always hoping to trace them. She learnt that in all situations her mother had always showed her a tough face which was for her benefit and that it was not always necessary for an ideal mother to always portray love.

Lindo Jong remembered that she had been betrothed when she was two years old, and after that every time the family spoke of her they referred to her as if she belonged to someone else. “My mother would say to me when the rice bowl went up to my face too many times, ‘Look how much Huang Taitai’s daughter can eat’” (JLC 51). Later, when she was twelve, there was a great flood that completely destroyed their family and they decided to leave the place and find a living elsewhere. They decided to leave Lindo behind as she was twelve and old enough to leave her family. Lindo, as a child, found it difficult to understand that there was love in the family as they never expressed it. As the family was leaving, her mother took her away alone and gave her a necklace of red jade that was for good luck. Lindo remembered, “When she put it around my neck, she acted very stern, so I knew she was very sad” (JLC 53-54). Soon she understood that her mother wished the very best for her and loved her. She remembered “My mother did not treat me this way because she didn’t love me. She would say this biting back her tongue, so she wouldn’t wish for something that was no longer hers” (JLC 51).

Pearl and Weili, the protagonists of The Kitchen God’s Wife maintained a comfortable distance and they felt that they could not reach out to express love for each other. Pearl had a strict childhood where her mother seemed to know everything and this in turn irritated and troubled the child. As she grew up she maintained a distance and stayed clear of her mother’s paths. It was later when she learnt her mother’s past that she could see the tender, loving and caring mother she had though she also learnt that she had lost a lot of babies in infancy and also aborted many. Love had different meanings she learnt. Weili loved the children so much that she did not want them to be born to suffer in this world. Pearl also understood the depth of her mother’s love for her when she saw the mother ready to do her best to restore Pearl’s health, everything else shrunk in importance for her mother and she was only concerned about the welfare of her daughter. The second myth tumbles when the daughters understand the depth of the unconditional love they had and when they realised that love did not have to be always expressed. As Shakespeare expresses in Julius Caesar (1623)

> When love begins to sicken and decay,  
> It useth an enforced ceremony. (4.2.20-21)
Myth 3: Good Mothers do not always have the last word

The second section of *The Joy Luck Club* is entitled ‘The Twenty - Six Malignant Gates’. The Chinese mothers regarded this as a book with all the warning they needed for the protection of their children, failing which, they believed, the evil would strike them. The anecdote in the prologue to this section portrays a mother who told her daughter not to ride her bicycle around the corner because she would fall down and cry and the mother will not be able to hear her. She said this was written in the book. The daughter however did not believe her, she accused her mother of ignorance and tried to get away in a hurry but fell even before she reached the corner.

Lena St. Clair’s narration in the second section of *The Joy Luck Club* is titled ‘The Voice from the Wall.’ Even as a very young child she was worried about all the unspoken terrors. These terrors she felt chased her mother and devoured her until she disappeared and became a ghost. Her mother told her stories like how her great grandfather had been killed by a ghost, how her future would be destroyed if she lingered after school, and that she would be caught by bad men. It seemed that her mother knew everything and was always right. “I knew my mother made up anything to warn me, to help me avoid some unknown danger. My mother saw danger in everything, even in other Chinese people” (*JLC*105). It was only as she grew up and started life on her own that she could comprehend the wisdom of her mother’s words. She later understood that her mother was just helping her in the right path by inducing fear about the wrong things in life.

When Pearl was young she yearned for freedom, and at school all the students were preparing for the “Sadie Hawkins Day Dance” and Pearl wanted to go with a boy just as all the other children. But Weili told her, “You want to follow a girl who has no sense? You want to listen to her mother? That mother doesn’t even have concern for her daughter!” (*KGW* 84) Pearl, when she was an adult, did not tell her mother that she had an illness because she would search endlessly for the causes. Pearl's father had died when she was fourteen and even after long years her mother would search for reasons. So Pearl felt it was better to remain silent than to embark on the issue. Pearl had brought up the topic of her multiple sclerosis once and told her mother that the doctor had said that it was not cancer. But her mother immediately had another story to tell her, how she had told one of her customers to check a mole on his face and he had neglected it, but it turned out to be cancer. That man, she said had suffered a lot and died. Later however Pearl understood that her mother had always spoken and acted for her well being. She learnt that her mother spoke all that she knew because she felt that it would help the daughter in some way. Pearl felt in her heart that her mother had always been right and all that she did was always for her benefit.

The mothers who had come to America from China carried their painful past with them and they wished to protect their daughters from the same experience and that was the reason they always stayed in control and had the last say. Matters concluded her way,
there could be no other and though the daughters resented this boasting, nagging and
dominance, wisdom dawned with age and understanding and the myth is broken.

**Myth 4: Good mothers keep up with the times**

‘Feathers From a Thousand Li Away’ is the first section of *The Joy Luck Club*. It was the
story of a woman who left China for America. She dreamt of a bright and prosperous
future for her daughter, very different from the one that she had. She hoped for a
beautiful beginning and to symbolise all her emotions she carried a swan on her journey.
She had bought the swan from a vendor who told her that the swan was once a duck that
stretched its neck in the hope of becoming a goose and now it had become a swan more
beautiful than what it had hoped for. But when she arrived the immigration officials
pulled her swan away leaving her with just a feather for memory. She was confused and
even forgot why she had come. Her daughter grew up speaking only English. She wanted
to open her heart to the daughter but she had to wait year after year in the hope of telling
her daughter all this in perfect American English.

This episode pictured the agony and the trauma the mothers underwent in spite of having
come away from China where they hoped their sorrows would remain. Their daughters
grew up speaking English just as the mother wanted, but now they found a ridge between
them that they could not cross over. This problem created the myth of a good mother,
whom the daughters wished would be someone they could be proud of in front of friends
and acquaintances.

The daughters of the members of the ‘Joy Luck Club’ felt ashamed of the manners and
etiquettes of their Chinese mothers. Jing-mei saw her mother as a strange old Chinese
woman who did things to embarrass her. She haggled with store owners, picked her teeth
in public and wore awful colours.

Rose remembered that they were "a Chinese family trying to act like a typical American
family at the beach" (*JLC*122). An-mei, the mother wore clothes that did not match her
and talked with a terrible accent. Rose was embarrassed that her boyfriend would have to
see her before the wedding. She only saw her mother as one who boasted of her culinary
prowess. Rose grew up thinking that her mother was an unimportant person who did not
know the outer world, but the myth was broken when she learnt of the strength that her
mother possessed, how she had been through myriad experiences that had moulded her to
raise strong and confident daughters.

Lindo remembered how her mother once told her that her features could lead to good or
bad circumstances. She described each feature of her face and told her how good they
were. She said how ears with big lobes were full of blessings and how people with such
ears could hear fortune calling out to them. Lindo had just the right ears but she had to
listen to opportunities. Her nose was straight and smooth and her mother felt that this was
a good sign because girls with crooked noses were sure to face misfortune as they always followed wrong things. Her chin was just the right size and it signified an adequate longevity. She told Lindo that she would have some hardships in early life as the hairline was low on the forehead. Her eyes were eager and honest; they followed the gaze of the mother and showed respect. So she would be a good wife, mother and daughter-in-law. Her mother told her how they looked very similar and Lindo tried to make it more so trying to follow her gestures and moves. But her daughter Waverly did not feel that way. She did not feel that her mother was beautiful or kept up with the times. Waverly had tried telling her mother about her marriage with Rich but she had never got a chance and she told Rich:

“You don’t understand. You don’t understand my mother.”
Rich shook his head. “Whew! You can say that again. Her English was so bad. You know, when she was talking about that dead guy showing up on Dynasty, I thought she was talking about something that happened in China long time ago.(JLC 179)

She felt that her mother was very old fashioned and she even took her mother to her beauty parlour, just before her marriage. Mr. Rory the hair stylist observed that they looked alike but Waverly did not want to believe it, she did not want to be identified with her mother, she liked to be different, with more of the American style in her and Lindo also felt that Waverly was a little Chinese only in her looks, on the surface alone. Lindo felt that she had not succeeded in teaching her the Chinese character. She had wanted her “…children to have the best combination of: American circumstances and Chinese character. How could I know these things do not mix?”(JLC 254)

As she looked at her daughter she saw they had the same face, the same sorrows and fortunes and the same faults. And she knew she could not let her be that way. She helped Waverly understand and appreciate her rich heritage and slowly Waverly was able to let go of the myth and accepted that her mother was the best. She even decided to go to China for her honeymoon and Lindo was going along. Waverly dreaded the idea. “Yet part of me also thinks the whole idea makes perfect sense. The three of us, leaving our differences behind, stepping on the plane together, sitting side by side, lifting off, moving West to reach the East”(JLC184).

Olivia was happy in her home basking as the only daughter to her parents, but Kwan soon came in and Olivia viewed her always as her opponent. Kwan was fresh from China and did not know the culture and manners of America. Olivia described Kwan, “She’ll wear a purple checked jacket over turquoise pants. She whispers loudly in a husky voice, sounding as if she had chronic laryngitis, when in fact she’s never sick” (HSS 21).

Olivia was embarrassed to be with her, as all the other children used to make fun of Kwan and one of her brother’s friends said: “Is that dumb Chink your sister? Hey Olivia,
does that mean you’re a dumb Chink too?” I was so flustered I yelled, “She’s not my sister! I hate her! I wish she’d go back to China!” (HSS12)

Olivia disowned her many times and never helped Kwan with her English though she used to earnestly request her. Olivia and Kwan grew up with their differences and Olivia felt that the many years that Kwan spent in America had not helped her change much, she remained the same. It was a very long time before Olivia could learn the deep love and devotion Kwan had for her, and to understand the love that Kwan returned for every bitter act of hers. The mother figure Kwan may be old fashioned but Olivia was forced to learn that she had been the perfect mother to her, who cared for her in the absence of her mother and took love to the farthest ends of their lives.

As the daughters grew up and often became mothers themselves, they became aware of the greatness of their mothers and did not bother about the differences in language and styles and understood that there were things more important than all this and that they received the strength and values from their mothers.

**Myth 5: Good mothers do not have shady pasts**

The first chapter of the novel carries the same title ‘The Joy Luck Club’; it gave the story of Suyuan Woo as recalled by her daughter Jing. Her mother enjoyed relating the events of the past and the formation of the club when she had completed all the chores of the house. Suyuan had been married to an officer with the Kuomintang and when the war began he brought Suyuan and their two daughters to Kweilin because he thought they would be safe there. Suyuan described how “I sat in the dark corners of my house with a baby under each arm, waiting with nervous feet. When the sirens cried out to warn us of bombers, my neighbors and I jumped to our feet and scurried to the deep caves to hide like wild animals” (JLC 22). She was ordered to leave quickly for Chunking as the Japanese had arrived.

It was Jing’s father who told Jing the rest of the story. Suyuan did not have the strength to carry the babies any further. When she realised that she would die of her sickness, or starvation or the war, she carried her babies till she was delirious with pain and fever. So she laid the babies on the side of the road, “And then she knew she could not bear to watch her babies die with her” (JLC 282). She left the babies with money and an address, but did not know which way or how long she walked. When she awoke she found herself on a truck with several other sick people. American missionaries had rescued her and she reached Chunking only to learn that her husband had died two weeks back. She grew delirious with madness and disease. “To come so far, to lose so much and to find nothing” (JLC 283). When Jing heard this story of her mother’s past she was able to break the myth and love her mother.
Ying Ying’s daughter Lena saw her mother as a person who always had reason to feel scared and under a threat. She knew that this was her mother’s second marriage, but nothing had prepared her for the truth that her mother revealed to her when she lost a baby. Lena was the only one who could follow her mother’s language and she listened in horror as her mother related how this was the right punishment she had got for the uncaring act of her yester years. Lena had to share this great guilt of her mother and she could not reveal this to her father who trusted them completely and did not know anything. Lena however later learnt of the sad marriage that her mother first had, and then she realised that her mother was the one who loved her and wanted the best for her.

The two generations of mother and daughter in Tan’s The Bonesetter’s Daughter portray daughters who got to know of the past of their mothers late and then adored them. LuLing learnt the meaning of mother after she lost her. LuLing was the only reason that Precious Auntie had to live and she loved LuLing very much and cared for her. The treasured past of her mother, had been handed down to LuLing engulfing her in its pain, sorrow, strength and the curses. LuLing had a wrong understanding of her mother and she learnt the truth too late.

The same curse seemed to affect the next generation too and it was only after LuLing was diagnosed with dementia that her daughter Ruth tried to learn about her mother past. After the death of her mother LuLing had lived in an orphanage where she became a widow and later after so many excruciating experiences she travelled to America. Ruth had always viewed her mother as a person who ordered her around and had a great fear of the curses and Ruth guessed that there should have been something that was terrible that she wished to forget and evade. When Ruth read the document that her mother had given her she learnt about her mother’s past and then she regarded her with pride and gratitude.

**Myth 6: Good mothers do not interfere in their daughters private lives**

John Ruskin in Sesame and Lillies (1865) exhorts women, “There is not a war in the world, no, nor an injustice, but you women are answerable for it; not in that you have provoked, but in that you have not hindered. …There is no suffering, no injustice, no misery in the earth, but the guilt of it lies with you”(32). The mothers from China felt it their prime duty to take care of their daughters so that they would not fall short of the institution of motherhood. But the American born daughters saw this as an interference and hindrance.

Rose Hsu found that her mother made a point on every part of her life. “You are getting too thin,” my mother said in her pained voice…”I’m fine,” I said, and smiled for proof. “And besides, wasn’t it you who said my clothes were too tight?” “Eat more,” she insisted… (JLC 187) An-mei also wanted to talk about Rose’s marriage and she seemed to know the problem and said, “ ‘He is doing monkey business with someone else.’ Monkey business? Ted? I wanted to laugh-her choice of words, but also the idea!”(JLC
It was her mother who in the end helped her fight her marriage. She did not give her a choice but told her to speak for herself and when Rose listened to this piece of advise, she triumphed. Her mother was in the end given the freedom to heal the wounds in every aspect of her life.

Pearl felt that her mother had always controlled every part of her life. Even when her family visited her mother Weili, they were not allowed to stay in the hotel, Weili declared that it was a waste of money. Pearl’s mother was also always eager to outdo her with a better price on any item at a store near her home. Weili asked Pearl, “Four rolls of toilet paper, how much? “One sixty-nine,” I answer right away. “You see!” she says. “My place only ninety-nine cents. Good brands, too. Next time, I buy you some. You can pay me back” (KGW 49).

When Pearl’s children were too eager to see what presents she had got them, Pearl was proud that her younger daughter who was just two was talking complete sentences but Weili reprimanded her, “What good is it to have her be this kind of smart? You should teach her manners, not to ask too much, same way I taught you” (KGW 82). When Weili knew that her daughter was sick, she took extra care and admonished her husband to do the same too.

My mother looks at me, frowning. “Ai-ya! This dress is too thin.” She pinches the fabric. “too cold is not good for you. I already told you this. You have to listen to me.” She pulls Phil’s sleeve. “Take this off. Give her your jacket. You have to be a better husband to her. If you don’t pay attention, how will you help her pay attention too?” (KGW 403)

Pearl however became peaceful when she let in her mother into all quarters of her life, she felt blessed without the nagging pain of the guilt of separation she experienced and she felt whole again in the presence of her mother.

Ruth’s mother believed “A daughter should have no secrets from a mother” (BD139). But Ruth liked to keep LuLing out of her life because of the many differences they had. Ruth had moved in with Art and they believed in a live in relationship and though they seemed to have a good relationship, they both knew that it was not complete and LuLing emphasised her belief in the sanctity of marriage. Art’s parents did not like Ruth, and the children who had adored her as infants now seemed to look down on her. Her mother had felt that this relationship was not right and made her thoughts very plain, “Long time ’go you first meet him, I tell you, Why you live together first? You do this, he never marry you. You remember? Oh, now you thinking. Ah, Mother right. Live together, now I just leftover, easy throw away. Don’t be embarrassed. You be honest” (BD 304).

Ruth’s stay at her mother’s helped her to reassess her life. She was worried about Art and herself. She sensed that it was she who was always accommodating. “And now that they
had been apart, she felt unweighted, untethered. This was what she had predicted she might feel when she lost her mother. Now she wanted to hang on to her mother as if she were her life preserve” (BD 304). The time she spent with her mother helped her regain life and love, and her mother moved from the margin to the center of Ruth’s life. Tan has thus, in her The Bonesetter’s Daughter, shows the power that can be derived in the present with knowledge of the past. The daughters were able to lead better lives when they excavated the past of the mothers. They could understand the emotions, thoughts and the fears that their mother’s lives were built on and they learnt to appreciate and applaud the matriarchs.

The mothers had handed over their legacy to their daughters. They helped them shape their lives. They hoped that their daughters would not fall into the same snares like they had, they wished to guide the footsteps in a smoother path, but they did it by handing out warnings. The closeness of the mother and grandmother is felt by most of the daughters. Together they believed they could shape not only the future but even the past. The legacy is their offering “They can choose not to hide it, to take what’s broken, to feel the pain and know that it will heal. They know where happiness lies, not in a cave or a county, but in love and the freedom to give and take what has been there all along” (BD 352-53).

The novels of Tan portray the lives of the daughters enriched and strengthened when they decided to assimilate the rich past of the mothers. The mothers also waited for the return of their daughters, which they knew was inevitable. They were aware that the daughters needed their support and that they lacked the courage to face obstacles and problems in life. The mothers were willing to wait and sometimes the waiting proved to be dear. There is also a transition seen in the mothers from traditional to contemporary. The mothers at first tried to shield the daughters from the truths of her past as she believed that it would hurt her, she however encountered resentment and anger and it was only openness that brought true understanding and harmony.

The mothers shared the story of the family history and their lives, and the daughters who resented the mother’s expectations and values, slowly grasped the personal histories of the cultural heritage. In the mixed culture, it became imperative for the daughter to understand her family history and her mother’s life story in order to find her identity and voice.

The conflict between mother and daughter is also considered constructive as it helps in the separation of the daughter from her mother. The daughters, who had segregated themselves from the companionship of their mothers, broke the myths they had made and moved from resistance to acquiescence, accepting the rich legacy handed forth. The end of the relationship is the victory of this alliance in a patriarchal society.

*The Hundred Secret Senses* ends with a revelation that Olivia has:
I think Kwan intended to show me the world is not a place but the vastness of the soul. And the soul is nothing more than love, limitless, endless, all that moves us toward knowing what is true. I once thought love was supposed to be nothing but bliss. I now know it is also worry and grief, hope and trust. (HSS 358)

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Effect of Teachers’ Academic Qualification on Students’ L2 Performance at the Secondary Level

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Abstract

This study reports the analysis of the performance of the English Language Teachers (ELTs) and Teachers with Formal Education (TFEs) at secondary level in public high schools. The study shows that ELTs have positive influence on the performance of the students in the final examinations conducted by the board of intermediate and secondary education. We collected the data for present study from three different public schools where ELTs and TFEs were teaching in parallel. The results of the students in their final exam conducted by the board were collected. The results show that those students who receive instruction from the ELTs show better results in the final examinations as compared to those who receive input from the TFEs. The study suggests that the practice of inducting qualified English language teachers at secondary level should continue.

Introduction
The quality of education is directly related to the quality of instruction in the classrooms. It is a fact that the academic qualifications, knowledge of the subject matter, competence, and skills of teaching and the commitment of the teacher have effective impact on the teaching learning process (National Education Policy 1998-2010). Quality improvement in education depends upon proper training of teachers. The teachers cannot play any of the roles unless properly trained (Yadved and Singh, 1988).

Teaching is an art. It can be refined by training and practice. The availability of competent teachers is central in the reconstruction of the educational system. English has acquired the status of a global language (Crystal, 1997). Keeping in view the growing need and importance of English language in every walk of life, English is made a compulsory subject in Pakistan from the very beginning of the academic career. This increasingly necessitates good quality initial preparation for non-native speaker teachers in the school system.

Commenting upon the place of English language in Pakistan, Baumgardner (1993:43) said: “English in Pakistan is used as an official and second language. It is spoken and used by a relatively small but extremely influential portion of country’s population in the domain of government administration.” Thus, in Pakistan English language is widely used by the elite and the ruling class. Most of the official correspondence and documentation takes place in English. For the ruling elite and the bureaucracy (highly educated), English is the second language. Very few Pakistanis have the privilege of acquiring English as the first language. Majority of the educated community learn English as a foreign language.

**English Teaching and Learning in Pakistan**

English is taught as a compulsory subject from primary to graduation level. In the elite public and private schools (Cadet Colleges, Beaconhouse School System, City Schools, etc.), English is taught as a compulsory subject and also the whole teaching learning process is carried out in English language. In other words, English is also the medium of instruction in these schools.

This enables the students of these schools to learn English in an environment where most of the interaction between the teacher and the students is in English. As a result, the students of these elite schools are more proficient in English and perform well in the final examinations.

In the Urdu or vernacular medium schools, however, the teaching of English is done somewhat differently and the proficiency in the language is somewhat inadequate. The traditional grammar translation method is favourite with the teachers and there is hardly any exposure to English language inside or outside the class. Most of the activities in the class are done in the vernacular or the mother tongue. Even English language is explained through Urdu or the vernaculars. The focus of the teaching learning process is how to secure good grades/scores in the final examination. The students resort to memorization and cramming.
The teacher is the facilitator of examinations rather than of learning. The students memorize, translate and retranslate and, finally reproduce the crammed information or knowledge in the final examinations. No creativity is witnessed on the part of the students from these vernacular medium schools.

Also, the performance of these students is not as good as compared to the students from the English medium or elite schools. Sarwat and Khursheed (1994:130) made the observation that the students of vernacular schools generally fail in the subject of English.

The reason is that the teachers themselves are not qualified or competent enough to teach English efficiently. This causes poor results in English eventually leading to highest failure percentage in English at matriculation, intermediate and BA examinations. Thus English becomes the biggest hurdle (particularly for the students from rural areas) in the way to getting higher education and the key administrative posts. In its annual report, Federal Public Service Commission (1998:36) reported that English language as the medium of expression in the CSS examination is depriving the students of Urdu medium institutions to compete their counterparts from English medium institutions.

At secondary level, there are two groups of teachers who teach English to the students. One group consists of teachers without a formal language qualification or expertise. They are not subject specialists. They are graduates (minimum qualification) with B. Ed. (Bachelor of Education) Or M.Ed. (Master of Education). These teachers will be termed as teachers with formal education (TFEs).

The other group, introduced by the Punjab Government in selected high schools in the year 2002, is that of English Language Teachers (ELTs). ELTs have masters degree in English language or/and literature and B.Ed. or TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language). ELTs were introduced in the government high schools with the purpose of improving the standard of English language teaching and learning at secondary level. So far no attempt has been made to evaluate the performance of these ELTs. Hence, the study is designed to know how far ELTs, in contrast to their counterparts TFEs, have been successful in promoting effective teaching learning atmosphere and enable the students to secure good grades in English in the secondary school certificate examinations conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE), Lahore.

Objectives of the Study

Following are the objectives of the study:

- The study is designed to investigate the effect of teachers’ academic qualification on students’ academic achievement scores in English at secondary level. Academic achievement in the present study is the performance of the secondary school students in the
subject of English in the annual examination conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE).

- The study will find out the relationship between secondary school teachers’ academic qualification and students’ academic achievement at secondary level.
- To suggest measures that have greater impact on students’ academic achievement.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis of the present study is:

There exists significant difference between the competence of ELTs and TFEs with respect to the teaching of English language.

Research Question

Based upon the hypothesis, following is the research question:

- Is the lack of qualified English Language Teachers at secondary level the cause of low academic achievement scores in English by the students?

Background to the Study

Language teaching has been the primary focus of applied linguistics. Formal instruction does not work in vacuum. School environment, teacher qualifications, curriculum and instructional approaches, and many other factors interact to produce growth in student academic skills and knowledge. There is sufficient empirical evidence that suggests that the achievement of school children relies substantially on the teachers they are assigned. Classroom based research is valid enough to determine whether the learners are receiving appropriate content instruction or not. Pennington (1989:7) says that the quality of teaching must be considered in determining what results can be expected. McMillan (2003:7) describes the importance of classroom assessment in the following words: ‘What is needed is an understanding of how assessment and instruction are interwoven, with new conceptions about what assessment is and how it affects learning’. He further states that teachers make decisions about classroom management based upon the achievement gains. Thus we can say that findings about the relationship between teacher characteristics and student academic achievement scores are important in determining the policy about the teachers as stated by Aenny (1976) that great teachers are defined in terms of their impact on students’ achievement scores.

Teacher characteristics are more strongly related to students’ achievement than school effects (Kiplinger: 1997). Fuller and Clark (1994) remarked ‘what really matters is the teachers’ knowledge of the subject’. Elaborating the importance of teacher knowledge as...
criterion for producing better results in the teaching learning process, Fawns and Nance (1993) state that ‘teacher knowledge, reason and judgment rather than teaching behaviour should be emphasized as the basis of an account of exemplary teaching’. Lafayette (1993) has shown strong correlation between the subject knowledge of the language teacher and the learning outcomes. He argues that a sound command of the target language gives the teacher a high degree of confidence to meet the requirements of the learners ultimately affecting their performance. Wilkins (1974) is of the view that a poor command of English language puts the teacher in a critical situation due to the unpredictable nature of the classroom situation. In communicative language teaching the knowledge of the target language is of paramount importance.

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) describe their observation that if the teachers do not have a practical command of the target language, their poor knowledge of the English sound system, grammar and vocabulary, and poor communication skills, will fail them in performing effectively. Cullen (1994) suggests that communicative language teaching methodology requires the language teacher to have higher level of proficiency in the target language. Thus, with changing trends in the teaching learning process result in particular must be a criterion for a successful language teacher.

In a research conducted by Goldhaber and Brewer (1997), it was found that those mathematics students who received instruction from a teacher with advanced or master’s degrees in mathematics, achieved higher scores as compared to those students whose teachers had no advanced degree or degrees in non-mathematics subjects. In order to investigate whether same relationship holds true for English language teaching or not, the present research was conducted.

**Methodology**

We collected the results of Secondary School Examination for the years 2006, 2007 and 2008. The examinations were conducted by Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Lahore. We selected those three schools where both ELTs and TFEs were involved in the process of English language teaching to secondary school classes (10th grade students). Three ELTs and seven TFEs results were collected from these schools.

The comparative analysis of the results by ELT’s and TFE’s was made to know as to who is producing better results. The results obtained were divided into three categories, i.e., number of successful candidates, candidates obtaining 80% and above marks, and candidates obtaining 70% to 80% marks in the board examinations. The comparison of results was made on the basis of the results of a group rather than individual performances by the students or the teachers.
In order to know about the perceptions of the teachers about teaching learning processes, interviews were also conducted. The questions asked were structured. The questions were based on the classroom concerns taken from Pica (1994) which she referred elsewhere as “the ten most wanted list in language teaching”, (Pica, 1989).

Many of the questions (annexure) focus on the nature of language taught and learnt in the classroom environment, instructional strategies and pattern of classroom organization. Other questions relate to the language used in the class, grammar instruction, role of teacher and students and different instructional materials used in the class.

**Delimitations of the Study**

To keep the study feasible in terms of material resources, it was delimited to:

- The public high schools where ELT’s and TFE’s are teaching.
- The results of 2006, 2007 and 2008 Secondary School Certificate (SSC) Examination conducted by Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE), Lahore were collected from the respective schools.
- The reading comprehension and writing skills of the students were evaluated since the SSC examinations measure only the reading and writing components of the language teaching learning process.
- The data collection for the study was restricted to District Okara only.

**Findings and Discussion**

In order to make the analysis comprehensive and authentic, average performance of the groups (ELTs and TFEs) for past three years (2006, 2007, and 2008) was measured. The results of three consecutive years give us greater insight into the methodology employed by ELTs and TFEs during their interaction with the students in the classroom. The data collected produced the results as shown in the following table:

| Table 1: Showing the collective results of ELTs and TFEs for three years (2006, 2007, 2008) |
|-------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Frequency (Number of Students Appeared)         | ELT %age | TFE %age |
| Number of Successful students securing 33% or above marks | 312 | 83.87 | 501 |
| Number of Students obtaining 80% or above Marks | 33 | 10.58 | 24 |
| Number of Students obtaining Marks from 70% to 80% | 65 | 20.8 | 52 | 10.37 |
The following figure also gives a good insight into comparative analysis of the performance of the ELTs and the TFEs during the past three years:

During the last three years total 1040 students appeared for SSC exam from these schools. Out of 1040 students, 813 (78.17%) students were declared successful based on their minimum academic achievement score 50 out of 150. Apart from this, the pass percentage of the students who received instruction from ELTs is 83.87% (312 out 372 students) which is significantly higher as compared to that of those who received instruction from TFEs which is 75%.

Similarly, the individual achievement gains by the students of ELTs are also significantly higher than those of TFEs. 10.58% (33 out of 312) successful students by ELTs succeed in securing A+ grade that is 80% or above marks in the subject of English. In contrast, only 4.8% (24 out of 501) get A+ grades in English. The number of students who got marks from 70% to 80% also varies significantly between the two groups of teachers. 20.8% students of ELT group fall into this range whereas 10.37% students of the other group succeed in obtaining marks from 70% to 80%.

It is quite obvious from the above results that ELTs are taking lead over the TFEs as regards the performance of the students in the subject of English in the examinations conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education. Whether it is the question of number of passing students or that of higher gains, TFEs fail to compete with their counterparts (ELTs). The results suggest that ELTs prove to be successful in motivating the students to
learn more and are better at using teaching learning strategies appropriately keeping in view the needs of the students.

When interviewed, both ELTs and TFEs agreed to the view that the traditional grammar translation operates well in Pakistani classroom settings where classes are of mixed ability and generally over crowded. Both were convinced to make use of variety of instructional materials other than the prescribed text books. They complained about the lack of access to such helpful sources. ELTs believed in more interactive learning by involving students in different activities conducive to learning whereas the TFEs focus has been absolutely the text book.

As regards the use of the mother tongue in a foreign language classroom, the ELTs were against it and were of the view that the use of target language builds greater confidence among the students in the long run, thus affecting their performance. The TFEs themselves were not that much fluent in English. So they tried to justify the use of mother tongue in their classes. When we asked one of the principals of these schools as to who is good at teaching English to the students, he remarked that ‘good English teacher is that who has good command over the subject … has correct pronunciation and spellings. I can see that English teachers are doing well in discharging their duties’.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The present study suggests that there exists significant difference between the competence of TFEs and ELTs as regards the teaching of English language at secondary level. The study implicates that teachers’ knowledge about the subject to be taught certainly affect their teaching attitude and eventually the performance of the students. Teachers are vital in determining the students’ achievement. Achievement tests can be used to evaluate the teaching programmes.

Average performance of the group facilitates in determining the success of the teaching programme. The study also suggests that the introduction of the ELTs at secondary school level is a good step towards the improvement of the quality of the instruction of English language at secondary level. This policy should be continued and implemented with greater force to improve upon the performance of the students in this particular subject.

**Conclusion**

The study aimed at identifying potential difference between the competence of ELTs and TFEs with respect to students’ achieving good scores in the subject of English at secondary level. The results clearly indicate that provision of qualified ELTs at secondary level certainly affect the performance of the students in the examinations conducted by the board.
The knowledge of the subject is directly proportional to the students’ academic achievement scores. The availability of qualified teachers will result in better learning outcomes.

In the light of the findings of the present article, it is suggested that English language teachers should be properly trained. They should keep themselves abreast with the current researches in the field of language teaching research so that they can have better idea about the basic factors involved in language teaching like the role of student’s motivation, age and aptitude etc. The fields of second language acquisition and English language teaching must be given importance by the universities and higher education department. They should also promote research in these areas.

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Aenny, A. (1976). Are these are Great Teachers? Educational Research Quarterly, (1) 38


Annexure-A

Following ten questions about the beliefs of the teachers were asked during the survey:

1. Does the use of mother tongue hinder second language learning?
2. Are both comprehension and production important for language learning?
3. Should students drill and practice new forms, vocabulary and structures?
4. Is group work helpful in second language learning?
5. Should grammatical instructions be given attention in the class?
6. Does error correction assist the L2 learning?
7. Should accurate pronunciation and accuracy in production be given importance?
8. Should fluency be given any importance in language learning?
9. Does the use of instructional materials help language learning?
10. Should the teacher be facilitator and participant in language classroom?

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What Is Most Important? Fluency or Accuracy? Is Learning a Second Language a Conscious Process?

G. Vijay, M.A., M.Phil.

Is a Second Language Acquired or Learned?

Can any one say, “I learned language logically like Mathematics and other Sciences?” Language learning appears to be a fantasy or some such thing. People who speak the English language say that their learning was purely unconscious. Right from their schooling days, they have been listening, speaking, reading and writing English continuously. Only after this lengthy process, they are able to achieve the state of competency. But they are not confident to point out “Is language learned or acquired?” Though they speak language fluently, they are not aware of the major rules of the grammar. They simply accepted the usages that they were exposed to and unquestioningly imitated the same.

The Goal of This Paper

This paper has the objective of finding out the process which Non-native speakers of English adopt to acquire English as their Second Language. It concentrates on two important factors “fluency and proficiency”. It supports the need for fluency rather than for proficiency. Feedback of the people who use the English language as a Second Language is gathered through interview method and used for the analysis.

Is It a Conscious System?

In spite of many theories introduced relating to language learning, it is still puzzling to think how language skills are acquired. Is it a conscious process? Is it related to the behaviour system? Many students still face difficulty in acquiring English as a second language. What exactly inhibits them? How long will it take to achieve fluency?
Fluency in Second Language

Spoken English training centres assure students that fluency could be installed in them with in a period of six months. They start with basic grammar and end with situational conversations. They devote two hours per day for teaching and training. Probably the trainees would be college students, housewives, and workers who would have crossed the flexible age of acquiring a language but are now interested in improving their career by learning English.

But linguists say that language should be internalized subconsciously so that one can have communicative competence. Ellis (1986:6) says that second language acquisition is the subconscious or conscious process by which a language, except the mother tongue, is learnt in a natural or a mentored set up. It covers the development of phonology, lexis, grammar and pragmatic knowledge.

If it is internalized consciously, only grammatical competence can be achieved. Today’s training centres and educational institutions render only conscious learning process which inhibits learners from achieving fluency as acquisition of accuracy becomes a great focus.

Students are introduced to the basic principles, techniques, and methods of learning a second or foreign language using modern linguistic principles and methods of linguistic description (Thirumalai, 2002).

Accuracy or Fluency?

It is an accepted fact that many educational institutions teach English as a subject rather than as a medium of communication. Right from the junior classes till the higher secondary, teaching grammar is a mandatory practice. Moreover, grammar is taught without stressing its role in real conversations and writings. Students are taught only the tactics of converting one statement into another and fill up the blanks by indentifying certain clues. For instance while teaching “Voice” the trainer teaches them only the rules of converting active to passive or passive to active rather than justifying the applications of those structures in real life usage.

The Police killed the culprit. (active voice)

The culprit was killed by the police. (passive voice)

When a student is given samples like the above, he is able to transform one voice to the other category accurately. But he uses the same in wrong constructions when he faces the real life circumstances. The reason is, he knows only the rules, not its applications.

I was studied yesterday night.

I was not slept.

The Police was arrested the thief.

Such usages are common even at the college level. This shows that accuracy acquired through training is short-lived and it does not have permanency. The intention to establish
accuracy restrains the chance of becoming extemporaneous. It affects thinking and creativity and results in stumbling and pausing in fear of committing mistakes.

So, accuracy may be achieved after acquiring fluency. People who use their mother tongue are not aware of the accuracy of the language. They don’t know the grammar but they are able to speak with good sentence construction. They would not have browsed the dictionary but they know majority of the functional words. If a person achieves fluency and becomes familiar with the patterns of the second language then he or she will automatically use right constructions.

**How is Fluency Achieved?**

Brewster classifies acquisition of language into three stages (Thirumalai, 2002).

i. listening.

ii. mimicry.

ii. reproduction

In the case of first language acquisition, all these stages are involved. The child listens initially and mimics after the necessary structures get imprinted in his or her memory and finally the child produces the utterances adequately.

The early development of language may well have been assisted by some kind of signing…… such as how to use tools...... in an indirect way, tools could have promoted the development of speech. Sounds made at the same time as the gestures might have come to be associated with various activities (Crystal, 1987:291)

Memorization plays a vital role to achieve fluency. When one recites a slogan daily, the script gets imprinted in one’s memory and will last long. This is why still you are able to chant your school prayer even at the age of fifty! All because we learned the script without questioning or doing research, but imitated the source person and made the utterance a part of our habit. Pavlov’s experiment with the dog prove that a concept becomes indelible when it is made a habit. His experiment was: he would ring a bell before giving food to the dog. Whenever the dog heard the bell, it would salivate, even before the food was presented to it. He called it a **conditional response**.

John Watson and B.F.Skinner supported the application of this animal behaviour for language learning. They proved that animal behaviour was formed by a series of rewards and punishments. From this, they promoted the idea that human behaviour could be described using the same model. In applying these principles to language, Skinner theorized that when parents or caretakers hear a child say something that sounds like a word in their language, they reward the child with praise and attention. If there is a mistake they correct the utterance. The child repeats the words and combinations of words that are praised and thus learns the language.
Chomsky's several publications (especially his 1965 exposition Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, MIT Press, 1965) propose that the acquisition of the structure of language depends upon an innate recognition device. He calls it a language acquisition device (LAD). LAD (language acquisition device) benefits from the exposure, however. Language propensity is innate, according to this position. Exposure to the second or subsequent language and continuous practice to use that language are highly essential.

When we hear another language for the first time, it sounds gibberish. After listening to the utterances several times, we slowly begin to recognize at least some of the sound combinations or structure to some extent. In this process, we match the sounds we hear with those sounds we are familiar with in our first language or in the languages we are comfortable with. Thus, fluency does not mean reasoning ability and a person who looks for reasons can not attain fluency easily.

**Method**

**Area chosen**

PSNA College of Engineering and Technology, Dindigul-Tamil Nadu, India, is a reputed institution where students from different countries like Nepal, Bhutan, Singapore, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Korea, and different states of India study together. These students mainly use English for all sorts of communication. The college was found to be the right place for carrying out this research as it has people from different cultural backgrounds whose mother tongue is not English. This helped analyse how these people acquired English as Second Language.

**Interview method**

25 persons of different age groups and different language backgrounds were selected for the initial part of this research. This included the students of Undergraduate and Postgraduate classes, lecturers and professors. They were interviewed about their process of learning English as a second language.

**Findings**

It was found from the interviews that the maximum number of persons said that they learned the language unconsciously. They familiarized themselves with words, phrases and sentence constructions due to continuous reading, writing, and listening for many years, right from their school days. They said that they achieved fluency first and when they grew up they were able to comprehend the syntactic structures of sentence patterns and through this they acquired accuracy.

<table>
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<th>S.No</th>
<th>Age groups of Persons</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
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Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com) 10 : 7 July 2010 G. Vijay, M.A., M.Phil.

What Is Most Important? Fluency or Accuracy? Is Learning a Second Language a Conscious Process?
What Is Most Important? Fluency or Accuracy? Is Learning a Second Language a Conscious Process?

<table>
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<th>18-20 yrs</th>
<th>20-25 yrs</th>
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</table>

A- I learned each and every aspect of the language carefully

B- I learned with partial carefulness

C- I do not know

It was found that 16 out of 25 persons including both undergraduate and post graduate students gave their responses with some puzzling tone that their learning process was unconscious. They said “it came automatically” as they had many opportunities to listen and speak. It is interesting to know from the teachers (lecturers) that their acquisition of language was also unconscious and that, only after they chose their profession and joined the workforce, their learning became conscious. 14 to 25 lecturers supported described their learning of English as a second language as unconscious learning of the language. At the higher level, however, the professors were not ready to discuss and reveal their process of learning. Their title/designation probably prohibited them from saying that their learning too was unconscious. They assumed that it was a mockery for any person to say that he or she was not aware of their learning process. But 10 to 25 professors were frank to say that their learning of the language was purely unconscious.

**Limitations**

The study was limited to 25 speakers in each age group chosen particularly at the PSNACollege of Engineering and Technology, Dindigul. This choice has imposed certain limitations on the results of the study:

- Results are bound to the particular parameters of the chosen students, lecturers and professors in that college.
- A wider and larger number would help for further generalization.
- This is only a sort of an informatical study. Stricter and inter-related design will help further.

**To Conclude**

As a conclusion of this paper, I propose that further research needs to be undertaken, where more number of speakers with diverse backgrounds and skill in English could be interviewed from different regions. The paper also recommends for the behavioural method of language
teaching and learning up to certain point of time to get the students exposed to the basic contents and structures of the language. Later on, inculcating/achieving accuracy must be attempted.

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Let Us Learn from Our Standard 1 Textbook, Again!  
A Brief Note on the New Standard 1 Tamil Textbook in Tamilnadu

M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

New Tamil Textbooks in the Internet

The Government of Tamilnadu has published several language textbooks through their website [http://www.textbooksonline.tn.nic.in/](http://www.textbooksonline.tn.nic.in/). This, indeed, is a welcome step. And this initiative has received great appreciation mostly from Tamils living and working abroad, among others, as seen from the feedback the initiative has received in the website. Language textbooks in Tamil, English, Kannada, Malayalam, Telugu and Urdu are available online for “viewing purpose.” These textbooks are presented in pdf format.

However, it looks like that this website is not updated and so we do not have access to the most recently produced textbooks for our review here. I went through various links provided in Google search to find out whether the latest series for the current year have been posted. But I could not locate the link, if current year books have been posted.
In view of the above, my comments presented here should be related only to the textbooks series published in 2007. In this sense, this review is rather very late and may not even be found wholly useful.

However, I would like to present the review here with the hope that when I get an opportunity to view the 2010 books in print in September this year, I will be able to make a comparison of the 2007 series with the 2010 series, so that we all can gain clarity of the issues relating to textbook production in complex Indian languages such as Tamil. Languages like Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam, Hindi and Bengali pose many and varied challenges to textbook writers and producers.

The Tamil textbooks, for example, have the imperative need to emphasize the historical continuity with its earlier stages, and with issues such as diglossia (primarily distinctions between spoken and written forms of the language), issues of pronunciation (relating to regional and social variations and first generation literacy, and in relation to Tamil script, etc.) that could change the entire direction of textbooks and the language. In addition, issues relating to code shift and code switching, etc., also need to be taken care of. All these should be considered even as we carefully manage to take care of the current linguistic, cognitive, social, and educational needs of children.

**Now, for the 2007 series Tamil Standard 1 Textbook**

The color scheme is pleasing, and the visuals are good also. Hopefully, the Government of Tamilnadu printing and layout managers will have a look at the Tamil textbooks designed by the Singapore Government, and emulate the excellent production of visuals in those textbooks. Font sizes are well chosen, and the lines are properly arranged in the print.

By and large this 2007 production is greatly improved from the earlier versions of Tamil textbooks for beginners.

**A Brief Review of the Textbook – What Do Children Bring With Them?**

This brief article discusses some of the features of the Tamil Textbook intended for Standard 1. Students in this grade usually hail from homes that provide Tamil as the language of early childhood experience to their children. In a good number of cases, such homes could be bilingual, where Tamil, however, plays a very crucial role as the language of immediate experience and transactions outside the home. Thus, children (with this background) entering
Standard 1 normally have already acquired the contours of Tamil as a spoken language, using which these children meet their immediate personal needs.

There may be exceptions to the above situation, but, for the review of Standard 1 textbook, I’d like to assume that vast majority of children may belong to the above category.

**What Should a Review Focus Upon?**

And this immediately takes us to an important fact: spoken language is already established to some extent, and, so because of this reason, what connection does spoken language have with the textbook offered to these children as mandatory course work in Tamil? Are we not generally expected, in all matters, to proceed from the familiar to the unfamiliar, from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex, etc.?

In addition, we also need to review whether selection, gradation and presentation of content and language elements included/presented in the textbook are coherent, cogent, and appropriate to the milestones of cognitive and linguistic learning at this age.

We need to consider whether the contents and language elements intended to be taught/conveyed to children can be handled by the teachers. What learning aids are provided to and/or asked to be prepared by the teachers so that they can use these to help children “learn with ease,” an important goal of the textbook, as claimed by the publishers.

**The Burden of Preliminary Pages**

Ten pages in the beginning (out of the total of 97 pages) are devoted to the presentation of preliminary information such as the National Anthem, Vande Mataram, Declaration of and Allegiance to National Integration, Greetings to Mother Tamil, the Vow Students are expected to take before or in the presence of Bharat Mata (Mother India), one page foreword by the producers of the textbook, followed by the list of contents as well as a list of skills to be imparted in the lessons.

10.3% of the textbook thus is devoted to such information. If 500,000 copies of this textbook were printed, 500,000 pages would be devoted to such preliminaries. It is for the Government to consider how they can enforce some economy here; especially some of the materials are well beyond the understanding of Standard 1 children. Most of this information can be part of the
guidelines given to the teachers, who would then include the information as part of teaching activity.

**Disconnect in Preliminary Pages**

Unfortunately there is some serious disconnect here in the design of these pages. For example, there is a translation in Tamil for the National Anthem, but there is no such thing for Vande Mataram. Likewise, to help better comprehension and appreciation, I would welcome a prose rendering of the Greetings to Mother Tamil, if these are to be necessarily included in the textbook. Why should we announce the caste name of the author of the poem Greetings to Mother Tamil, especially when the Government did not use this device to name a university after his name?

The Foreword by the producers of the textbook ("To the Teachers") could have been written in a style with simple Tamil words and short sentences for better comprehension and follow up work by the teachers. If the words chosen and the style adopted were close to the spoken language, but with written language endings, teachers will be more at home with the content and its application. It will be also easier to impart to small children.

It appears strange to me that the producers of the textbook had to resort to the use of English words to bring out clearly what they mean by some of the ideas they present under the section **List of Skills**. Do they expect their First Standard teachers to grasp the meaning of what they say only through the help of this additional supply of English words? We can easily compose what is intended using simple Tamil words and straightforward sentences, without taking the help of English words and phrases given in parentheses.

**Disconnect Between Instructions**

There is also some other disconnect as well: There is certainly an attempt to present the lessons in simple Tamil (but this has not been done adequately to match the performance skills of the beginners), but the instructions presumably intended for the teachers are in high flown Tamil avoiding simple words and familiar verb endings. Why should this be so? Especially when most parents who may like to help their children with their lessons will have to do some extra work to understand what the producers want their children to achieve. What do the producers of the textbook mean by the distinction between *uRaiyaaTal* and *vacanam* as these terms relate to lesson 4 according to the List of Skills on page ix?
Excessive Emphasis on the Acquisition of Words

There is greater emphasis on the acquisition of vocabulary. Acquisition and use of one thousand words in a formal setting, even if most of these words are already known to children at the spoken level, is an ambitious goal.

What needs to be done is to relate the acquisition of vocabulary to the acquisition of other things such as language skills including writing. Do the producers want the children actually know how to read and write 1000 words in the First Standard itself? Can we focus on active and passive vocabulary distinction and relate vocabulary acquisition to acquisition of cognitive abilities, etc., through the use of the mother tongue?

Lesser number of new vocabulary, more use of the vocabulary already known to the children employed in learning other language skills, avoidance of words not in use in the current language, avoidance of words with multiple meanings, use of the same word to refer to the same action and/object (avoidance of synonyms), etc. may be considered here.

Issues of Pronunciation

The textbook does not deal with the issues of pronunciation at the spoken as well as the written level. This is an important aspect that Tamil textbooks and Tamil teachers should deal with right from the beginning. Children come with their own home speech habits. They are now initiated into reading and writing that require a shift from the home speech habits to a different style. This involves appropriate pronunciation of the lateral sounds, nasal sounds and the trills in the Tamil script.

Because of the influence of regional and social dialects (and some other factors), many parents are not in a position to equip their children with the appropriate pronunciation of the above listed phonetic elements attached to specific letters of the Tamil script. Coalescence has resulted in the loss of several distinct features of these sounds.

Both teachers and parents are in a bind here. Many teachers are also not fully aware of the coalescence of sounds in their speech. So, elementary school textbooks need to focus on this important aspect to train children to speak with appropriate pronunciation of the letters of the Tamil script. This textbook does not give adequate attention to this problem.

Not an Easy Task – Envisioning Transfer and Building Bridges
Writing any textbook is not an easy task. So many factors are involved in the production of language textbooks. In this sense, this textbook is certainly an improvement over others of the past.

Total awareness of the complexity is hard to achieve especially when we are stuck with the notion that only high flown language style is the most appropriate for use in textbooks. We really need to devise strategies that will take care of the linguistic and cognitive requirements of our children even as we also include a carefully planned transfer from the home speech habits to standard spoken language with clear distinctions between sounds to correct spelling and reading pronunciation at the writing level. In addition, Tamil teachers should accept the burden of helping children maintain the age-old continue to between various stages of Tamil, from Chemmozhi to modern Tamil.

We are called upon to build a bridge through the use of appropriate steps between stages of the language, between styles, between home speech habits to spoken and written standards, etc. But our primary focus is to enable our children to use the current idiom effectively for all practical purposes.

I look forward to presenting a comparison between the 2007 series and 2010 series in my next report.

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Eugene O’Neill’s The Hairy Ape – An American Expressionistic Play

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A Definition of expressionism

A definition of expressionism is called for here at the outset. The following quote reflects the approach taken in this paper: Expressionism is “an art movement early in the 20th century; the artist's subjective expression of inner experiences was emphasized; an inner feeling was expressed through a distorted rendition of reality.” wordnetweb.princeton.edu/perl/webwn.

Eugene O’Neill’s Life and Its Impact on His Plays

Eugene O’Neill’s attitude towards science is thought-provoking. He felt science had cut Man away from his religious faith. The machine era has brought wealth to America. Americans’ need for material comforts have been well provided for. But, at the same time, industrialization has destroyed his work satisfaction. His sense of security and belonging has been shaken. Lacking some sustaining faith, he feels lonely. This fundamental problem is aggravated in the case of an American immigrant. His sense of alienation becomes pronounced. O’Neill himself, having descended from an Irish immigrant family, felt this acutely.

This loss of Faith even when we have assumed Science to be our new God is something that playwrights around the world need to portray in their plays according to several critics. For example, Krutch writes: “It seems to me that anyone trying to do big work now-a-days must have this subject behind all the little subjects of his
plays or novels, or he is scribbling around the surface of things.” (J. W. Krutch, *The American Drama Since 1918*, page 92.)

**An Expressionistic Play**

O’Neill’s artistic achievement is revealed in his expressionistic play, *The Hairy Ape*. The play was written in 1921 and was produced in 1922 for the first time. Immigration from Europe was still on, and industrial unrest amidst great expansion was easily noticed. In some sense, America was yet to achieve its super-eminence in economic activities. Talk of socialism was not yet a taboo.

This play deals with the theme of social alienation and search for identity or belonging. Yank, the hero of *The Hairy Ape* is a representative of modern workers, who felt socially alienated and have been continuously in search of their own identity. As a result of industrialization man has lost his sense of harmony with nature. Hence he is condemning the whole of machine civilization because it has affected his psychological wellbeing. It has robbed him of his pride in his work.

**Modern Man**

In his “Eugene O’Neill: A Critical Study”, S.K. Winther describes the plight of modern man in the following manner.

“Man’s work is a necessary part of his personality; it is an extension of his ego; it makes him feel he is a necessary part of the life of the world in which he lives. Modern industry tends to destroy this psychological counterpart of work…. and it leaves the worker a nervous, irritable and a dissatisfied misfit. Yank was such a worker, and at the same time conscious of the thing he had lost. He didn’t want a job simply because it would be a means to earning a living; he wanted a job in which he could live.” (S. K. Winther, *Eugene O’Neill: A Critical Study*. page 27)

The immediate occasion that led to the writing of Yank’s story was the unexpected suicide of O’Neill’s stokehole chum Driscoll.

It is, however, a well known fact that *The Hairy Ape* is based not only on Driscoll, but on the playwright as well. Biographers like Louis Sheaffer attest to this fact. Eugene O’Neill was a man forever haunted by feelings of not belonging. Unlike his father, he was acutely conscious of his “Irish identity” and the resultant problems in an “alien country”. Moreover his mother’s drug addiction and his actor father’s rootless way of life did not brighten things for him. In *A Long Day’s Journey Into Night* – a highly autobiographical play – he tells his essential story in a few words.

> It was a great mistake my being born a man, I would have been much more successful as a seagull or a fish. As it is I will always be a stranger who never feels at home, who does not really want and is not really wanted, who can never belong, who must always be a little in love with death! (Louis Sheaffer, *O’Neill: Son and Playwright*, page 25)
The Story

When the play opens, Yank has already identified himself with “steel” which symbolizes motion and speed and thus symbolizes life for Yank.

He declares:

I’m smoke and express trains and steamers and factory whistles …… And I’m what makes iron into steel; steel dat stands for the whole thing! And I’m steel-steel-steel! I’m de muscles in steel, de punch behind it!” *(The Hairy Ape: A Comedy of Ancient and Modern Life in Eight Scenes. The Modern Library of the World’s Best Books, New York, page 98.)*

His repetitive and emphatic assertion “I’m steel-steel-steel” has a note of exultation in it. He feels he is essential for the movement of the ship. This gives him a sense of being needed, of “belonging”.

On the other hand, Paddy, the Irish stoker yearns for the past, for the grand old days of the sailing ships:

“T was them days a ship was part of the sea and a man was part of a ship, and the sea joined all together and made it one”. *(The Hairy Ape, page 99.)*

But to Yank this is all just “crazy tripe” and he dismisses Paddy as out of date so that he doesn’t “belong no more”. To Long’s assertions that the stokers are all condemned as slaves to the dungeons of hell because of the “damned capitalist class”, Yank’s answer is characteristic. He asserts: “It takes a man to work in hell” and as for being slaves, -

“Slaves hell! We run de whole works. All de rich guys dat think dey’re somep’n dey aint nothing! Dey don’t belong. But us guys, we’re in de move, we’re at de bottom de whole ting in us.” *(The Hairy Ape, page 199)*

Drastic Encounter

So, neither Paddy nor the folks on the deck “belong”. Then suddenly Yank’s illusion that he is “part of the engine, the moving force behind it” is shattered. This devastating experience comes to him in the form of Mildred. She is one of those who are “devoid of speed and motion” since she is the daughter of a business tycoon. Yet when she confronts Yank, she calls him “a filthy beast”. Yank feels insulted and is very much upset. He tries in vain to take revenge on her. His antagonism arises not out of jealousy for her wealth. Nor is he class conscious like Long. His anger is because he is being refused the recognition due to him as a man. He has been robbed of his sense of belonging. His manhood has been spurned by Mildred. He has been called a “brute” for the same physical strength on which he prided himself.
The Conflict

Consequently, there is a conflict within him. Since his earlier illusion of “belonging” is shattered, he goes in search of his identity. His encounter with the lifeless “automatons” of Fifth Avenue proves to him that he cannot “belong” to the aristocratic class of Mildred. He shares not their mechanical and artificial way of life. His encounter with I.W.W. reveals to him the fact that neither can he “belong” to the worker class. He is an individualist and not a party man. His desire to blow up all the steel “in de world” results in his getting thrown out.

The Realization of Not Belonging Anywhere: “Even him didn’t tink I belonged.”

It is now that he realizes the fact that he “belongs” nowhere. He receives the knowledge that he is no more the driving force behind the engines. Steel is no more a power within him, but a prison around him. Steel makes the ship which represents power, but it also makes the cage in which Yank is imprisoned. He discovers that it is not he who is steel but Mildred’s “old man” who makes half de steel in de world”. This predicament he describes eloquently thus:

I ain’t got no past to tink on, nor nothing dat’s comin on’y whats’ now and dat don’t belong … I ain’t no earth and I aint in heaven, get me? I’m in de middle takin all de worst punches from bot’ of ‘em. (The Hairy Ape, page 258.)

Groping blindly in “de dark” he asks, “Where do I get off say, where do I go from here?” The policeman’s cryptic “to Hell” appears to be the most fitting reply.

Ironically enough, Yank ends up at the zoo. Creeping close to the caged gorilla, he asks plaintively, “Ain’t we bot’ members of de same club, de Hairy Apes?” To his utter dismay he realizes that even the brotherhood of apes is denied him. It is not only the aristocratic and the working classes that repel him.

Even the “hairy apes” do not accept him. Dying in the murderous embrace of the gorilla, Yank realizes this horrible truth – “Even him didn’t tink I belonged.”

Yank is thus a representative of modern man, who has lost his sense of primordial harmony.

O’Neill on Yank’s Condition

O’Neill himself has explained Yank’s condition in a letter to “New York Herald Tribune” thus:

“The Hairy Ape” was propaganda in the sense that it was a symbol of man, who has lost his old harmony with nature, harmony which he used to have as an animal and has not yet acquired in a spiritual way. Thus, not being able to find it on earth nor in heaven he’s in the middle trying to make peace, taking the “worst punches from bot’ of ‘em”. Yank can’t
go forward and so he tries to go backward. This is what his shaking hands with the gorilla meant. But he can’t go back to “belonging” either. (Doris V. Talk: Eugene O’Neill and the Tragic Tension, page 72.)

Notable Distortions of Normal Human Condition

The setting of the play dictated through the playwright’s stage directions is a notable distortion of normal human condition. The forecastle scene is described as crowded with men “shouting, cursing, laughing, singing – the ceiling crushes down upon the men’s heads”. This below deck setting powerfully conveys the inhuman mechanistic nature of Yank’s universe. Scenes one and four set in the firemen’s forecastle and scene three set in the stokehole of the ship recall the underworld. O’Neill himself asserts in the opening scene’s stage direction thus:

The treatment of this scene or of any other scene in the play, should by no means be naturalistic. The effect sought after is a cramped space in the bowels of a ship, imprisoned by white steel. (The Hairy Ape, page 185.)

Another set of powerful distortions involves the degradation of the human race itself. O’Neill, introducing his characters in the opening scene, declares,

They cannot stand upright. This accentuates the natural stooping posture which shoveling coal and the resultant overdevelopment of back and shoulder muscles have given them. The men themselves should resemble those pictures in which the appearance of the Neanderthal Man is guessed at. (The Hairy Ape, page 186.)

In scene three he goes one step further describing them, “outlined in silhouette in the crouching, inhuman attitudes of chained gorillas.”

The final action of the play where Yank attempts to identify himself with the gorilla at the zoo is yet another horrible distortion. The very evolution of man is distorted here. Yank exclaims

Sure you’re de best off! You can’t tink. Can yuh? Yuh can’t talk neider … But you, yuhre at de bottom. You belong! Sure! Yuhre de on’y one in de world dat does, yuh lucky stiff! And dat’s why dey gother put yuh in a cage. See? (The Hairy Ape, page 258.)

The reaction of the stokers to the Engineer’s whistle is identical. When the bell sounds, all the men jump up mechanically. They “file through the door” silently very much “like a prisoner’s lock up.”

Becoming an Ape in Several Stages

Yank, incidentally, is the mask-name for Robert Smith. He is called Yank suggesting the fact that he stands for Yankee.
A more significant aspect of the mask is his nickname that gives the title to the play. He is “the hairy ape”. The stage direction in scene three describes him “pounding on his chest gorilla-like.” In the next scene, in Paddy’s fancy he becomes “a queerer kind of baboon than ever you’d find in darkest Africy.” By scene six, when he is put in prison for disturbing the traffic on the Fifth Avenue, he begins to think himself an ape. In scene seven, the I.W.W. secretary contemptuously calls him “a brainless ape”. Finally he identifies himself as “hairy ape” in his desperate bid “to belong”. And he dies in the process.

The crowd from the church enter from the right sauntering slowly and affectedly, ther’ heads held stiffly up, looking neither right nor left, talking in toneless simpering voices … A procession of marionettes, yet with something of the relentless horror of Frankenstein in their detached, mechanical unawareness. (*The Hairy Ape*, page 231.)

**The Mechanical and Artificial Life of the Rich**

The mechanical and artificial life of the rich is presented. These people care a fig for the poor and suffering. They are not even aware of the physical presence of Yank, let alone his tormented inner self. Even when Yank bumps against them and hits them, the victims remain strangely unaffected. They move on with polite gestures and “I beg your pardon.” It is he who “recoils after each collision”. This type of action shows how incapable those people are in understanding the plight of Yank.

Yank’s confrontation with Mildred triggers off his journey to the Fifth Avenue and I.W.W. But these successive encounters prove to him that he belongs neither to the capitalist nor the working class. He discovers that the source of his trouble is not outside but it is in himself.

Dis fing’ in your inside, but it ain’t in your belly … It’s way down at de bottom. Yuh can’t grab it, and yuh can’t stop it … I don’t tick, see? (*The Hairy Ape*, page 258).

**Ultimate Relief in the Brotherhood of the Gorilla**

It is this ultimate recognition that goads him to seek the brotherhood of the gorilla. The backward journey of Yank from a modern civilized man to that of a primitive ape thus becomes almost complete. But finally he realizes, he doesn’t “belong” even to this ape.

Apart from the symbolic aspect of the character, O’Neill also makes use of particular symbols like “steel” and “monkey-fur.” The monkey-fur is displayed in the steel glass showcase. The play is centred around the irony of self recognition in this symbol. It symbolizes Yank’s regression from the powerhouse to the animal house.

O’Neill’s language becomes explosive, clipped and abounding in repetitions. Certain expressions like “I belong”, “I’ll fix her”, “Im de end” and “Dat’s me” are often
repeated. These clipped and truncated phrases effectively bring to the reader “a sense of the storm and stress”.

Thus, Eugene O’Neill can rightly be regarded as one of the masters of American Literature who made the technique of expressionism popular.

References


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