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**Interference of Mappila Dialect in the Standard Malayalam Language –
with special reference to the writing performance of Primary School Children**

Saidalavi C.

Abstract

This paper is based on a small-scale study on the impact of Mappila Malayalam dialect forms on the writing ability of the standard Malayalam language of Upper Primary School Students in the Malappuram district, where Mappila dialect is prominent. The study collects the nonstandard Mappila Malayalam occurrences that appeared in the students writing. It also classifies this occurrence into different linguistic categories (phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical) in an effort to find out outstanding problems for each category. Findings indicate a significant positive correlation between degrees of Mappila Dialect interference in the writing of standard Malayalam. Such findings can be useful in gaining a better insight into the issues of language in education and for the preparation of appropriate teaching material that can facilitate the reduction of non standard occurrences in the writing of the student.

Introduction

Variation in language is a part of a well-organized and structured language system, occurring in specific linguistic contexts. Since structured variation of this kind is unconscious, it is likely to be beyond our conscious control, and therefore it is naive in the extreme to suppose that children

could be taught to readily substitute one form for another. All over the world it is found that the mass language and the official language are unrelated.

The 'standard' is the variety of language used in writing. It is the language of media, commerce and administration. The language used for educational purpose is not the one they use in their daily life and at home. Thus it offers a great opportunity for the investigator to find out the relationship between dialect and linguistic competencies in standard language. The problem for dialect speakers with oral and written language production was mainly due to the interference of the dialect with the standard. Although the dialect interference is tended to decrease during their course of education, it continues to be an important source of error up to university level of education.

The present study attempts to identify the interference of the Mappila dialect of Malayalam in the writing performance of standard Malayalam language among primary school students and to classify these dialect elements in to different linguistic categories- phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical. It is hoped that the finding may contribute to a better understanding to the phenomenon of dialect interference in the writing skill of students and for the preparation of the appropriate materials that may facilitate the reduction of dialectic elements in the writing of the standard Malayalam language.

The students using Mappila dialect of Malayalam often found difficulty in conceiving ideas through the highly Sanskritized standard Malayalam used in text books.

For example:-

1. *Drishti gocharamallatha* (standard Malayalam usage in science text book)
2. *Kannukondu kananpattatha* (common usage)

Both the words are used to signify "the one that can not be seen through eye". The second one is easier for the student to conceive the idea. Owing to the extreme influence of their dialect student reflexively omit the feature of standard Malayalam and prefer their dialectic feature even in the written performance of the language.

Features of Mappila Dialect of Malayalam

The Malayalam language spoken by the Mappila Muslim community of Kerala is called Mappila dialect of Malayalam or simply as *Mappila Malayalam*.

The dialect is extensively spoken in the north Malabar region of Kerala i.e. in the districts of Malappuram Kozhikode, Kannur, Kasaragode, Trissur and Palakkad. The Mappila Malayalam shows deep influence of the Arabic language. Thus the dialect is a little bit different from the mainstream Malayalam.

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It should also be noted that Mappila dialect of Malayalam was highly influenced by Arabi Malayalam. Specifically, Arabi Malayalam is a *mixed language*, the result of contact between the language of the Kerala and Arabia. It followed the grammar and syntax of Malayalam. But its vocabulary included words from Arabic, Urdu and Tamil. It was written in Arabic script, with some new symbols to denote unfamiliar Malayalam consonants.

Arabi –Malayalam script was the chief medium of education for the Malabar Muslim and among a large section of Mappilas, still it is a medium of instruction in Madrasa. It helped them to preserve, though indirectly, the purity attributed to Arabic. Matters related to religious belief and code of conduct were taught and assimilated in this medium.

The use of this script was not confined to religious instruction. In due course it entered into the daily life of the people. When Mappilas began to express their thought and feeling through this medium, it acquired a literary dimension. Many words alien to the spoken language of the Mappilas can be encountered in these literary writings. “Arabi-Malayalam has enriched Malayalam language, by developing a literary vehicle of its own, known as Mappila literature. It consists of both prose and poetical literature. Prose composition composed of the work on religion, history and stories etc., many of the texts for private Madrasas is still in Arabi-Malayalam. But it is poetical literature in Arabi-Malayalam generally known as Mappilapattu, that has entered to the massed by its melody and facile expression.” (Ibrahim Kunhu A P, 1989:99)

Arabic Malayalam is still very much alive in Malabar. Even though the number of printing press devoted to this script has been dwindling over the years, books and periodicals are still being published. Even today the medium of instruction in more than 6000 Madrasas (religious institution for children) run by Samasta Kerala Islam Matha Vidyabhasa Board continue to be Arabic Malayalam. (Dr Abdul Hameed V P 2007:170)

Majority of the Mappila students are getting Madrassa Education in Arabi-Malayalam medium and it influences their dialect and also the linguistic performance. In the oral performance, the students automatically switched-off to the local dialect.

In spite of having an interactive life with other community, the intonation of the most of the Muslims, even today are widely distinct from the rest. It is very difficult even for the member of other community in the same region to comprehend the intonation and accent of the Muslims. In their dialect there are several linguistic elements borrowed from Arabic. (Panikkar G K: 1973).

Dr. Usha Namboothirippadu (Samoohya Bhasha Shastram (mal) 1994:69) noted the following differences of Mappila Malayalam, when compared with other dialect and standard form of Malayalam

1. The absence of the following consonants

Malayalam	Unicode name	Transliteration
ഷ	SSA	sś or sh
ശ	SHA	ş or s
ഴ	ZHA	ġ or zh

2. The absence of voiced aspirated sounds
3. Two peculiar phonemes i.e., /f/ and /L/ as in *kafir* and *allah*
4. ഴ /va/ is often pronounced as /ba/
5. ഴ /ġ/ is transformed to ഴ /ya/ or ശ /ga/

The present study does not aim to explore all the features of the Mappila Malayalam. It concentrated on categorizing the dialect features which often interfere in the written performance of standard Malayalam.

Method of Study

The study is conducted in January 2009 at Government Higher Secondary School, Kottappuram, Malappuram, among 80 students of the class VI (at the age group of 11-12) of Upper Primary section. The school is selected randomly among the list of schools situated in the area where Mappila dialect is prominent. This age range was chosen because research suggests that it is the stage where children show increasing independence in their writing and a growing awareness of different genres and writing techniques. The written performance of the students, who have opted ARABIC as the first language, have been getting Madrasa Education through the medium of Arabi-Malayalam and are using Mappila dialect, is analyzed.

With the permission of the school principal and the cooperation of respective class teachers, the study was conducted within the class rooms. The students were asked to prepare a write-up on any topic of their interest such as stories, memories, etc.

The pupils were allowed to plan and revise the topic in order to encourage them to express themselves freely and they were asked to work independently. The average length of the writing produced by the children was about 150 words.

Limitation of the Study

A limitation of the study was the smaller number of the classes used (two) and the validity of these classes in representing the entire students who use Mappila dialect. Even so, the result reveals the following findings.

Evaluation of the Students Performance and Classification of Dialect Occurrences

The following comments can be made in the respective categories of dialectic occurrences.

Phonological Features

Phonological differences could be comparatively rare, partly because the differences in phonology are actually reflected in the oral rather than the written performance of the student. But the writings produced by the students reveal a lot of occurrences as a sign of their phonological features. Some examples are cited below.

Students tend to write the words in standard Malayalam as they pronounce it in their dialect. From the point of view of standard language, this could be considered as mere spelling mistakes, but these occurrences are inevitable reflection of Mappila dialect.

As a result of the lower level of Sanskritization occurred in Arabi-Malayalam, Mappilas prefer a form of simplified pronunciations and discard aspirated sounds.

There is a tendency to delete the existing sound, create new sounds and substitute a new sound in the place old one in a peculiar way.

Deletion of Sounds

Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

Eḷunettu—eneettu (Woke up)

neech

Avar (they)

or

Avide (There)

Au

The first sound in the *avide*, *a* is deleted and *va* is subjected to labialization and transformed to *u*

Creation of New Sound

In some cases one or more sounds are added

E.g. Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

school

uschool

oppam

opparam

Substitution of New Sounds

E.g. Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

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valya
vali
vangi
irachi

balya
vayi
mangi
erachi

Among these examples the substitute of **va** to **ba** is more frequent

Syntactic Features

In Standard Malayalam language the suffixes used to denote Dative (*udhesika*) case are either *kku* or *nu*. But in Mappila Malayalam it is used altogether in some cases which are reflected in the pupil's writing.

E.g. Standard Malayalam
Avanu

Mappila Malayalam
avanukku/ avanikku

Another tendency in this regard is to use *ikku* instead of *kku*

In genitive case (*sambandhika*) the suffix *nre* (*nre*) is normally used with the words end in the syllable *en*. In Mappila Malayalam several exceptions are found and it is evident in the scripts.

E.g. Standard Malayalam
Umma+ ude = Ummayude

Mappila Malayalam
Umma+nre= ummaante

The students prefer the suffix *nre* instead of *ude* in their written language as in the case of their oral language.

Suffix for Present Perfect Tense

E.g. Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

Ittund – vannittund

inu-ikkunu (vannunu / vannukkunu)

Another peculiar usage noted in the pupils' write up is the suffix '***aare***'. To denote the "after doing something", the common usage in standard Malayalam is '*athinusehsam*'. This is signified in Mappila Malayalam using '*aare*'.

E.g. Standard Malayalam
Kandathinusehsam

Mappila Malayalam
Kandare

The post position (*anuparayogam*) used in past form of verb *irunnu* become *ini*

E.g. Standard Malayalam
Kandirunnu

Mappila Malayalam
kandeeni

Morphological Features

In Subordinate Clause, *appol* (when) is transformed to *appam*.

E.g. Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

1. *Kandappol* (when I saw)

Kandappam

2. *Ummantode* (at the home of mother)

Ummante avide

ummantode

In standard Malayalam *avide* means 'there', but in Mappila Malayalam when added with *ummante* it attains a new meaning to convey the meaning of home.

Semantic Features

Certain terms used in standard Malayalam is altogether used with an entirely different meaning in Mappila Malayalam.

E.g. Standard Malayalam

Mappila Malayalam

Kura/kora (barking of the dog)

cough

Arambham (beginning). In addition with 'beginning' it also signifies the meaning such as *new*, *happiness*, *enthusiasm* etc,

Lexical Features

Some words peculiar only to Mappila Malayalam are also used in the writing of the students.

E.g. *thone* (many), *kachara* (dispute), *aittal* (such a type).

Result of the Study

The performance of the student is measured in total number of dialect interference per script and it is found that student committed an average 9 error due to the dialect interference. The average words per script were 150.

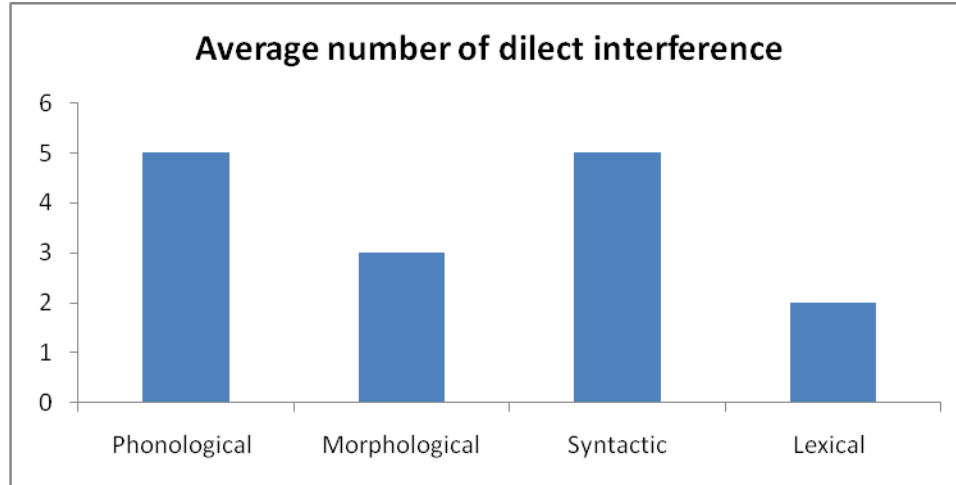
Then the errors due to the dialect interference are classified into four categories-- phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical. On average, **5** phonological, **3** morphological, **5** syntactic and **2** lexical features of Mappila dialect is reflected per script. The result of this analysis is shown in the following figure.

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In conclusion, I would like to state that the phonology and syntax are the two main areas which students having Mappila dialect found difficulties with standard Malayalam. Morphological and lexical features of the dialect are also directly reflected in their writing. It is, therefore recommended that the primary school teachers can assist their student in overcoming the problem of non-standard usage by developing various appropriate learning tasks.

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**Effect of Environmental Education to School Children Through
Animation Based Educational Video**

Anand Lenin Vethanayagam, Ph.D.
F. S. R. Hemalatha, M.Phil. Researcher Scholar

Abstract

The researchers have developed an animation based educational video on Global Warming and Climate Change. It was screened and elaborately discussed with selected school children in Coimbatore. Experimental method was used in this study to study the effect between control and experimental group of students. For this study, forty samples were taken from fourth and fifth standard students of the selected schools in Coimbatore city.

The primary data, results and analysis of the study clearly shows that the school curriculum, teaching methodology and exam system provide theoretical knowledge rather than demanding productive actions.

The video, with its content, preparation and presentation, eliminated the regular routine teaching system and made them react and respond towards the environment. Its reach was greater than the conventional method of delivering content. It influenced the school students to react towards global warming.

The conventional system of education in India reduces the intensity and essence of the subject with its major concentration on theoretical aspects and examination. At the grass root level, technology-oriented education like animated video effectively influences the students to act.

The results clearly show that at knowledge level there is no significant difference between the experiment and controlled group of students. But at the application level there is a significant difference between the experiment and controlled group of students because communication with new technology-based education and application-based curriculum motivate the students to respond to the burning issues of global warming and climate change.

Introduction

Media plays the role of a facilitator of development, disseminator of information and an agent of change in the society. It plays a key role in spreading the true message of issues of environmental awareness and presenting it consciously.

In order to bring about environmental awareness and promote environmental education among all sections of the society, a scheme was launched in 1983-'84.

The aim of this study is to measure the effect of media in creating environmental awareness among school students. It is common practice that any social change to be introduced to the society is incorporated in the school curriculum with an assumption that it will lead to generational change.

The Focus of This Study

In the present scenario of school education, however, teachers, parents and students are more focused on high scores and results. So, the purpose of the curriculum has failed in many aspects. Curriculum in the current classroom setup is highly rigid, having very little or no scope for experimentation, firsthand experience, divergent thinking and tactic knowledge and is devoid of creativity, decision-making and problem solving ability. In the same manner environmental subject is incorporated in the school curriculum from 1980's.

Previous researches about environmental issues among school students clearly showed that at the knowledge level, the scores obtained by school students were above average. At the same time questions arose as to how much students applied their knowledge to meet practical ends, and what they have really learned and fully comprehended about environment in their day today life. Through this preliminary study the researchers have tried to understand the fact behind the innovative approach of teaching in comparison with conventional teaching - learning process. The goal was to measure how much the animation-based educational video could effectively motivate the students to act on environmental issues. The facts were measured.

Here we have employed certain technical terms and researchable concepts. These have to be defined delimiting their shades of operational meaning which will, in turn, improve the readability of the present work.

Explanation of Terms Used

The term “Educational Video” refers to the video which was purposefully designed and developed to educate the school children between the age group 7 and 11 years, which comes under Piaget’s third stage of cognitive development called as concrete operational stage (Piaget and Inhelder 1969). During this stage, children begin to think logically but are unable to think in abstract forms. Their thought processes are limited to concrete objects and events. However, they are able to understand the cognitive concepts such as number, classification and conservation. During the concrete operational stage children deal with “concrete objects” rather than abstractions when they consider change (Forman & Kushner, 1977). They must either see or imagine objects. The assumptions of Piaget’s theory, instructional design method and animation technology are used to create environmental awareness and enable them to act on the information they received.

Another word used is “Environmental Awareness.” Here environmental awareness does not simply mean knowing or acquiring knowledge about environmental issues. Instead it lays emphasis on to what extent students act to reduce and solve the environmental problems as individuals.

Review of Literature

Dr. I. Arul Aram (2009) has made a study on “Creating climate change awareness at grassroots. His study is based on an exposure visit to Puri district of Orissa about the super cyclone of ’99. His study is based on observation and in-depth interviews on climate change awareness in the coastal villages of Orissa affected by climate change.

A comparative study of Environmental coverage in Indian Newspapers has been made by Dr. A. Santha, et al. (2009). In this study, news coverage pertaining to environment in two Tamil newspapers and two English newspapers were collected, categorized and quantified. During the study period of one month, it was found out that the environmental procedure followed by the Government and the environmental problem per se were the subjects of higher emphasis than all other subject matters in most of the newspapers.

According to the Department for International Development, WWF for Nature India has carried out a project during the period of 1994-97 in India on “Environmental awareness and education through mass media communication programme” (www.wwfindia.org/ fund reference 149-680-111).

One of the most effective ways of getting the message across to the largest possible audience in a country as vast and diverse as India is through the mass media, including television and the English and vernacular press. Both these media have the potential of being extremely effective tools for environmental communication, but have not been sufficiently exploited for this purpose so far.

In comparison with the above studies, the present study is unique in its way as it concentrates on the school curriculum, children and environment.

Methodology

Coimbatore is one of the largest cities in the state of Tamilnadu and is located along the Western Ghats. Coimbatore district has 3277 schools. Among them we identified one school to represent the major domain of Matriculation school system, the R.V.S. Matriculation Higher Secondary School. There, we identified Fourth and Fifth standard students as subjects for the study. Out of 320 students in these classes, we identified 40 students by simple random sampling. 20 from each standard. Among them boys and girls were in equal numbers. Out of 40 students, 20 of them have been considered as control group and 20 as experimental group. At this level also both the sex are in equal numbers.

The curriculum of these standards includes environment and related issues.

Prior to collection of primary data through a questionnaire, we screened the well-designed educational video documentary on environmental awareness to the experimental group.

The questionnaire was developed with 30 items. It has 3 sections, each dealing with knowledge, understanding and application. The questionnaire was employed and the primary data were collected from both experimental and controlled groups for the study. The data obtained through the questionnaire by administering the tool was been classified, processed and analysed quantitatively and qualitatively by applying statistics.

The statistical tool applied for this analysis is “t” test. It has been applied in the study in order to understand whether there is any significant difference between the control group, those who acquire knowledge by regular curriculum, and the experimental group who have come across well designed educational video film as well as regular curriculum about environmental issues.

The following are the results of the generated primary data from control and experimental groups.

Based on the data collection followed by analysis, the table shows the output of analysis.

Table 1 Average score between control group and experimental group of the selected school students.

DIFFERENT GROUPS	DIEFFERENT DOMAIN	DOMAIN AVERAGE SCORE (%)	OVERAL AVERAGE SCORE (%)
CONTROL GROUP	KNOWLEDGE	86	83
	UNDERSTANDING	83	
	APPLICATION	80	
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	KNOWLEDGE	87	89
	UNDERSTANDING	84	
	APPLICATION	96	

The collected data were coded, analysed and scored separately .The average score of the control group is 83% and that of experimental group is 89%. There is a difference in the score of both groups only at the application level. However, at the knowledge level and understanding level both have scored almost equally.

Table 2 Means Score Difference Between Control Group and Experimental Group of the Selected School Students.

DIFFERENT GROUPS	NUMBER	MEAN DIFFERENCE	STANDARD DEVIATION	T VALUE	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE AT 0.05
CONTROL GROUP	20	18.48	4.368	1.521	SIGNIFI CANT
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	16.41	4.078		

Table 2 shows the mean score difference in environmental awareness between the groups based on the application among the selected school students. The difference mean score between the Language in India www.languageinindia.com 14
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Effect of Environmental Education to School Children Through Animation Based Educational Video

groups (“t” value – 1.521) is statistically significant at 0.05 levels. So, it can be concluded that the educational video does influence the students on the application side of environmental issues.

Conclusion

The innovative delivery system in teaching at schools is effective. It creates significant a difference comparative to our own conventional teaching learning method about environmental issues.

This is a preliminary study and also it is a pioneering attempt to study the effect of educational video on environmental issues among school students of concrete operational stage of thinking in Coimbatore. It is evident that there is a significant difference between control group and experimental group. Even though students of both the groups have studied the same curriculum, have acquired knowledge about environmental issues, secured and good marks in exams, the day to day application was missing in one group. The educational video has influenced the other group to act upon environmental issues, to adapt things in day to day life and also enabled them to speak to others about environmental issues.

So, the study clearly shows that:

1. There is a significant difference between control group and experimental group towards environmental issues at the school level. So, the animated educational video on climate change and global warming is effective.
2. School curriculum should focus more on knowledge and application about environmental issues.
3. Existing Curriculum deals more about facts and figures of environmental issues than on day today applications.
4. Using new media for teaching significantly influence the selected students .

A reconfiguration of the learning environment using technologies such as animation-based video at several stages of schooling may provide better scope for the expression of student’s understanding and application of the phenomenon he or she learns.

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**Women as Victors of the Social Milieu in
Amy Tan's China**

Sushil Mary Mathews, Ph.D.

Relationships between the Artist and the Society

Sociological criticism is based on the conviction that a work of art is related to the society in which it is created and that the investigation of this relationship will facilitate a better understanding and deepen the readers' aesthetic response to the work. The sociological approach to literature explores the relationships between the artist and the society and examines it in the cultural, economic and political contexts in which it was written or received.

This paper is an intensive study of the novels of Tan, from a sociological approach and also investigates the adaptation techniques which enable the women in the novels to face life in a staunchly patriarchal society.

Embedded in the Chinese Tradition and Culture

The narrative of Tan's novels is deeply embedded in the Chinese tradition and culture. China, from the early sixteenth century to the recent past, is portrayed in the novels of Tan with myriad experiences of the Chinese. The social milieu pictured in the novels and how the women characters transact in this social milieu and emerge victors is elaborated.

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The application of historical materialism to literary studies is examined and a few other factors that are also considered are the world events, especially wars, the primitive societies, women, marriage, suicide, hunger, religion, sex, education, death, belief in evil spirits, the different society groups and ethics as portrayed in the novels. The sociological study will enable a deeper understanding of the strategic role of the mother in equipping her daughter encounter society and life.

World Events as the Background

The novels of Tan have in its background some **world events** and a few that were of national interest. Orville Schell's review "Your Mother is in Your Bones" emphasises that the millions of Chinese who were part of the diaspora of **World War II**, and the fighting that resulted in the triumph of the Communists were subsequently cut off from the mainland and were left to fend for themselves culturally. The Japanese invaded China in 1949 and this war is cited in almost all the works of Tan, as it had a lasting influence on the lives of the people and it had also altered their attitudes to life.

Tan's novels portray the **First Sino-Japanese war** that was fought between 1894 and 1895. The second war that followed, she pictures, was more destructive and sporadic fighting, lasted on and off throughout the thirties, but large-scale fighting did not begin again until 1937, when Japanese units were attacked at the Marco Polo Bridge outside Peking. In December 1937 Japanese Army units were on the outskirts of the Nationalist capital, Nanking. As many as three lakh Chinese soldiers and civilians were executed, and rape, theft, and abuse were rampant. The Kuomintang had officers who tried to lead the people and the general public hearkened to their words. Suyuan Woo, the protagonist in Tan's, The Joy Luck Club, was the wife of a Kuomintang officer and she received news that the Japanese were close at hand, and that she should escape. She carried all that she held dear to her life, on the way she had to slowly prioritise and leave behind things till she felt she had no strength to go on. When she was certain of her death, she decided to abandon her two daughters by the wayside hoping that someone would take them home. She left money and the address at which the babies were to be returned once the war was over.

New Ideas of History and Identity

Catherine Romagnolo in her "Narrative Beginnings in Amy Tan's The Joy Luck Club: A Feminist Study" says, "Like Suyuan, Tan's novel attempts to snip the threads that hold these tightly knitted structures together, unraveling them as it constructs new ideas of history and identity which are at once subjective, personal, and polymorphous"(89). At one point Tan makes a comment that if it had not been for the war with Japan, the people of China would have all been fighting among themselves.

At the time of war, Tan says in her novel, the people who lived in and around Kweilin used to find solace and escape to the mountains there: “We were a city of leftovers mixed together. If it hadn’t been for the Japanese, there would have been plenty of reason for fighting to break out among these different people. Can you see it? Shanghai people with north-water peasants, bankers with barbers, rickshaw pullers with Burma refugees. Everybody looked down on someone else. It didn’t matter that everybody shared the same sidewalk to spit on and suffered the same fast-moving diarrhea. We all had the same stink, but everybody complained someone else smelt the worst.” (JLC 22)

Suffering in the Hands of the Communists

The novels of Tan reveal that at the time of the war the Chinese suffered if there were any Communists in the family. The government refused to give them any benefits or loans but still when life got tough many people opted for the Communist way of life. They were attracted to **Communism** because those who joined were given good education and jobs and most of the youngsters got interested, although it was a rigid life. Tan pictures a character in The Kitchen God’s Wife, Lu, a fisherman’s son who lived a hard life and had no education. He was offered free education by a Marxist and Lu worked hard and took up University examinations, “And because he was so grateful for being able to change his life, he vowed he would someday write about the hardships of peasants and laborers, to be their mouth, to tell their story, to tell them they could change their fate-by revolutionary ideas!” (KGW 105)

Family Objections and Interventions – Social Frustrations Leading to Communism

Weili’s mother had been in love with Lu, but this was objected to on two grounds, one that the society did not approve of a love marriage and the second, that he was a fisherman’s son. She was married off to her father’s friend who took her in place of his dead second wife. The woman had a tough life in the household as a wife among many others and one day she left home to join the revolutionaries and she revealed this great decision to break away from tradition by cutting off her long and beautiful hair which she left behind as a token. Many women, battered in bad marriages, found refuge in Communism though they shuddered to utter the word.

After Weili had suffered a disastrous marriage, she seized an opportunity to escape when she heard that her cousin Peanut had left her marriage and joined the Communists. When Weili reached Peanut’s place, she saw that the place had several other women who had associated with the Communists, “So that’s how I found out that the whole house was an underground hiding place, filled with women and children. Can you imagine? I was scared and excited at the same time. I’m not saying I wanted to become a Communist, no such thing. I was excited because I was in a house with nine women who had once had awful marriages, nine women who no longer had to obey their husbands and mothers-in-law.” (KGW 355)

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Communists and Individual Pursuits

The Communists did not spare anyone when the Japanese attacked. In the novel The Bonesetter's Daughter, Tan introduces a few scientists who were searching for the bones of the oldest man whom they called 'The Peking Man'. During the war, these scientists were also captured by the Communists and in spite of asserting that they were not soldiers, the scientists were taken to help the soldiers with the cleaning and the cooking. They were later set free, but were soon caught by the Japanese troops. They questioned them about the Communists and when they did not yield answers, they were lined up and shot.

In The Kitchen God's Wife, Tan portrays the war in the lives of the pilots serving the Air Force and their families. They had to shift from place to place, at times staying even less than a week in a place. Their possessions had to be abandoned or given away as they were allowed to carry very less luggage. The group grew smaller each time they moved, as many people faced death. The sudden outbursts of bombs pushed people into confusion and rage, "I tell you, that day, when this fear sickness spread, everyone became a different person. You don't know such a person exists inside of you until you become taonan. I saw people grabbing for food, stealing things. Vendors walked away from their steaming pots. I saw fights and arguments, children lost and crying, people pushing to get into the bus then emptying out of the bus when they saw the streets were too full for anyone to move forward." (KGW 215)

Transition from Dynasty Rule and Internal Conflicts

Bella Adams in her article "Representing History in Amy Tan's The Kitchen God's Wife" says, "China's transformation from dynasty to republic(s) is also discussed, as are the internal conflicts that both preceded and succeeded the Sino- Japanese War: "The old revolutionaries, the new revolutionaries, the Kuomintang and the Communists, the warlords, the bandits, and the students-gwah! gwah! gwah!-everybody squabbling, like old roosters claiming the same sunrise."(205).

The Kitchen God's Wife lends itself to "information retrieval"(Spivak, Postcolonial 9) inasmuch as it represents an unknown, if not a forgotten history, which includes the Rape of Nanking by the Japanese: Raped old women, married women, and little girls, taking turns with them, over and over again. Sliced them open with a sword when they were all used up. Cut off their fingers to take their rings. Shot all the little sons, no more generations. Raped ten thousand, chopped down twenty or thirty thousand, a number that is no longer a number, no longer people.(295)"(11)

The Japanese tried to get hold of all the chief people in the villages and they went to Weili's father, Jiang Sao-yen, who owned a great deal of factories and other industries.

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They persuaded him to cooperate with them so that the war would end soon but he did not yield. However two days later, there was a banner declaring Jiang Sao-yen as a supporter of the Japanese and soon although his business flourished, he lost his dear friends and relatives who regarded him as a traitor.

When the Japanese were pushed out, he was sentenced to die and survived only because he had suffered a stroke and lacked coordination. Weili, his daughter, thought about his actions, “But then I thought to myself, how can you blame a person for his fears and weaknesses unless you have felt the same and done differently? How can you think everyone can be a hero, choosing death, when it is part of our nature to let go of brave thoughts at the last moment and cling to hope and life?” (KGW 327)

Revolutionaries of Sun Yat-Sen

There is also a mention of the **Revolutionaries of Sun Yat-Sen** who came in 1911 and overthrew the Manchus and all the official jobs that the Chinese held had to be given up and the new Republic of China came into being. One of the protagonists, Weili gave her view that the World War I began in China, with a shooting north of Peking, when a few people were killed. The fighting also spread diseases; mosquitoes ruled the place and malaria was rampant. The end of the Second World War in 1945 was celebrated: “Firecrackers burst in the streets all day long and this made everyone nervously happy. Overnight the lanes grew crowded with vendors of every delicious kind of thing and fortune-tellers with only the best news” (BD275).

The Great Peace Revolution

The Hundred Secret Senses, is a novel in which Tan talks of the year 1864. It was the time of a crusade- the **Great Peace Revolution**, when the Chinese were all taken into the army of the Heavenly King in exchange for food and clothing. The people believed in this and went forward, but soon the tide changed and there were no more provisions. The news of the death of the Heavenly King created terror and the locals also received news that the Manchus had signed a treaty with the foreigners and that they were on the look out to kill all the God Worshippers.

At the time of the Great Peace Revolution, Tan’s heroine had been left behind with those who were not fit to join the army, the too young, the sick and the old as she had lost an eye in a freak accident. All the others had joined the revolution. She, however, did not sit back content with the food and clothes sent. She cared for her grandmother and after her death, she left the village and walked forth to meet life and faced challenges with a brave spirit.

The Condition of Women During Wars

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In spite of these wars and the reactions recorded by the characters, the **women** were able to pick up their life from scratch and move on. It was the indomitable spirit in them that nudged them forward when the future loomed dark and bleak. Suyuan Woo, who had to flee with her two daughters during the war, was the one who started the 'joy luck club', a meeting of four young women who dared to hope and dream of a good future. Winnie, the protagonist in another novel suffered the problems of war and constant shifts with the Air force but she did not complain.

During the time when the war was on and people were all poverty stricken, Weili did not let go of the little silver cutlery that she had, which she knew she could barter anytime. She was a mother destined to face the death of her children who perished by the ravages of the epidemics that the war brought on. She tried her best to be an obedient wife to a terrorising husband, but when she saw a way out, she decided to follow the way that her cousin Peanut and many young women had taken- to become a communist but she was saved by the love of Jimmy Louie.

Prisons in China

Tan gives a very picturesque portrayal of the **prisons** in China. Weili had been arrested on the charges of infidelity. The prison smelt very bad and she was taken to a cell which housed four other women. There was a wooden toilet in the corner which could not be flushed, and with no cover. "Everybody's business just sat there, like one big ugly soup" (KGW 372). There was a thin mattress where three could squeeze in together and they had to take turns sleeping. But soon Weili made a difference in their lives. She got a cover for the toilet, cleaned up the cell, made it free of bugs, taught many other prisoners good etiquette and also to read and write.

Tan also shows how the courts of the time rested solely on evidence. When Weili could not produce the divorce document that Wen-Fu had signed, the court considered it non-existent and passed a verdict in favour of Wen-Fu. But even in the prison, the protagonist of Tan could make a difference, and instead of cursing the darkness, she lit a candle.

Stories of Lesser Known Communities

The novels of Tan also bring in the story of a few **tribes** who form an important part of the society in China. The Hundred Secret Senses talks of the Hakka tribe. The women of the tribe worked as hard as the men – carrying rocks, making charcoal, and guarding crops from bandits at night, "A suitable Hakka bride from our mountains had thick calluses on her feet and a fine, high boned face... And the mothers from poorer families liked to match their sons to hardworking pretty girls from Thistle Mountain... We had a saying: When you marry a Thistle Mountain girl, you get three oxen for a wife: one that breeds, one that plows, one to carry your old mother around. That's how tough a Hakka girl was."(HSS 30-31)

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Tan also introduces a few other tribes like the Punti tribe, who claimed that they were of superior origin and so everything belonged to them, the Zhuang tribe who were warriors and fighters, and the Yaos and the Kuli who were menial workers. In The Bonesetter's Daughter, Tan talks of the bonesetters who had a nine hundred year old tradition. The sons did not go to schools to learn the skills, they learnt it by watching their fathers, and it became their inheritance. They knew the secret location for finding the best dragon bones that they used for treatment and this was passed on as the family heirloom. The tribes were influenced by the missionaries, only to the end that they received food and clothing from them and they did not have any other influence on their ideals or beliefs.

Tan introduces the Karen tribe, in her latest novel Saving Fish From Drowning who lived in hiding in the deepest ends of the rain forest, in 'A Place with No Name'. They had been there for a long time and were self sufficient and had contact with the outside world only through two of their members who brought them supplies from the nearby towns. The tribe awaited the arrival of the 'Younger White Brother' who they believed would save them. They anticipated the unique characteristics of the saviour "He could manifest weapons. He could make the tribe invisible. They would then leave No Name Place, walk openly without being shot, until they reached a patch of land, just big enough to grow the food they needed. There they would live in peace, and no outsider would cause them trouble, and they would cause no troubles to them" (SFFD 202).

Tan portrays how the tribes, whether in China or in Burma, alienated themselves and were satisfied if their basic needs were met. They were willing to follow people who came to help them, missionaries or tourists as long as they received some material benefit. They lived in their traditions and customs and were uneducated and got cheated easily. They stuck on to their superstitions and the ones who felt it imperative to break free were able to achieve prosperity. Kwan related about her earlier birth and said how she was a Hakka and later came to help the missionaries and in the bargain she was able to earn her bread and live a comfortable life. The women in the tribes were always hardworking and helped make life comfortable, but when they knew it was better to leave and find a better livelihood they did not hesitate in taking a bold decision which helped them have better lives.

The Mainstream Chinese Society

The **Chinese society** was very traditional and rigid, in which the women had to adapt to anything handed to them. Even young children knew that they could not ask for too many things; they felt threatened and lived a hard childhood. The families were very loving but also practical. In The Joy Luck Club, when the floods had destroyed the home of a family, they had to leave to a far off place to start afresh and though their daughter Lindo was young they felt it right to leave her behind with the family of the boy to whom she

was betrothed, and the wedding would take place after a few years. Lindo lost her childhood and had to work very hard so as not to displease the new family.

Marriage was considered a great and important ceremony, with a lot of pomp and splendour. All the villagers were invited and a great deal of banners was put up and Lindo married Tyan-yu when she was sixteen. The matriarchs in China were set in a society that endeavoured to get them betrothed when they were about two years of age. The important criteria that was looked into is the year of the birth that would help determine the girl's character, the physical strength of the fore fathers or the tribe, and the belief that the girl will care for the mother-in-law and respect the dead ancestors and ensure that their graves are kept clean.

Society viewed **daughters** as the wealth of the house into which she was married. When it was time to send her away, the deed was performed without much ado. Marriages were never conducted by a mutual consent of the bride and the groom involved, the families came to an understanding and the wedding was conducted. The women tried their best to adjust with whatever was handed out to them and they either lived there bearing all the difficulties or were even willing to die rather than fight. Society was seen dumb in all these circumstances. There was no helping hand that offered any relief to the women. All the novels of Tan have the difficult past of the mothers, as the background.

The **Chinese women** were forced to move from their own homes to others through arranged marriages or concubinage and were regarded as "objects to be invested in or bartered" (38) says Sue Grunewold in her book Beautiful Merchandise: Prostitution in China 1860-1936 (1985). One of the matriarchs An-mei Hsu's mother, in the novel The Joy Luck Club was cheated into a bad second marriage. She was a widow and could not object to anything, she was tricked into sleeping with a man and then accused of having seduced him. There was no one to help the lady and the only option she had was to marry the man and become yet another wife to him. Society and family disowned her, "She was already as low as a prostitute. And when she returned to her brother's house and kowtowed three times to say good-bye, her brother kicked her and her own mother banned her from the family house forever"(JLC 237). She was one among the five wives but she was never jealous of the other wives because as her daughter realised, "Why should she be? My mother did not love Wu Tsing. A girl in China did not marry for love"(JLC 228).

The mothers in China usually never had a way out but they planned what they had to do for the future. An-mei Hsu's mother wanted her children to be respected and brought up as Wu-Tsing's own children and so she committed suicide on the eve of the New Year. She had taken her revenge because she knew that it was a common belief that the spirit would strike in the New Year if all their wishes were not granted. This was a generation who at least tried to save their children from the adverse conditions that they lived in. But

as times moved on the characters got smarter and reacted intellectually and planned a neat exit which would upset nobody and did not require a suicide.

In the novel, The Kitchen God's Wife Weili was brought up by her uncle and the **members of the household** did not care to enquire much about the family into which she would be married into, as they were happy to get her responsibility off their hands. So they arranged for her marriage with Wen Fu. Weili was young and she tried to please her mother-in-law who taught her "To protect my husband so that he would protect her. To fear him and think this was respect"(KGW 168). But her husband mercilessly tortured her physically and emotionally. She had no choice but to obey him and yield to his wishes, yet he used to complain that she was not a good wife that she had no passion and she was not like the other women he knew. And even when he told her this, Weili disclosed to her daughter later, "I was not angry. I did not know I was supposed to be angry. This was China. A woman had no right to be angry. But I was unhappy knowing my husband was still dissatisfied with me, and that I would have to go through more suffering to show him I was a good wife"(KGW 170).

Tan also portrays how **the poor girls in China** hoped to get a good life by marrying a rich person "This poor girl was only trying to change her luck," said Hulan. "Lots of girls did that, hoping to catch a husband who would take them away. She was like every girl in that village, not very pretty, destined to marry an old farmer or the one-eyed pot-mender down the road, a life guaranteed with hard work, no hope for any kind of happiness. So when this girl met a pilot, of course she gave him her own body-for a chance, even a small chance, something to hold onto."(KGW184)

Patriarchy

Judith Caesar in his article "Patriarchy, Imperialism, and Knowledge in The Kitchen God's Wife," comments, "Jiang Weili, the narrator of the central three fourths of the novel, endures the most horrifying abuse from her brutal husband Wen Fu, while traditional Chinese society not only fails to intervene but colludes in her victimization"(165).

On one occasion Wen Fu accused his wife falsely in the presence of all his friends and commanded her to kneel down and beg him to forgive her. When she hesitated, he slapped her; she did not feel the pain but was stung with embarrassment. Weili's friend Hulan, and the others sensed that there was no escape from the fury of the man and they asked her to do as he said. Weili knelt down and begged his forgiveness. Society could do nothing but watch the inhumane act. Another episode that reveals the incapability of society is when Yiku, Weili's child became very sick. Wen Fu had gone to a friend's house to play mah jong, along with the doctor. Weili took her sick daughter there and the doctor agreed to go but Wen Fu would not let him do so and said that his wife always exaggerated. When she contradicted him, he flew into a rage and said "If she dies, I

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wouldn't care!" (KGW265-66) Weili went home but returned soon when Yiku took worse and begged Wen Fu to let the doctor treat the child. He acted as if he had forgotten everything and cursed her for not letting him know earlier but no one told him how she had informed him and soon her child Yiku died. Weili could not accept that other men were a party to his wickedness. The other women who were her friends supported her in other ways but not openly in front of the terrorising husband. They were always ready to render any physical assistance and also helped her in various crises of her life. This web of strength along with the love she found in Jimmy Louie helped her surmount her problems and face life bravely.

Robb Forman Dew in his review "Pangs of an Abandoned Child," says, "As Weiwei's story encompasses the deaths of her first three children and the further disintegration of her first husband's boorish and finally psychotic personality, we begin to understand that this is a chronicle not only of a woman's victimization, but of the unwitting conspiracy within society to ignore and therefore perpetuate the condition" (9).

Women in China

The **women in China** were considered a commodity and they usually had to suffer without a murmur, but when the women wished to change circumstances for their children they were ready to achieve it even through their own deaths. Precious Auntie, the matriarch of The Bonesetter's Daughter had been in love with Baby Uncle, but on the way to the marriage, her father and Baby Uncle were killed by Chang the coffin maker who had wanted to make her his next wife. She attempted suicide and was badly burnt and the family kept her alive only because they believed that the ghost of Baby Uncle would not forgive them if they did not care for his child that was already growing in the womb of the woman. When the child was born, Precious Auntie was given the role of a nurse maid and LuLing her daughter, loved her but did not know her true identity. Later, when it was arranged that LuLing marry Chang's son, Precious Auntie tried her best to stop the proposal. But the family did not relent and Precious Auntie found that the only way she could assure a good future for her daughter was to put an end to herself and stop the marriage. She even sent a note to the Chang family that she would take revenge on them in spirit if they did not stop the wedding.

Suicide seemed the only answer for many in China. Radio Free Asia reported in 2003: "China has the **highest rate of female suicide** in the world, with most women who decide to end their own lives coming from less well-educated rural backgrounds, according to Chinese scholars and health officials."

"In China, women account for more than half of the people who commit suicide," Zhang Jie, assistant professor of sociology at New York State University in Buffalo, said in an interview. "The higher female than male suicide rate is unrivalled in the world. No other country has more women than men who kill themselves."... (2003, 9, 17) Asia News

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China further reported in 2007, “Only in China is the suicide rate higher in women. Every year some 287,000 people commit suicide, 58 percent women, especially in rural areas. Depression and isolation are main causes. Till recently government did little.” (20 Nov 2007).

Servant Class

The **maids** who worked in homes were considered only as a commodity and they lived to offer any kind of satisfaction to the family members. The servant girls in China seemed to take the blame on themselves for everything. The conditions of these women were even worse than the women they served. And when they could take it no more, they just left their jobs and were usually found dead somewhere. The fourteen year old servant girl of Weili wanted to leave work abruptly, and after a lot of coaxing, she revealed the fact that she was leaving only because of the master of the house, Wen-Fu. Weili said, “I had to ask her many times: The bruise on her face that she claimed was her own clumsiness-was that the time he had tried once before? The times she had claimed to be ill, always in the morning-was that after it happened? Each time the girl confessed something, she cried and slapped her own face.” (KGW 259).

Wen-Fu had also let in another girl Min, who had been a dancer and singer, when Weili was in confinement. Weili wondered what could have endeared such a person to the girl. “I decided the reason she stayed with him was not love, couldn’t be that. It was something else: perhaps a way to give up her life slowly rather than all at once. Here she would have a place to sleep, food to eat. Everything else did not matter much. The war had many people that way, full of fear, desperate to live without knowing why” (KGW 272). These characters, the servant maid and Min, later commit suicide.

Hunger and Food

Hunger was rampant especially in the time of war but the Chinese villagers were very smart and adept at making the best use of nature. When the war was on and there was no food, the missionaries still had food because of the ingenuity of the Chinese workers, Nunumu reported, “Every day Lao Lu and I searched for food. Since I had once been a poor girl in the mountains, I knew where to look. We poked in the places beneath tree trunks where cicadas slept. We sat in the kitchen at night, waiting for insects and rats to come out for crumbs we couldn’t see. We climbed up the mountains and picked wild tea and bamboo. Sometimes we caught a bird that was too old or too stupid to fly away fast enough. In the springtime, we plucked locusts and grasshoppers hatching in the fields. We found frogs and grubs and bats. Bats you have to chase into a small place and keep them flying until they fall from exhaustion.”(HSS184)

Frogs were a delicacy in China and the women tried to earn money selling them and they were also skilled in preserving duck eggs. They learnt the value of food when they were

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very young, Kwan revealed, “To me a duck egg was too good to eat. That egg could have become a duckling. That duckling could have become a duck. That duck could have fed twenty people in Thistle Mountain. And in Thistle Mountain, we rarely ate a duck. If I ate an egg-and sometimes I did- I could see twenty hungry people”(HSS171-72).

Kwan remembered how in 1864 when an American General came to their village claiming to be the friend of The Heavenly King, many people joined his army and as a mark of peace when he set free two doves from a cage, the people pushed and fell over each other in an attempt to catch the birds, “They ran and pushed, jumping to catch the creatures before they could fly away. One man fell forward onto a rock. His head cracked open and his brains started to pour out. But people jumped right over him and kept chasing those rare and precious birds. One dove was caught, the other flew away. So someone ate a meal that night”(HSS 34).

The Poor in China

The **poor in China** could be easily convinced with food and the promise of better times. Food was meager during the war and yet the people tried to pretend that everything was alright. They had dumplings that were stuffed with stringy squash or oranges spotted with wormy holes. Money could never buy much food then and a thousand yuan could only buy half a bag of rice. When Weili was freed from prison her friends could only give her a small party, they explained, “The new paper money is worthless,” said Hulan. “If you want a bag of rice-maybe you have to pay six million yuan in new money. Ridiculous! The money weighs more than the rice!”(KGW 386) The pilots returned home every time in smaller numbers Weili prepared meals for them with her dowry money, she never grudged spending it because they never knew how many more such meals they would have.

The Economy

The earliest times, as Tan portrays in her works, was a nation gripped in poverty and strife and people waited for any chance for a better life. The later years saw an improvement in the **economy** but this was highly unpredictable because of natural disasters like floods and the wars that overthrew powers. The coveted government jobs offered no security and people died with the sudden changes of fortunes. The children were forced to do physical labour to add to the income of the family. People also had no scruples or fear of law and they murdered those whom they saw as rivals. There were people who had no food, clothing and shelter, living in the outskirts of the villages with no sanitation or medical care to help them. There was a vast difference in society and people who were rich lived in extravagance. They wore rich and fashionable clothes, they had the best of food, automobiles and shoes from all parts of the world. The shopping for the wedding trousseau for the rich was on for weeks, a day each allotted for furnishing, clothing, cutlery, linen, etc.,

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Little about Religion

The novels of Tan speak little about **religion** and more on the customs of the society. In 1864, the tribes of the Thistle Mountain heard of the Heavenly King and the Great Peace that his followers struggled for. Some missionaries came there when they heard that they were all God worshippers, and they did not realise that it was different from Jesus worshippers. The Heavenly King sent his messenger General Cape to their village along with fifty soldiers and most of the villagers joined the army which ensured them food, shelter and clothing. The missionaries distributed pamphlets every week, and though the people were illiterate they were happy, “They used them to stuff inside their winter clothes. They put them over rice bowls to keep out flies. They pasted them over cracks in walls” (HSS 76). The missionaries had to send in reports of the number of converts and they gave huge figures though there was not even one genuine convert.

Sex, Love, Fertility and Inheritance

Sex is another aspect of life that Tan expresses in her novels and it reveals the true picture of the society. The girls were engaged to be married when they are very young and they knew nothing of the boys they were to marry. Lindo married Tyan-yu and soon realised that he was like a little boy who had never grown up. They never had any physical relationship and so she loved him not as a wife loved her husband but as a sister who protected her younger brother. But when his mother troubled him for grand children he was able to turn the blame on Lindo and his mother confronted her, “My son says he’s planted enough seeds for thousands of grandchildren Where are they? It must be you are doing something wrong” (JLC 62).

The society believed that it was important for a man to have sons, and when it did not happen, in desperate conditions, the other wives, of the person involved, just tricked another woman into marrying their husband as in the case with An-mei’s mother. Wu Tsing’s second wife had invited An-mei’s mother, who was a widow, to their house and as it was late, she compelled her to spend the night with them. The women slept together but in the night Wu Tsing took the place of his wife and raped An-mei’s mother and then later took her as another wife.

Another protagonist, Ying Ying was born into a well to do family but had a bad marriage. The man who wished to marry her asked her publicly if he could “Kai gwa?” which literally meant –open the watermelon, but this had sexual undertones that Ying Ying did not understand. Her husband was one who drank too much, cracked vulgar jokes and soon after marriage, left her for other women when she had conceived. She was smart and did not want to live a hard life like many other women in China. “I took this baby from my womb before it could be born. This was not a bad thing to do in China back then, to kill a baby before it is born... When the nurses asked what they should do with the lifeless baby, I hurled a newspaper at them and said to wrap it like a fish and throw it

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in the lake.”(JLC248) But it did not mean that this character was heartless, this deed of hers haunted her even years later when she was in America, and when she lost a baby there she said, “It looked right through me. I knew he could see everything inside me. How I had given no thought to killing my other son!”(JLC 112)

Love that is Pure

Sex and love was not always bad, the love that was shared by some of the characters Tan portrays, was pure and beautiful. Tan talks of an affair in The Hundred Secret Senses that happened in the 1800’s. Nunumu worked for the missionaries and she was preserving duck eggs that she believed would last more than a lifetime. She needed some earthen jars to preserve them and she bought them from Zeng, the potter and in exchange she did his laundry. They fell in love and she related, “Zeng asked me to marry him. Actually, he didn’t use this word “marry.” He said in a rough voice: “Hey tonight I’m going to the mountains to hide in the caves. You want to come with me or not?” To you this may sound clumsy, not so romantic. But if someone offers to save your life, isn’t that as good as going to church in a white dress and saying “I do”?” (HSS 214)

When LuLing lived in the orphanage she fell in love with a scientist Kai Jing, who was the son a teacher there. He loved her truly and revealed his love to her through a series of paintings he had done for her, and he called them the four manifestations of beauty. He explained to her that any form of beauty had four levels of ability. The first painting was competence and it represented an ordinary ability. The second level was magnificent, which he described as something beyond skill. The third was divine, and a person who viewed this should be left without words to describe it and the painter himself would not be able to capture the same feeling. The fourth level was called effortless. He explained it to her “... it is within each mortal’s nature to find it. We can sense it only if we do not try to sense it. It occurs without motivation or desire or knowledge of what may result. It is pure. It is what innocent children have. It is what old masters regain once they have lost their minds and become children again” (BD 243).

Education of women in China

Education of women in China as Tan portrays was very rare. Very few women had a chance to study at Missionary schools. Weili’s mother had learnt English at such a school. Old Aunt was jealous of her because she was from a feudal, traditional family that presumed, “The girl’s eyes should never be used for reading only for sewing. The girl’s ears should never be used for listening to ideas, only to orders. The girl’s lips should be small, rarely used, except to express appreciation or ask for approval” (KGW 102). Weili also learnt at a boarding school in Shanghai and this earned her a lot of appreciation in the later years.

The Bonesetter's family had a great lineage of being the best in the field, the trade handed down from father to son. But Precious Auntie's father, the bonesetter, lost his wife and son, and so he gave his daughter a free hand and taught her all that he knew and she helped him in his work. "By the time she passed from childhood to maidenhood, she had heard every kind of scream and curse. She had touched so many bodies, living, dying and dead, that few families considered her for a bride" (BD165). Education of women did not have much importance in the China of the olden days, when the women had to be satisfied with whatever was handed to them by the society.

Death

Death was a great event and the funeral was a great experience for outsiders. Big Ma's death in China brought the American tourists Simon and Olivia into a close encounter with the customs practiced. The body was kept in the community hall where many people painted white funeral banners and decorated the walls and tables with white curtains and candles. The body of the deceased was covered with a white paper sheet. Kwan said that this was done for practical reasons; if the paper moves then they knew that the person was breathing and so was still alive. The dead person was dressed in various layers of clothes for her journey to the next world. They further believed that a rooster should be tied to the lid of the coffin so that the ghost's body could enter the rooster and fly away. A few notes of money were also laid in one hand of the dead with which the dead person could buy a better life in the next world and in the other hand they placed the dead person's favourite food. In the earlier days people mourned for seven weeks but later they mourned only for a few days for convenience.

Auntie Du's **funeral** was also conducted according to the Buddhist customs. The body was laid in a casket and there was a long table laden with food which was believed to be provisions to help her on her way to heaven. There were banners with good luck thoughts written on them. Two Buddhist monks carried out the ceremony, with some chants and incense and they had also hired people to mourn. "And now they're doing the old custom, crying out loud and acting like they don't want the dead person to leave so fast. This is how you show respect" (KGW 43).

Evil Spirits

Tan portrays how the Chinese society believed that **evil spirits** haunted places and when the Missionaries wanted to settle down in a Merchant's House, the locals warned Lao Lu, "Don't live there. It's haunted by fox-spirits"(HSS 39). The evil spirits governed the thinking of most of the Chinese, and they were frightened to displease a spirit. This inspired the women to plan and devise their suicides so that the people would be terrified and fulfill the desires of the dead spirit.

The people imagined that spirits spoke through various mediums to convey their wishes and that it was the duty of the living to ensure that their dreams came through. They were gullible and there were others who claimed that they could catch ghosts and rid them of all their problems. The belief in the spirits helped the people to be wary of their behaviour and this was a solace that many women found. They could take no refuge in the living, but sought help from the spirits or turned into spirits themselves to ascertain a good future for their children.

Ghosts of the Ancestors

One of the main fears of the older generation was that the **ghosts of the ancestors** would haunt them. This would happen if they had done something to offend the souls or left promises undone. When Precious Auntie was alive, she had wanted her daughter LuLing to help her return the bones they had got from a cave because they had mistaken the bone of an ancestor's to be a dragon bone, that they used for medicinal purposes.

The government offered a big price for such bones which they believed belonged to the Peking Man and so LuLing wanted to part with the bones and earn the reward that the government offered. But Precious Auntie said that such an action would incur the wrath of gods.

When Precious Auntie lost her life, LuLing assumed that there was a curse and always lived in fear of it. The family also brought in a ghost catcher who arrived with an assistant and after he collected his enormous fee, placed a bottle on the ground and with the comb that Precious Auntie often used, he caught her in the bottle, very dramatically, with the beating of a wooden bell. The uncle only hoped that the ghost would not escape. "Not possible," said the Catcher of Ghosts. "This jar is guaranteed to last more than several lifetimes." "It should be more," Mother grumbled. "Stuck in a jar forever wouldn't be too long, considering what she's done. Burned down our shop. Nearly killed our family. Put us in debt." (HSS 224)

However, it was later known that this Catcher of Ghosts, was a fake and not a monk at all. He lived with his wife and three sons, one of whom went with him as his assistant and they used the same bottle to catch several other ghosts.

Ethics

Tan in her novels also incorporates **ethics**. Filial love was considered very sacred to Tan and the society. The daughters especially had a great regard for their mothers.

An-mei learnt about the love a daughter had for her mother. Popo, An-mei's grandmother was very sick and dying. It was late at night and everyone had gathered round Popo's bed. An-mei saw her mother cooking soup with some herbs and medicines. She also saw her

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mother cut a piece of meat from her arm and add it to the soup, hoping to cook magic in the ancient tradition. She fed Popo the soup but she died. An-mei learnt, “This is how a daughter honors her mother. It is so deep it is in your bones. The pain of the flesh is nothing. The pain you must forget. Because sometimes that is the only way to remember what is in your bones. You must peel of your skin, and that of your mother, and her mother before her. Until there is nothing. No scar, no skin, no flesh.” (JLC 48)

The daughter respected her mother although she had thrown her out when she had been cheated by Wu Tsing, and this was the reason for the sorrow in An-mei’s mother’s life; yet she returned to prove her loyalty.

Living with Bad Marriage

Most of the older generation of mothers in China had bad first marriages. But they never ran away from it, thus defaming their parents. The promise and the honour of their parents were so important to them and each had to devise their own strategy to escape the bad marriages. Lindo Jong reminiscences, “I once sacrificed my life to keep my parents’ promise. This means nothing to you, because to you promises mean nothing”(JLC 49).

Festivals

The Chinese celebrated various **festivals**, and an important one was the Festival of the Moon, when the moon lady would grant them a secret wish. Ying Ying remembered the Moon Festival that was celebrated when she was four years old. The entire household was on a house boat on Tai Lake, and they were to have a ceremony that night when they could see the moon lady. Ying Ying was attracted to a play of the Moon Lady being enacted nearby. The Moon Lady in the play told them her sad tale of how she was banished to live on the moon while her husband lived on the sun. The Moon Lady would grant wishes on the day of the festival when the moon lady would see her husband on the night of the mid-autumn moon.

The **Chinese New Year** was always a welcomed festival because it meant three days of no rebuke from any one, but the days of preparation ahead of it was filled with hard work. According to the custom, when the New Year began, not a single speck of dust from the previous year could remain. It was a time when one could change one’s luck.

China of the Twentieth Century

The **China of the twentieth century** was not very different from the China of the eighteenth century, as the American daughters viewed it during their visits. Jing mei Woo took a trip to China and she first noticed that there were not many telephones available, the taxi drive was nerve racking as the driver dodged trucks and buses, honking constantly. There were many rows of apartments, cluttered with laundry hung out to dry.

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In The Hundred Secret Senses, Olivia and Simon had an opportunity to visit China when the travel magazine wanted a photo essay on the village cuisines of China. Kwan, Olivia's sister was excited at the chance of revisiting her country and went along as their guide. They learnt that life started very early in the day in China and as they begrudgingly left the hotel at five in the morning the whole place was bustling with activity as if it were the middle of the day. And as she reached Changmian, she was awestruck, "As I look through the view finder, I feel as though we've stumbled on a fabled misty land, half memory, half illusion. Are we in Chinese Nirvana? Changmian looks like the carefully cropped photos found in travel brochures advertising "a charmed world of the distant past, where visitors can step back in time."... There must be something wrong, I keep warning myself. Around the corner we'll stumble on reality..." (HSS 205)

More Choices Now

The circumstances in China changed after many years and even the people of China now had a choice. An-mei Hsu recollected the sad state of people in China in the olden days and rejoiced when she heard how time had changed the scenario. She narrates, "My mother she suffered. She lost her face and tried to hide it. She found only greater misery and finally could not hide that. There is nothing more to understand. That was China. That was what people did back then. They had no choice. They could not speak up. They could not run away. That was their fate. But now they can do something else. Now they no longer have to swallow their own tears or suffer the taunts of magpies. I know this because I read this news in a magazine from China." (JLC 241)

An-mei read that for thousands of years birds had been tormenting the peasants, eating up their seeds as soon as they had planted them. This led to famine and poverty. But the peasants made up their minds to fight against these birds and they clapped their hands and banged on pots and pans confusing the birds with the loud noise. The birds were exhausted, as they were unable to land or eat. And this continued for many days, until all those birds fluttered to the ground, dead.

Tan's Description of China in Its Entirety

Tan has thus through her works portrayed the society of China in its entirety. She has been able to picture this realistically as she has visited China and is associated with it through her forefathers. She feels a oneness with her mother who had undergone most of what has been pictured in the novels. Tan wishes to show the world how the women have emerged victors in spite of the difficult times that they lived in and even though they did not have any help from the society, they fended for themselves and worked towards a better life.

Even the women of the earlier generation, who could not escape, helped their daughters on to the path of freedom. They set patterns for their future generations and equipped them to meet the dissents of society and the world at large.

The study of the society in which the women lived in China and their later lives in America has proved how women are able to rise above the circumstances. They have been able to remain strong and hold their family together in spite of poverty, war, indiscriminatioin and marginalisation.

This has been possible only because of the strong maternal figures in their lives. They have shown through their life and sometimes death, what it is to live a full life, and they have left a legacy of hope even in the earlier generation in China. This is what helped the women to move to America in the hope that their children would have a better life and that they would not have to bear any of the tortures that they underwent.

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**A Comparative Study of the Language Learning Strategies Used by
the Students of Formal and Non-Formal Systems of Education
in Pakistan**

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Abstract

Formal and Non-Formal education differ in many ways. Whereas in the formal settings the learner learns through face to face interaction with a teacher, in the Non-Formal system the learner has to learn independently of the classroom. The learner, in a Non-Formal education programme, depends on the sent material and the workshops arranged by the institution. There is also the use of the information technology in Non-Formal education. Thus Non-Formal education throws new challenges and a wide array of opportunities to the students. This would be especially so as far as language learning in Non-Formal education is concerned, because of the fact that the learners have more chances to have experiment with their language.

The present study attempts to compare the language learning strategies of formal and non-formal graduate students. It is descriptive in nature. In order to get the desired end, four hundred graduate students. Two hundred each from Formal and Non-Formal systems of education were selected as sample and a questionnaire with fifty items was constructed (Likert Scale) and pilot tested. The reliability of the research tool was 0.990 (Cornbach's Alpha).

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The questionnaire was divided into seven parameters: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensatory strategies, meta-cognitive, affective strategies, social strategies and overall strategies.

The study reports that there is a statistically significant relationship between reported frequency of language learning strategy use and the system of education. The students from non-formal system of education are significantly better on using the compensatory strategies and the students from formal system of education are significantly better on use of social strategies. On the remaining parameters, namely, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, meta cognitive strategies, affective strategies and overall strategies, no significant difference was found between the students from both the systems. The Non-formal education (Distance education) students reported the use of more language learning strategies than their counterparts in the Formal settings.

Introduction

With the onset of the post-modern age, there has been a shift in the educational theories and practices throughout the world towards learner-centeredness. It is observed that successful learning depended, to a good extent, on catering to the needs and interests of the learners. For instance, Chickering and Gamson (1991, p.21) reported that “Faculty who show regard for their students’ unique interests and talents are likely to facilitate student growth and development in every sphere--academic, social, personal, and vocational.”

What are the Language Learning Strategies (LLS)?

Different authors have come up with their definitions of LLS. However, “there is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities” (O’Malley et al, 1985). For Rubin, strategies are “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (1975, p.43). In Weinstein and Mayer’s terms, the LLS may be defined as “behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning” which are presumably “intended to influence the learner's encoding process” (1986, p.315). Cohen (1998, p.4) added the important ingredient of choice or consciousness in defining the strategies and thus asserted that “the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from those processes that are not strategic”.

A comprehensive definition is provided by Oxford (2001, p.166) who believes that the strategies are in fact

...operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information; specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient, and more transferable to new situations.

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Many of the researches on LLS suggest that the strategies which the good and successful language learners employ are different from those of the bad learners. In fact, the good learners not only employ more strategies but also employ them in a more appropriate manner than the weaker ones (Chamot and Kupper 1989).

There has also been a suggestion that there is a positive relationship between Language Learning Strategies and communicative competence (Stern, 1992; Lessard-Clouston, 1997 and Oxford, 1990).

There has been extensive discussion on the types of LLS that the learners employ for successful learning. O'Malley et al., Wenden and Rubin, Stern and Oxford have classified LLS in many categories. However, most of these classifications have striking similarities. Some have categorized them into Learning, communication and Social strategies, others into the cognitive and meta-cognitive and socioaffective strategies (O'Malley et al. 1985) and a few others have added the element of management, planning and interpersonal elements to the discussion (Stern, 1992).

The most comprehensive categorization has been done by Oxford (1990). She has classified the LLS into six broad categories and in each category she has outlined a number of sub-categories. Broadly speaking, these categories include Memory related, Cognitive, Compensatory, Meta-cognitive, Affective, and Social strategies.

Language Learning in Formal and Non-formal Systems of Education

In conjunction with the changing roles of the teacher and the taught, there has been a concurrent realisation on the part of the educational institutions to “reach new audiences or to retain their market share. All this means that distance learning opportunities are becoming an increasingly visible part of educational provision” (White 2003, p.1). There are thousands of courses in language learning alone that are offered on the web (ibid). This change has been brought about by the use of distance education to complement the formal system of education (Brown and Constantin, 1992).

Garrison and Shale (1987, pp10-11) outline the gist of distance education in these terms:

- a) Distance education implies that the majority of educational communication between teacher and student occurs non-contiguously.
- b) Distance education involves two-way communication between teacher and student for the purpose of facilitating and supporting the educational process.
- c) Distance education uses technology to mediate the necessary two-way communication.

As against it, Eraut (2002) describes five features of the formal or traditional education system

- a) a prescribed learning framework
- b) an organised learning event or package
- c) the presence of a designated teacher or trainer
- d) the award of a qualification or credit
- e) the external specification of outcomes. (Eraut's 2000, p.12)

Distance education is different from the formal system not only in terms of scope but also in its objectives and implementation. Whereas the Formal education takes place in the traditional classroom settings whereby the teacher and the taught meet in an organised manner, the Distance system survives the physical separation of the teachers and the students. Tutorials do take place but they are not as frequent as in the Formal system.

Teacher and Student

Though there has been a shift of focus from the teacher to the student in the Formal classroom, the teacher still occupies a key position in terms of decision making about the class organisation and lesson development. In a Distance Language learning programme the learner enjoys autonomy and independence sometimes denied even in the most liberal of the classrooms. This independence affords him opportunities to choose the learning environment and the time that he pleases to devote to his studies (Shelly, 2000).

Student in the Formal setting has the opportunity to interact with his peers and the teacher. This interaction is quite different in the Distance settings. As for Distance learning, interaction that was earlier on confined to post and broadcasting corporations, has now gained new momentum with the advent of teleconferencing powered by the fourth generation internet-based real-time technology and has thereby helped in fostering communication (Wang and Sun 2001). Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has therefore come up as an essential ingredient of a Distance Language Learning Programme.

Purpose of the Study

To compare the language learning strategies as used by the graduate students of Formal and Non-Formal systems of education in Pakistan.

Research Question

Is there a statistically significant difference in the use of language learning strategies in different dimensions of the language learning strategy scale?

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Research Methodology

As the study was descriptive in nature, it used the survey approach. 50-item version of the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) for speakers of other languages learning English (Oxford, 1990) was used to collect data from the respondents.

Population and Sampling

All the Pakistani graduate students learning English constituted the population for the study. four hundred undergraduate students, two hundred each from The Islamia University Bahawalpur and the Allama Iqbal Open University, were considered as sample for the study.

Data Analysis

The data collected through questionnaire was coded and analyzed through SPSS XII in terms of mean scores and independent sample t- test.

Findings

Data collected through the questionnaire was analyzed in terms of mean scores and independent sample t-test was applied. The findings drawn out from the data analysis are given below.

Table: 1 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of memory strategies.

S. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	Formal	200	1.69	1.002	.100	.000	1.00
		Non-Formal	200	1.69	1.002	.100		
2	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	Formal	200	1.66	1.320	.132	-2.106	.036
		Non-Formal	200	2.08	1.495	.150		
	I use flashcards to remember new English	Formal	200	1.02	.141	.014	-4.820	.000

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3	words.	Non- Formal	200	1.67	1.341	.134		
4	I physically act out new English words.	Formal		200	1.34	.855	.086	
		Non- Formal	200	1.16	.615	.061	1.709	.089
5	I review English lessons often.	Formal		200	3.47	1.049	.105	
		Non- Formal	200	2.80	1.627	.163	3.461	.001
6	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	Formal		200	3.99	1.105	.111	
		Non- Formal	200	2.26	1.260	.126	10.32	.000

It is evident from above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners and the formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on “I review English lessons often and I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.” The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on “I use rhymes to remember new English words and I use flashcards to remember new English words.” While learners from both the systems of education are equal on “I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used and I physically act out new English words.”

Table: 2 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the overall memory strategies of the language learning

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	13.1700	4.45869	.44587	1.884	.061
Non -Formal	200	11.6600	6.65790	.66579		

The above table shows that there is no significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on overall memory strategies of language learning. So, it is concluded that the students from both the systems are using the same memory strategies in language learning.

Table: 3 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of cognitive strategies.

Sr. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	I say or write new English words several times.	Formal	200	3.33	1.484	.148	6.495	.000
		Non-Formal	200	2.07	1.249	.125		
2	I try to talk like native English speakers.	Formal	200	1.72	1.055	.105	-1.204	.230
		Non-Formal	200	1.90	1.059	.106		
3	I practise the sounds of English.	Formal	200	1.66	1.165	.117	1.095	.275
		Non-Formal	200	1.50	.882	.088		
4	I use the English words I know in different ways.	Formal	200	3.59	1.564	.156	1.839	.067
		Non-Formal	200	3.17	1.664	.166		
5	I start conversation in English.	Formal	200	1.21	.769	.077	-3.037	.003
		Non-Formal	200	1.57	.902	.090		
6	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	Formal	200	3.20	1.385	.139	2.376	.018
		Non-Formal	200	2.72	1.471	.147		
7	I read for pleasure in	Formal	200	3.17	1.364	.136	.186	.853

	English	Non-Formal	200	3.13	1.662	.166		
8	I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.	Formal	200	3.34	1.622	.162	.661	.059
		Non-Formal	200	3.21	1.113	.111		
9	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go	Formal	200	3.67	1.240	.124	10.29	.000
		Non-Formal	200	1.81	1.316	.132		
10	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	Formal	200	1.09	.379	.038	-3.633	.000
		Non-Formal	200	1.43	.856	.086		
11	I try to find patterns in English	Formal	200	1.52	1.105	.111	-.942	.347
		Non-Formal	200	1.67	1.146	.115		
12	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	Formal	200	1.54	.858	.086	-1.763	.079
		Non-Formal	200	1.81	1.269	.127		
13	I try not to translate word-for-word.	Formal	200	1.91	1.357	.136	-5.155	.000
		Non-Formal	200	2.90	1.360	.136		
14	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	Formal	200	2.12	1.274	.127	-4.376	.000
		Non-Formal	200	3.01	1.586	.159		

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A Comparative Study of the Language Learning Strategies Used by the Students of Formal and Non-Formal Systems of Education in Pakistan

It is evident from above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners. The formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on “I say or write new English words several times, I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English, I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go.”

The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on “I start conversation in English, I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English, I try not to translate word-for-word, and I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English,” while learners from both the systems of education are equal on “I try to talk like native English speakers, I practise the sounds of English, I use the English words I know in different ways, I read for pleasure in English, I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English, I try to find patterns in English and I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.”

Table: 4 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the cognitive strategies of the language learning

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	33.0700	14.58812	1.45881	.538	.591
Non Formal	200	31.9000	16.10289	1.61029		

The above table shows that there is no significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all cognitive strategies of language learning. So, it is concluded that the students from both the systems are using the same cognitive strategies in language learning.

Table: 5 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of compensatory strategies

Sr. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	Formal	200	4.05	1.373	.137	4.118	.000
		Non-Formal	200	3.24	1.408	.141		

2	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	Formal	200	1.77	1.230	.123	6.386	.000
		Non-Formal	200	3.07	1.622	.162		
3	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	Formal	200	1.49	1.010	.101	8.260	.000
		Non-Formal	200	2.87	1.331	.133		
4	I read English without looking up every new word.	Formal	200	3.97	1.617	.162	.357	.721
		Non-Formal	200	3.89	1.550	.155		
5	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	Formal	200	1.87	1.098	.110	2.952	.004
		Non-Formal	200	2.42	1.505	.151		
6	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	Formal	200	2.92	1.733	.173	3.095	.002
		Non-Formal	200	3.66	1.647	.165		

It is evident from the above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners and the formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on to understand unfamiliar English words, "I make guesses." The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on "When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures, I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English, I try to guess what the other person will say next in English and If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing." While learners from both the systems of education are equal on "I read English without looking up every new word."

Table: 6 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the compensatory strategies of the language learning

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	16.0700	6.82428	.68243	-2.811	.005
Non Formal	200	19.1500	8.56983	.85698		

The above table shows that there is a significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all compensatory strategies of language learning. So, It is concluded that the students from non-formal system are using the better compensatory strategies in language learning.

Table: 7 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of meta-cognitive Strategies

Sr. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	Formal	200	2.35	1.617	.162	-4.586	.000
		Non-Formal	200	3.41	1.652	.165		
2	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	Formal	200	3.22	1.750	.175	.136	.892
		Non-Formal	200	3.19	1.331	.133		
3	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	Formal	200	3.43	1.094	.109	3.499	.001
		Non-Formal	200	2.77	1.536	.154		
4	I try to find out how to be a better learner of	Formal	200	4.10	1.115	.111	-3.648	.000

	English.	Non-Formal						
			200	4.58	.699	.070		
5	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	Formal	200	3.62	1.543	.154		
		Non-Formal	200	2.53	1.487	.149	5.087	.000
6	I look for people I can talk to in English.	Formal	200	2.06	1.448	.145		.001
		Non-Formal	200	2.82	1.737	.174	-3.360	
7	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	Formal	200	3.10	1.396	.140		
		Non-Formal	200	2.18	1.452	.145	4.567	.000
8	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	Formal	200	2.80	1.484	.148		
		Non-Formal	200	3.72	1.478	.148	-4.393	.000
9	I think about my progress in learning English.	Formal	200	2.78	1.541	.154	-1.080	.282
		Non-Formal	200	3.00	1.333	.133		

It is evident from above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners and the formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on “I pay attention when someone is speaking English, I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English and I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.” The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on “I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English, I try to find out how to be a better learner of English, I look for people I can talk to in English and I have clear goals for improving my English skill.” While learners from both the systems of education are equal on “I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better and I think about my progress in learning English.”

Table: 8 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the meta cognitive strategies of the language learning

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	31.5600	13.18885	1.31889	-.674	.501
Non Formal	200	32.7800	12.40852	1.24085		

The above table shows that there is no significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all meta-cognitive strategies of language learning. So, it is concluded that the students from both the systems are using the same meta-cognitive strategies in language learning.

Table: 9 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of affective Strategies

Sr. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	Formal	200	2.87	1.412	.141	1.881	.061
		Non-Formal	200	3.25	1.445	.145		
2	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	Formal	200	1.76	1.046	.105	9.481	.000
		Non-Formal	200	3.32	1.270	.127		
3	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	Formal	200	3.00	1.035	.103	2.922	.004
		Non-Formal	200	2.55	1.140	.114		
4	I notice if I am tense or nervous	Formal	200	3.50	1.337	.134	4.584	.000

5	when I am studying or using English.	Non-Formal	200	2.57	1.526	.153		
	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	Formal	200	1.53	.881	.088		
6	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	Non-Formal	200	1.16	.368	.037	3.873	.000
		Formal	200	4.00	1.435	.144		
		Non-Formal	200	2.30	1.382	.138	8.532	.000

It is evident from above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners and the formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on “I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English, I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English, I write down my feelings in a language learning diary and I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.” The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on “I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake, While learners from both the systems of education are equal on, I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.”

Table : 10 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the affective strategies of the language learning

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	16.6600	6.41214	.64121	1.637	.103
Non Formal	200	15.1500	6.63382	.66338		

The above table shows that there is no significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all affective strategies of language learning. So, it is concluded that the students from both the systems are using the same affective strategies in language learning.

Table: 11 showing the mean difference between students of formal and non formal systems of education on different parameters of social strategies

Sr. No	Statement	Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
1	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	Formal	200	2.66	1.387	.139	5.875	.000
		Non-Formal	200	1.61	1.127	.113		
2	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	Formal	200	2.27	1.613	.161	3.096	.002
		Non-Formal	200	1.67	1.074	.107		
3	I practise English with other students.	Formal	200	3.20	1.456	.146	7.540	.000
		Non-Formal	200	1.74	1.276	.128		
4	I ask for help from English speakers.	Formal System	200	1.02	.141	.014	1.421	.157
		Non-Formal Education/Non Formal	200	1.00	.000	.000		
5	I ask questions in English.	Formal	200	2.33	1.111	.111	3.756	.000
		Non-Formal	200	1.69	1.293	.129		
6	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Formal	200	1.80	1.110	.111	-5.016	.000
		Non-Formal	200	2.81	1.680	.168		

It is evident from above table that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of formal and non-formal learners and the formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on “If I do not understand something in English, I ask

the other person to slow down or say it again, I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk, I practise English with other students and I ask questions in English.” The non-formal learners are significantly better than formal learners on “I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.” While learners from both the systems of education are equal on, I ask for help from English speakers.

Table: 12 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the social strategies of the language learning.

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	13.2800	6.41979	.64198	3.143	.002
Non Formal	200	10.5200	5.99070	.59907		

The above table shows that there is a significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all social strategies of language learning. So, It is concluded that the students from formal system of education are using more social strategies in language learning.

Table : 13 Showing the mean difference between the students of formal and non-formal system on the overall language learning strategies

Status of Student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-value	p-value
Formal System	200	128.0600	53.51537	5.35154	.392	.696
Non Formal	200	124.9700	57.92671	5.79267		

The above table shows that there is no significant difference between the students from formal and non-formal systems of education on over all language learning strategies. So, it is concluded that the students from both the systems are using the same over all language learning strategies.

Discussion

- On different parameters of memory in learning strategies, it is evident by the results that students of formal system are significantly better in memorizing the lessons by reviewing them regularly and they are in habits of memorizing the words by their location as they are used on page, board or any sign board. They can save the picture of the words as it is on their mind screen. But, on the other hand, the students of non- formal system of education need flash

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cards to remember the words. They can use properly the cards as compared to the students of formal systems of education. But both the students are equal in acting out the words as they are used in any situation. Both are equal in saving the picture of that situation on their mind screens. As the results show there is no difference between the both regarding this parameter of memory in learning strategies (table.1).

- On overall memory strategies of language learning, there is no significant difference between the students of both the systems. Both types of students are equal in using the same language learning strategies to learn or memorize the words or lessons (table. 2).
- Formal students learn English by writing words again and again. They watch English movies and shows to enhance their capability in language. They also use to use skim technique while learning English as compared to non- formal students who are not good in these techniques comparatively. Non-formal students learn language by using the technique of summarizing the given information. They do not try to translate English word to word. According to the results non- formal students are significantly better in these techniques as compared to formal students. On many other parameters of cognition in language learning strategies, both types of students use the same techniques. For example: they try to apply the words in different ways. They focus on sounds also. They happily practice English by writing the letters passages and reports. They understand the words by dividing them into parts and think that its more easy to understand the words as compared to memorize as a whole. In above mentioned techniques there is no significant difference between both types of the students (table. 3).
- Overall results show that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the students on cognitive strategies of learning language. Both types of students do almost the same mental activity or their pattern of learning is almost same while learning English (table.4).
- Formal learners are significantly better than non- formal students in using the guess strategy. If they don't know the new word in English they do not bother about it they can guess of it. Non- formal students are significantly better than formal students in many compensatory strategies of learning English. During conversation if they don't know the meaning of any word they can understand by gestures. They can use new words in the place where they don't know the exact word to be used. They can try to guess the trend of the people while conversation. What would be used by the people next in English. If they don't know the word in English they can use the other word having same meaning in place of that word. These are some of the strategies in which the students of

non- formal system are better than the students of formal system of education (table. 5).

- Overall mean score shows that students of non- formal system are better in using the compensatory strategies while learning language as compared to formal system of education (table.6).
- There is a significant difference between the mean score of the students of formal and non- formal system of education on different parameters of Meta cognition strategies. Results show that formal learners pay more attention when somebody is speaking English and they find enough time in their time table to study English. They seem to be more active in learning English as the results indicate that they look for the opportunities to read about English as compared to non- formal learners. Non- formal learners also have some better strategies of Meta cognition than the formal learners. They try to find out the ways in which they can use their language properly as compared to formal learners. They also seem to be active to be a better learner in English. They seem to be more serious in learning than the formal students as they search for the people speaking English because they are having more clear goals for the improvement of their language skills as compared to formal students (table. 7).
- Overall results show that the students of both the systems think about their progress in learning English. As they find any mistake in their language they try to improve their condition by using almost same strategies. So it can be said that both types of students are cautious about their language skills and practices (table. 8).
- As far affective strategies of learning language are concerned, formal students are significantly better in some of the affective strategies. They appreciate their own effort when they see that they have done well in their learning. In this way they are self motivated for learning. But when they see that they have difficulty in learning something and they are tensed and nervous about this situation then they try to discuss with others about their feelings or they note them down in a diary. These techniques are used by the formal learners in better ways as compared to non- formal students. But students of non- formal system are significantly better on one parameter of affective strategies of learning language. They use the strategy of encouraging themselves adequately as compared to formal students. They encourage themselves even when they think that they will make a mistake. They are not afraid of making mistakes and they try to speak even if an individual feels relaxation in any situation of learning. It means they can develop themselves and enhance their learning. Here the results show that learners from both the systems of education are equal in: when they are afraid of using English they make themselves satisfied in that situation and relax (table. 9).

- Overall mean score on affective strategies of language learning shows that both types of students use same types of strategies while learning language as there is no significant difference between the scores of the respondents (table. 10).
- Formal learners are significantly better than non-formal learners on some parameters of social strategies of language learning. They do not feel shy to ask others to say it again or revise it slowly. Even when they feel any difficulty or speak wrong they can take help from others by saying them to correct their language. They also use a very good strategy of learning English doing practice with others. They do practice and improve their English and remove their mistakes while speaking in a group. Non- formal students are significantly better than formal students in inquiring about the culture of the English speakers. In this way learners can have good knowledge of any language. But both types of the students are in search of English speakers and try to get help from them. According to the results both types of the students are same in having the interest of looking for the English speakers (table. 11).
- Regarding social strategies of learning language, overall results show that there is a significant difference between the both. It seems that formal students are more confident in using social strategies. And they are more social in learning language. They can seek any type of help from their social circle as compared to non- formal students (table.12).
- There are different types of strategies which are used by the students to learn English as a second language. Here overall results on language learning strategies show that both types of the students of formal and non- formal, use same types of language learning strategies because there is no significant difference between the mean score of the respondents. Both types of the students have same patterns of language learning (table. 13).

Conclusion

- Students save the picture of any situation regarding learning English on their mind screen.
- Both types of the students use same strategies to memorize words/ lessons of English.
- Formal students focus more on English movies/discussions/ show of English speakers to enhance their capability of speaking English.
- Non-formal students learn language by using the technique of summarizing the given information. They do not focus on word to word translation.

- Both types of students have intention to learn English. They practice it by writing letters/passages/reports.
- Non- formal students are better in using compensatory strategies as compared to formal students. When they feel any difficulty in using words. They try to use the new words in place of those where they don't know the exact word.
- Both types of students are cautious about their language skills and practices. They try to find out the opportunities to eliminate their weakness.
- Students do not bother about their mistakes while speaking/writing. They get relaxed and try to motivate themselves for improvement.
- Formal students are more confident in using social strategies. And they are more social in learning language. They can seek any type of help from their social circle as compared to non- formal students.

Recommendations

- Students should not focus on memorizing word to word. They should understand the meanings of the word to apply it in different situations.
- Non- formal students have more time for study than formal students. They should watch English movies/ shows and discussions on media.
- Formal students seem to memorize the lessons. It is better if they try to summarize them in their own words. In this way learning will be more effective.
- Students should try to use alternative word in place of that where they don't know the exact word to be used. In this way they can save their time while writing and even speaking. For the purpose they need to do practice.
- Non- formal students should try to increase their social circle like formal students. Group interaction is a best strategy to learn a language. In this way they can remove the mistakes of each other in their group.
- Second language always needs practice. Both types of students should do practice of their writing and speaking to improve their skills.

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New Vistas in Comparative Studies

Ravindra B. Tasildar, M.A.

Introduction

A full-fledged department of *Comparative Literature* was established in JadHAVpur University West Bengal in 1956. It is difficult to say that the discipline of *Comparative Literature* (CL) has made a remarkable progress in Indian universities after the establishment of this department. Jain (1989) and Mohan (1989) have observed that not many departments of English in Indian universities offer courses in *Comparative Literature*. The situation today is just more of the same.

Even when a course in CL is offered it is not taught. For instance, a PG course in CL has remained on paper in Shivaji University, Kolhapur (M.S.) for the last two decades. As the teaching of CL is confined to a handful of universities in India, research in CL is called for so that the discipline may become popular and prosper in the country.

This article is a modest attempt to have a glimpse of some of the explored and unexplored areas of research in CL in Indian universities.

Research in Comparative Literature in Indian Universities

A cursory glance at the section on 'Comparative Studies' in *Indian Doctoral Dissertations in English Studies: A Reference Guide* compiled by Kushwaha and Naseem (2000) reveals that there are theses on influence studies, comparative aesthetics and thematology. It is noticed that 32 % of the doctoral studies in CL ritualistically use the phrase 'a comparative study' in their titles.

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For nearly two decades after independence the comparative literary studies were dominated by influence studies. The main trend was to compare a British school with a school in Indian language. For instance, ‘The English Romantic Poets and the Chhayavad School of Hindi poetry’ (Mathur K.C., 1952, Lucknow University).

Jain (1989) tried to change this trend by suggesting that researchers consider the influence of Rabindranath Tagore on Hindi romantic poetry, i.e., on ‘Chhayavad’.

Gokak (1964), Gowda (1978) and Sastry (1993) asserted the need to pay attention to the study of comparative aesthetics. According to Gokak (1964), “Nothing also is more difficult than to investigate the fundamentals of the two traditions and set forth against that background a comparative study of Bharata and Aristotle, of Coleridge and Abhinavagupta” (Gokak, 1964: 149). The following studies reveal the work in this area.

Year	Title of the Thesis	Researcher	University
1970	Coleridge’s idea of imagination and Abhinavagupta’s idea of Rasa: A comparative study	Mishra, Shrikrishna	Patna
1975	Aristotle and Bharata: A comparative study	Singal, Roshan Lal	Panjab
1990	The theory of drama: A comparative study of Aristotle and Bharata	Rai, R.N.	Magadh

(Source - Kushwaha and Naseem, 2000)

In the last decade of twentieth century there have been studies carried out on the works of Anita Desai and Arun Joshi. Thematic comparisons became the focus here.

Year	Title of the Doctoral Thesis	Researcher	University
1989	The novels of Anita Desai and Arun Joshi: A phenomenological study	Hussaini, Atiya Sultana	Kurukshetra
1992	The outsider in Indian English Fiction with special reference to Arun Joshi and Anita Desai	Madhava Rao, N	Kakatiya
1993	The problem of identity in the novels of Anita Desai and Arun Joshi: A comparative study	Verma, Beena Rani	BHU
1993	The theme of alienation in the novels of Anita Desai and Arun Joshi: A comparative study	Upadhyaya, Ramesh Chandra	Avadh
1995	The theme of alienation in the novels of Anita Desai and Arun Joshi: A comparative study	Prasad, Surat	DEI Agra
1997	The theme of alienation in the novels of Anita Desai, Nayantara Sahgal and Arun Joshi	Shrivastava, Usha	Rewa

(Source - Kushwaha and Naseem, 2000)

The theme of alienation being the prominent one, the duo happened to be the most popular one for comparison.

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Unexplored Areas in Comparative Literature

The research in CL in Indian universities generally rests on the suggestions by Gokak (1964), Gowda (1978), Das (1989), Dev (1989), Mohan (1989), Devy (1993), Sastry (1993), Das (2000), Gupta (2000) and Singh (2000). These scholars have broadened the horizons of CL by suggesting wide ranging areas/topics to be studied in the Indian context. Some of the topics suggested have been over-explored, while some of the areas have not been fully explored.

It seems that enough attention is not paid towards studying the plays of poet-playwrights. A comparative study could be made of the plays of Tennyson, Browning, Nissim Ezekiel and Gieve Patel. According to Das (2000) Ezekiel's play *Don't Call It Suicide* can be profitably read by comparing it with Synge's *Rider to the Sea* (Das, 2000: 163). A comparative study of radio plays and screen plays in English and Indian languages by Mahesh Dattani, Dina Mehta and K. S. Duggal is another area of investigation.

Some Significant Areas for Comparative Study

The significance of comparative study can be understood from the observation of Gupta (2000). He notes that most of our critics extol R.K. Narayan as the best humourist that the country has produced. He further adds, "... any discerning critic who studies S.V.V.'s (S. V. Vijayaraghavachari) dozen or so volumes of essays in a lighter vein such as *Soap Bubbles, More Soap Bubbles, Chaff and Grain, Much Daughtered*, and *Holiday Trip* is sure to be tempted to rate him as a better humourist than R.K. Narayan" (Gupta, 2000:264).

In the light of this observation, it would be better to compare works of humourists (mentioned by Gupta, 2000) like V.V. John, N.G. Jog, Iswar Dutt, R. Bangaruswamy and S.V.V. The humorous writings in Indian languages can also be compared. A comparative study of the humorous writings of P.G. Wodehouse, R.K. Narayan and P. L. Deshpande (Marathi) can be carried out, for instance.

A study of biographies and autobiographies of Indian creative writers, saints, business tycoons, film artists, sportspersons and politicians is one more area for comparison. For instance, a comparative study could be made of biographies such as *Premchand* (tr. Harish Trivedi, 2002) and *Rabindranath Tagore* by Uma Das Gupta (2004). Early autobiographies by Indian women like Krupabai Sathianadhan's *Saguna* and Lakshmi Bai Tilak's *I follow After: An Autobiography* can be compared.

In addition to this, travelogues by women written in Indian languages could be a topic for comparative study. Short stories by contemporary women writers in Bengali and Marathi are worth studying from comparative perspective. Even the literature in English in states like Goa and Kerala can be compared effectively with that of North-East Indian states.

Furthermore, comparative studies in alternative literatures like Dalit studies and Gay and Lesbian studies can be a rewarding experience.

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There are numerous studies on partition literature in Indian universities. We can't afford to ignore the history and literature of the nations like Ireland, Cyprus, North Korea, South Korea and Germany in this regard. Could we explore the possibility of comparing partition literature in the sub-continent with that of West Asia - Palestine and Israel, if available in English translation?

Indian Contact with Western Literature and Consequent Comparative Studies

The Indian contact with the Western literatures is not confined to English alone (Das, 1989:101). Nevertheless, there are innumerable studies on the influence of British literature on Indian literature in English and in Indian languages. There is no substantial work available in English on the influence of other colonizers like Portuguese, French and Dutch on literatures in Indian languages.

Das (1989) mentioned that Portuguese had a direct impact on the Indian languages spoken in Goa. Therefore it would be fruitful to make available in English the studies related to the contribution of Portuguese to the development of literatures in Konkani and Marathi.

It seems that the literature from countries like Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar, China, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Malaysia and Mauritius (Diaspora literature, if it exists) has been overlooked from comparative point of view, as in most of the cases one has to rely solely on the works available in translation.

Translation Studies

The translation studies are inseparable from comparative studies. Gokak (1964) had suggested translating the devotional lyrics of great poets in India. Dev (1989), Mohan (1989) and Nemade (1989) have obliquely suggested to bring the Bhakti movement under comparative literary studies. Now devotional lyrics of Narsi Mehta (Gujarati), Tukaram (Marathi) and Tulsi Das (Hindi), for example, are available in English translation. *Vachana* poetry in Kannada, also available in translation, has been compared with metaphysical poetry (Huleppanavarmath (1996)) and Shaivaite poets have been compared to T.S. Eliot (Thirunavukkarasu (1993)).

According to Das (2000), one can make a comparative study of the influence of the Bhakti movement in Maharashtra on various regional literatures of India. In the biography of Kannada saint-poet Kanakdas, Dr. Basavaraj Naikar suggests, "There is ample scope for researchers to study themes, imagery and technique with those of other poets like Vemana, Dnyandev, Namdev, Guru Nanakdev, Tulsidasji, Surdasji, Mahatma Kabir, Metaphysical poets like John Donne, George Herbert, St. Teresa and St. Augustine from comparative point of view fruitfully and arrive at some universal patterns of religious and mystic literature" (as cited by Kullur, 2005: 114).

Earlier Focus of Translation Studies

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The main thrust of a number of translation studies pursued earlier seems to be on highlighting the genre/text/language specific problems of literary translation.

A researcher needs to think on the lines of a study like ‘Translation of Jokes: Problems of Specialized Translations’ (1996) by M. Radhika and Udaya Narayana Singh.

Studies in problems of translating non-literary texts like information brochures, user manuals, advertisements, etc., could help the students of CL to earn their livelihood. Just like studying different editions of a text, it would not be a bad idea to study the translated versions of a text in different languages or in a language, for example, translations of *Animal Farm* in Marathi.

Books on Marathi prosody, style, diction, etc. have so far not been translated (Devy, 1993: 133). The same is true of such books in other Indian languages. Books on criticism available in Indian languages need to be translated in English.

Instead of translating only the classical works in regional languages preference needs be given to translation of folk literature. There is also a considerable scope to translate *powadas* (ballads) and *lavanis* in Marathi.

One of the aims of teaching English in India stated by Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy (2006) is ‘the *ideology-driven identity projection* (translating and projecting India so that English becomes a ‘window on India’)’ (p.180). This underscores the direction of ‘Translation Studies’ in the 21st century India.

In the past, the academicians used to ask the researchers to focus their studies on the texts in English language. The situation has changed slowly. Singh (2000) is of the opinion that to make Indian comparative literary studies more meaningful, it is necessary to encourage Indian scholarship to attempt comparative literary studies of the Indian texts in their source language version without waiting for or taking recourse to their translation. Some of the Indian universities have taken initiatives to materialize it.

Though there may be many examples of this kind, the next two instances could suffice this. For her Ph.D., Bhaduri (2007) has studied ‘The Stream of Consciousness Fiction in India: A Comparative Study of Selected Novels in English, Hindi and Bangla’ (University of Pune). Bhambar (2009) has studied a Marathi novel *Bardana*, which in not available in English translation, for his doctoral thesis in English entitled ‘Spiritual Quest in selected representative novels about East and West: A comparative study’ (Shivaji University).

New Pastures in Comparative Studies

According to Mohan (1989: 88), the study of literature and the other arts – literature and music or literature and painting comes under the umbrella of ‘comparative literature’.

It is generally found that a number of studies in CL concentrate mostly on literature in print. However, the study of relationship between literature and other arts is taught only Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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in the universities like Jadhavpur and Delhi. For example, a paper entitled *Literature and the Visual Arts in Europe* has been introduced by Delhi University for M.A semester III. This area has been least explored for research degrees in Indian universities. There is enough scope for topics like 'A study of depiction of myths in Indian folk tales, paintings and carvings' and 'Impact of Goan music on Marathi Literature and Hindi films'.

Interdisciplinary Nature is Ignored

One of the cardinal feature of CL is its interdisciplinary nature, but it is neglected (Patil, 2007:19). There are no serious attempts of interdisciplinary research in CL in Indian universities other than in universities like Jadhavpur, Delhi and Hyderabad, to name a few.

Research in 'literature and film' is yet to get due recognition in the Indian universities (with few exceptions like above-mentioned universities). This relationship can be studied from different angles. There is need to study literary works in Indian languages and their adaptations from comparative perspective. For example, film adaptations of works of Mahasweta Devi and Amrita Pritam. There is no dearth of topics in Film Studies. Some of the topics are - Influence of British literature on Indian Films: A study of *Tess of the d'Urbervilles* and *Premgrantha*, Images of *Othello* reflected in Hindi Films - *Shartha*, *Hamraj* and *Omkara*, Image of a teacher in Marathi and Hindi films (e.g. *Pinjara* and *Aastha*), *Dheerodatta Nayaka* (a concept of ancient Indian literary criticism) in the Indian films, The evolution of the theme of rebirth in Hindi films from *Madhumati* to *Om Shanti Om*, Heroines in Shakespeare's plays and in Raj Kapoor's films, and The use of circus motif in *Circus* (Charlie Chaplin), *Mera Naam Joker* (Raj Kapoor) and *Appu Raja* (Kamal Haasan).

Popular culture, another fascinating ground for *Comparative Studies* (CS), has yet to become popular with the researchers. It opens a whole gamut of new hybrid studies. Some of the possible topics of research in this area have been listed below.

- i) A critical study of allusions in Ramanand Sagar's TV serial *Ramayana*
- ii) The image of mother-in-law projected through TV serials in Hindi and Marathi
- iii) A comparison of detective novels, films and TV serials in Indian languages
- iv) Influence of Western science fiction on this genre in Indian languages
- v) Impact of English romantic poets on children's songs in Marathi
- vi) A study of contribution of children's magazines to the literature in Indian languages
- vii) Influence of Diwali Special issues in Marathi on other Indian languages
- viii) A study of some recent trends in film reviews in English and Indian languages
- ix) A study of cinematic versions of the theatrical text of Marathi play *All the Best*
- x) A critical study of animated films for children like *Hanuman* and *Bal Ganesha*
- xi) A cultural study of wedding songs in literatures in Indian languages and films
- xii) The rise and development of 'Indian Writing in English', 'Bollywood' and 'Indian Cricket': A study of parallels

A literary text undergoes transformation from one form/genre to another. Some of the **areas of transformation studies** have been suggested here. Soon such tripartite studies will be the next trend in CL.

- a) Treatment of the theme of partition in fiction (*Train to Pakistan*), film (*Pinjar*) and TV serial (*Tamas*)
- b) A study of variation in a literary work from page to stage with reference to *Pygmalion* (English text), *Manpasand* (Hindi film) and *Ti Phularani* (Marathi play).
- c) Echoes of an English play into a Marathi play and its reverberations back into English: A study of generic variations (with reference to *King Lear*, *Natasamrat* & *The Last Scene*)

Scant Attention to Semiotics and Stylistics

There is considerable research in the areas of comparative linguistics and phonetics. It seems that in CS scant attention is paid towards semiotics and stylistics. Though Mohan (1989) has obliquely suggested that the codification of visual images in Indian art films can be a topic for comparative studies, semiotics has not yet got rooted in India. The stylistic and pragmatic approaches have been applied to some of the works in Indian literature in English and in English translation.

In what could be called as a striking example of interdisciplinary research, Asturkar (2008) has worked on 'Stylistic study of Music with reference to 'Etawah' gharana (sitar)' for a minor research project in English submitted to the University of Pune. It is high time that the literature in the Indian languages be compared by applying the principles of stylistics. Besides, the stylistic study of the titles of research papers in CL can become a good topic of a seminar paper. The application of concepts like speech acts, speech situations, turn-taking and implicatures could be extended further not only to comparative study of literary works in Indian languages but also to folk literature. For instance, turn-taking in folk plays like *Sangya-Balya* (Kannada) and *Kalu-Balu* (Marathi) can be studied effectively.

The researchers could also think of preparing a **glossary of 'Key Concepts in Comparative and Translation Studies'**. It would be good to prepare a visual glossary of allusions and myths in Indian literature. The bilingual dictionaries can also be compared from their utility perspective to the translators. Such works, in the form of major projects, would be a noteworthy contribution to the discipline of CL in India.

To Sum Up

It would be wrong to judge the developments in CL in India with the help of the happenings in the handful of elite universities like Jadhavpur, Delhi and Hyderabad, to name a few. The true scenario of the discipline is reflected in the teaching and research in many Indian universities which do not have separate departments and expertise in CL. If the research in CL is to be disciplined, the university like Jadhavpur needs to use its

hegemonic position to guide the research activities in ‘other’ Indian universities. Similarly, the experts in the field of CL can play a crucial role in this regard.

The Indian universities also need to function on the lines of the Research and Development section of the MNCs. The prospects of research in CL in India rests on two other aspects – first, availability of a sound bibliography of CS in English and Indian languages (Devy (1993) and Patil (2007) have already emphasized such need) and second, introduction of courses in CL (along with mention of ‘Job opportunities’ in the syllabus documents) in more and more Indian universities at UG, PG and post-PG levels.

Finally, it would be asserted that the topics suggested here are only illustrative and all topics may not be worth for research degrees, but some of these could be explored for minor research projects.

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Comparative analysis of MA English Results under Annual and Semester system: Quality Assurance in Pakistan

**Tayyaba Malik, Ph.D Candidate, Priya Avais, M.Phil. Candidate
& Tahira Khanam, Ph.D. Candidate**

Abstract

This paper attempts to explore the significant difference in the results of M.A. English under annual and semester system. It also focuses to identify which system provides quality education to the students to make them better professionals. For that hypothesis adopted was that there is significant difference in the results of M.A. English under annual and semester system.

A questionnaire was distributed among randomly selected people from education department, students who experienced both these systems and focus group discussion was carried out to record the perceptions of people towards both systems of education. Independent sample t test was also applied.

The results proved that there is significant difference in the quality of results of M.A. English under annual and semester system. In annual system students get ample time to mastery over the subject while semester system train the students to synthesize the Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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subjects and students are not only intellectually evaluated but also on grounds of behavior.

Introduction

Academic concerns have now become an extensive debate for understanding the concept of enhanced academic quality. Educators and higher authorities are always trying to devise new ideas and explore several options for making education as effective as possible in terms of outcomes. Outcomes in an academic set up means achievement of overall excellence in terms of results.

This research article is an analysis of the field research that we conducted in a women's college. This research aims to investigate and present a comparative analysis of M.A. English results under annual and semester system Quality Assurance.

In order to compare the semester and annual system the researcher has taken into account the qualities that are present in both the systems. Annual system has been a successful system for our education in the past. However there were many loopholes in the system. This research talks about the possibilities of comparing the two systems as well as finding out which one is better to ensure quality for M.A. English results.

Research Questions

1. Do the documented results of the semester system for M.A. English, Annual and MA English semester differ remarkably?
2. Is there a difference in the acquired knowledge and competence of the students from either system i.e. Semester or Annual system?

Objectives

- To find trends of teaching practitioners towards the effectiveness of Annual or Semester system.
- To find out the short comings of both the systems.
- To investigate whether our educational culture is ready for Semester System or not.

Hypothesis

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There is a significant difference in the results of the MA English Semester System and M.A. English Annual System.

Literature Review

Educational system all over the world has never been consistent over the year. Through advancement and exposure to new concepts, Educationists investigate possibilities to teach texts in various feasible manners. According to Myron Tribus (1994), there are innumerable proposals/suggestions for reforms and changes in educational system and there are infinite number of good ideas and research results. The target is not just to pick one of them but rather it is to have comprehensive attitude and approach within which to bring to action many good works known to us.

Pakistan has had an inherited educational system from the British. This was predominantly based on a two year extensive and comprehensive study session followed by an examination that tested memory and comprehensively acquired knowledge. For many years in the past the Punjab Board and many other educational boards of our country have been operating under the principles and methods of “**An Annual Education System**”.

An annual system is a traditional method that gives students an ample chance of two years to understand and grasps concepts, and sits for a comprehensive exam at the end of two years .This exam includes both subjective and objective portions but it predominantly tests on subjective or comprehensive exam.

In many countries, especially in the West, the Annual system is called TAP, or Tuition Assistance Programme. Even in some British Universities the annual system existed fifty years ago.

Educationist over the world are also not only looking at the annual or semester but there are many other including quarterly and term semester ,and a more recent debate is going on choosing either Quarter pr Semester system.

Aggarwal (1997) argues that only that system of education is good which ensures effective learning. The criterion for success is effective learning. So, some precautions or some details about the semester system must be informed to the students before switching from annual to semester or from semester to quarter system (2005). Evaluation is a cyclical process having four phases: preparation, assessment, evaluation and reflection.

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Assessment and evaluation serves two purposes. It enhances student education and improves teacher instruction

Kinnaird College for Women runs two 15-week semesters, rather than the traditional three terms. Each semester has:

- A mid-semester exam
- A tuition time/reading/study block
- A one -week exam period at the end

For example, at Kinnaird College for Women, Autumn Semester typically runs from - September until just before Christmas. There is then an extended winter break of 2 weeks. The Spring Semester usually runs from Jan/February to the end of May, followed by a 15-week break over the summer. It's also possible to start your studies in the Spring Semester.

Academically, the eight-semester Honors programmes offer flexible entry for non-graduating study abroad students, who may study any course for which they have the appropriate academic background, regardless of the semester level or Department involved.

However, Annual system has its strong points as it provides a good opportunity to go through topics extensively, develop extensive reading and writing skills. However, the HEC (Higher Education Commission) had different findings.

In Pakistani context, we may see that the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan has been doing a lot of study for realizing the need to introduce new systems in the country. There has been a change in the overall educational scenario as it was felt that the already running semester system is not producing good results in term of knowledge acquisition of students.

As a result National Committee on Examination System (NCES) was constituted in 2003 to go through the effectiveness of the existing system and to seek possibilities for improving the existing examination system followed in Higher Education institutions of Pakistan.

It was strongly felt by the Committee that an in-depth analysis of existing examination system is mandatory before any remedial measures are suggested. A Sub-Committee was thus formed to collect data on existing examination processes and practices. This was done with two aims in mind: First, to find the inadequacies and malpractices in existing

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annual examination system across the country, and secondly, to suggest comprehensive changes to formulate nationally agreed principles and practices.

The members of NCES, in its 3rd meeting held on 1st March, 2005, again deliberated on the information collected from various universities and formulated final recommendations

1. Different types of examination systems i.e. Annual, Semester, and Term are being practiced all over the country. In order to attain the uniformity and harmony it was decided that, by fall 2008, all higher education Institutions will gradually shift towards semester system.
2. Strategies for assessment of quality of items and examination processes cannot be improved without intensive professional training of the staff involved in the examinations. HEC shall arrange pertinent training at regular basis of all the staff concerned with examinations.
3. Course objectives in terms of students' learning outcomes and Table of Specification should be available to all concerned persons including students.
4. Choice of questions in examinations, e.g., 5 out of 8 questions encourages selective study and should be totally abolished.
5. Grace marks in examinations to pass the candidates should not be allowed in any circumstances by the year 2007. A system of moderation/ arbitration, however, must be evolved by then for all institutions with consensus.
6. Paper Setting: final paper setting should preferably be done by a panel of 2 or more examiners. Wherever applicable, in annual system of examination, final papers shall be reviewed by a neutral examiner.
7. Most of the questions should assess higher level of cognition, i.e., conceptual knowledge and application of learned material in practical field.
8. Wherever applicable, a "Key" (agreed answer/solution) should be prepared by the paper setters before the question paper is used in the examination. The "Key" should also give the Weight age and detailed breakdown of the marks for subcomponents. In descriptive questions, where writing of exact solution may not be practical, the paper setter must write the key points of each question that are required from the students.
9. Assessment Tools: Use of multiple choice question (MCQs) and short essay questions (SEQs) should be encouraged to increase the content validity of question papers. Descriptive questions, should preferably be done away with except where writing skills, concepts or ability to dialogue need to be evaluated.
10. A policy of complete transparency must be adopted in Semester/Term system where candidates are guaranteed an opportunity to discuss the marks awarded to them with the concerned teacher.

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11. In case, a student fails in an examination should wait for six months at least before appearing to second chance of examination.
12. All examinations to be held from year 2007 will follow the policy of “No Choice” at under graduate level

After through consideration the National Committee on Examination System and Quality Assurance Committee in its meetings held on 10th September, 2005 and 29th October, 2005, respectively, has approved the above recommendations for improvements in examination system of higher education institutions in Pakistan. The above recommendations were forwarded and placed on the agenda of Commission meeting held on 15th August, 2006

Looking through the outcomes of the meeting at HEC it is clear that measures have been taken to introduce Semester system in our culture all over the government sector institutions. In many other private and semi private institutions semester system has been existing since 2003 and even before for e.g. Kinnaird College for Women Lahore. Even at Kinnaird, 2004 in the beginning there were many questions and problems that students and faculty had to face. The prospectus became bulkier and more comprehensive since for each subject a full detail of topics and time lines of each semester were clearly given. Students became vigilant and teachers diligent. However the effectiveness of the system did not take place over night .It is still in its teething stage.

Results from a Women’s College

For M.A. English, there are three programmes running at Kinnaird: English Literature, ELT and Applied Linguistics. During the late 90s the exams were conducted annually and the average highest marks during 1995-2000 Punjab Board Exams were a high second division for MA literature and after that the percentage slightly increased now Masters students of Literature are getting an average of 3.23 CGPA. Applied Linguistics, however, had always been running in semester system (Kinnaird College; Record room file Number KC: L23/1995_1999), and KC/L 23 2004_2007).

Following are the results of the semester M.A. English 2007 semester system:

<u>Regd. No.</u>	<u>Name of the Candidate</u>	<u>Result</u>	<u>CGPA</u>	<u>Grade</u>
Deptt. of English Language & Literature, K.C Lahore				
2007- 5591	Saliha Abid	Pass	3.35	B

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2007-331	Habiba Hasnain D/o Hasnain Ijaz	Pass	3.3	B
2007-156	Amina Bashir D/o Bashir Ahmad Saleemi	Pass	3.15	B
2007--1350	Nida Mushtaq Khan D/o Muhammad Mushtaq Khan	Pass	3.10	B
2007--1	Smia Mujahid S/o Mujahid Pervez	Pass	2.60	B-
2007-1-158	Rabia Sohail D/o Sohail Rasool	Pass	2.86	B-
2007--532	Maimoona Anwar D/o Idris Ahmed Anwar	Pass	3.61	B+
2007-209	Nida Ahsan D/o Ahsan Akbar	Pass	3.48	B+
2007--1	Sana Aslam D/o Muhammad Aslam	Pass	3.36	B
2007--33	Rabia Hotiana D/o Muhammad Ahmed Hotiana	Pass	3.20	B
2007--960	Sana Hamid D/o Abdul Hamid	Pass	3.28	B
2007--471	Ayesha Kanwal D/o Tariq Javed	Pass	2.67	B-
2007-20	Madiha Rana S/o Rana Manzoor Ahmed	Pass	2.95	B-
2007-21	Sadia Rafi D/o Muhammad Rafi Ullah Khan	Pass	3.05	B
2007-23	Laiba Dawar S/o Zafar Ullah Khan Dawar	Pass	2.56	B-
2007-24	Amber Khalil D/o Muhammad Khalil Ahmad	Pass	2.71	B-

Methodology

For this research two methods have been chosen:

Quantitative: Questionnaire based on: Semantic differential scale

Qualitative: Comments from Focus group discussion

Institution for conducting Research: Kinnaird College for Women Lahore and University of Management and Technology Lahore.

Respondents:

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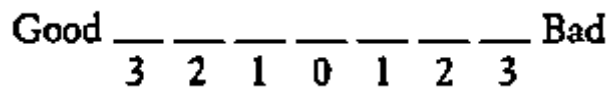
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The respondents were a population of teachers within them there were two groups:

1. One group was of teachers who had been students here and had studied through both Semester (M.Phil. level) and Annual (M.A. level) system. They are all teaching in semester system now.
2. A group of senior teachers who have taught for more than fifteen years are professionally oriented and know both the annual and semester system however they had studied in an annual system.
3. A group of teachers assistants and internees who wish to teach at college level .

Semantic Differential Scale

The Semantic Differential (SD) measures people's reactions to stimulus words and concepts in terms of ratings on bipolar scales defined with contrasting adjectives at each end. An example of an SD scale is:



Usually, the position marked 0 is labeled "neutral," the 1 positions are labeled "slightly," the 2 positions "quite," and the 3 positions "extremely." A scale like this measures directionality of a reaction (e.g., good versus bad) and also intensity (slight through extreme). Typically, a person is presented with some concept of interest, e.g., Red China, and asked to rate it on a number of such scales. Ratings are combined in various ways to describe and analyze the person's feelings.

The Questionnaire is designed according to this differential scale .At the two extremes the Semester and Annual systems are taken .0 is considered as moderate and the questionnaire was monitored explaining to the respondents the purpose of research. The major focus in the questionnaire is on these things.

- Annual or semester system provides good grading criteria, better job opportunities, focused academic goals, testing through different techniques, better reading and writing skills, better interviewing and presentation skills and autonomy to the students.

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- Acquired knowledge through annual or semester system of education is applicable to practical life.
- Teachers are more diligent and alert in annual or semester system.

Processing the Questionnaire Data

The Responses from forty respondents were collected from the above questionnaire and results were analyzed on SPSS .As it is evident from above that there are two independent systems ,measured on the same construct(statement) therefore it is similar for measuring relation between any two independent variables .For independent variables we apply the “**Independent Sample t Test**”.

Grouping variable	N	X Mean Score	Sd Standard Deviation	Df Degree of Freedom	t
Male	20	38.10	14.63	27	0.043
Female	20	29.11	3.55	23.35	

Table

Analysis/ Interpretation of Result

Significance for the Equal variance assumed has come out to be less than 5, i.e. .043 this means that there is significance difference in the results of the semester and annual systems.

Qualitative Tool

Focus group research is based on facilitating an organized discussion with a group of individuals selected because they were believed to be representative of some class (professors and lecturers of English Language /Literature). Discussion is used to bring out insights and understandings in ways which simple questionnaire items may not be able to tap. Focus group research has long been prominent in social sciences (Morgan, 1988), in part because it seeks to tap emotional and unconscious motivations.

The interaction among focus group participants brings out differing perspectives through the language that is used by the discussants. People get caught up in the spirit of group

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discussion and may reveal more than they would in the more formal interview setting. As discussants ask questions of each other, new avenues of exploration are opened.

In discussions, multiple meanings are revealed as different discussants interpret topics of discussions in different ways. Interaction is the key to successful focus groups. In an interactive setting, discussants draw each other out, sparking new ideas. The reactions of each person spark ideas in others, and one person may fill in a gap left by others. One may even find a form of collaborative mental work, as discussants build on each other to come to a consensus.

Focus group discussion with Professors and Lecturers

Venue: Department of English Language and Literature

Number of respondents: 6

Prof. Qaisar Sheikh, Prof. Rubina Shahid (Head of English Department), Associate Professor Mrs. Nasreen Pasha, Associate Professor Mrs. Ghazala Hameed., Rabia Zaheer (Lecturer), Tehmina Perzada (Lecturer).

Questions were asked and for each question there were consensus, however any unique comments were also recorded.

Q1: Do you think that there can be an absolute comparison between the outcomes in terms of standards of these two annual and semester system?

Responses

Definitely! Both are **Comparable educational system** this provides room for conceptual understanding that whether we are ready for such change or not: Prof. Qaisera says: The semester system is no doubt the best system in the world but unfortunately it is not being applied in an appropriate manner. Prof R. Shahid says: We need to understand the true spirit of this system. As an administrator this has given me focus to look at “**Designing my courses in an adequate manner**”. It was assumed that this system may not be too good for Literature students but believe me it has made our students more research oriented instead of cramming notes they are now interpreting dramas and poems with their own perspective because previously they were asked to give critical comments in board exams, so now they do not do this.

Q 2. Has the Role of a teacher changed after this switch over from Annual to Semester system?

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To this question there were many responses some said not really, however some of them agreed that the role changed remarkably .A.P Ghazala Hameed says: I am very honest about this as I have been here for 29 years during my stay I have taught many courses at Ma literature and One course in ELT .In annual system the teacher is not held accountable for results. The papers are checked externally and to **some extent there is objectivity as the examiner does not know the candidate.** Here in semester system we have to do every thing, I feel pressurized all the time that I have to mark quizzes prepare mid term and listen to presentations!! On the other hand the student has more autonomy, so this system eliminates tardiness in terms of both students and teacher.

Mrs Shahid says: It has helped me to become sharp and efficient. The teacher is actually standing in a confession stand where the student can challenge us. Sometimes positive favoritism develops towards students.

Q3; Do you think the time slots/credit hours for each course are being followed appropriately in our college.

Rabia Zaheer says: The slots some times are not enough. For theater skills module we had to have separate workshops for completing course work. Semester system is an excellent was **“To achieve academic orientation”** If followed we need to nurture a culture for semester system. **That means that we can’t go out station for relatives weddings, Can’t fall ill, etc.** Most of the time the semester is reduced to a Quarter as we have to do quizzes. Also to do justice with a poet like Keats a 24 hours course in not enough.

However, with Linguistics, Mrs.Qaisera says that 32 credit hour course provides enough time but sadly enough our students forget some concepts when the same is asked for reference in other modules. More time should be given for in class **reading and responding.**

4. Do you think that both systems provide ample vistas to the students for applying all the language learning skills?

Immediate response: ooh!! This question had uproar. However most of the teacher agreed that since annual system if it had been followed significantly, could have provided the students with An in-depth understanding of comprehensive tests. Unfortunately send ups and class tests during the annual systems were not given mush importance and it used to be a “One shot” opportunity where mostly the students would conveniently do selective studies other than that “Yes” annual system provides thoroughness and detailed

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understanding of concepts. Even in semester system the comprehensive exams at the end do take the students through the grind of hard core learning reading and writing.

As an observation Mrs. Shahid says: **Semester system students show better presentation skills because we make them go through a lot of in class group and individual presentations, dramatization, role plays and improvisation thus helping.** The reason why we can't really talk about the job market is that right now most of the generation that is in the field are those who have gone through the annual system and it will take some time for the semester system students to come in the main stream.

Discussion

The results of the above research show that there is a significant difference between the results of the semester and annual systems .As per result of the questionnaire the respondents who were selected from both the semester and annual systems expressed that the difference in the output is not only on the basis of numerical results but also in terms of competence of the students that they show in the field situation. Secondly the various levels of how the systems are used effectively also helps in maintenance of the result quality.

The results of the questionnaire and the focus group discussion had slightly different results because the outcome of the discussion showed trends of the teaching practitioners as to what level of understanding they had regarding the results.

Conclusion

Both the education systems, i.e., semester and annual have their weak and strong presentation skills. However the annual system gives an opportunity to develop through concepts and in depth study of texts. In this system students get ample time to mastery over the subjects. Smooth running of the semester system means being careful about timelines and constraints of concepts that can be comprehended in a concise manner. It trains the students through a process of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. For cognitive learning semester system moves to the higher level of learning and student is evaluated on both intellectual and behavioral grounds. Check and balance system can facilitate the learners with the full benefit of the system. Teacher training can help both the semester and annual systems to assure quality.

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APPENDIX

A Questionnaire for analyzing two Educational systems

Name _____ Age _____ Qualification _____
Designation _____

Note: The Researcher wants to find out your views about the degree of quality assurance in education through either semester system or annual system. You will see two columns below for each one there is a range from 1 to 3 for each choose one system that you think fulfills what the statement asks then choose either 0 for neutral 1 for Disagree, 2 for moderately agree and 3 for agree.

Semester	Differential Scale	Annual
1. Provides good grading criteria	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Provides good grading criteria
2. Students of this system get better job opportunities	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Students of this system get better job opportunities
3. Provides thorough understanding of concepts	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Provides thorough understanding of concepts

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4.Our academic culture accepts this system	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Our academic culture accepts this system
5.Results of the students of this system show focused academic goals	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Results of the students of this system show focused academic goals
6.Students are tested through different techniques	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Students are tested through different techniques
7.Results of this system show better presentation skills	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Results of this system show better presentation skills
8.Results of this system show better reading writing skills	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Results show better reading writing skills
9.Students perform better in interviews	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Students perform better in interviews
10.Teachers are more diligent and alert	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Teachers are more diligent and alert
11.Students are academically overburdened	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Students are academically overburdened
12.Subjectivity in Evaluation	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Subjectivity in evaluation
13.Student has more autonomy	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Student has more autonomy
14.Continuous assessment of students	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Continuous assessment of students
15.Acquired Knowledge is applicable to practical life	3 2 1 0 1 2 3	Acquired Knowledge is applicable to practical life

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**A Virtual Learning Environment in an ESL Classroom
in a Technical University in India**

S. Gunasekaran, M.A. M.Phil., Ph.D.

Introduction – My Objective

This paper aims at presenting the enriched learning experiences that my engineering students had in an ESL classroom despite the prevalence of a number of constraints. Creating a virtual environment in the ESL context is quite challenging, as there are limitations in using new technologies in our teaching. However, in order to promote effective learning of Corporate English among my students I conducted an action research. I trained them in communication skills with the help of two web tools Podcasts and blogs.

My objective was to:

1. Teach new expressions that are normally used in corporate communication;
2. Create a podcast and upload the dialogues written by the students into it;
3. Create a ‘class blog’ for students to post their summary of news stories on current affairs.

The Need for Training in Corporate Culture

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The idea of conducting this study arose when I noticed a need for training the students in corporate culture and successful work patterns. Most of the students have specialized in Technical subjects in their BE/B.Tech. programmes and have virtually no exposure to corporate culture.

I felt that by creating a virtual environment the corporate world could be brought into the classroom, which, in turn, would stimulate a firsthand experience. To support my view, I found a few interesting articles on podcasts and in one such article Kenneth Beare points out, ‘Podcasting is especially interesting for English learners as it provides a means for students to get access to “authentic” listening sources about almost any subject that may interest them.’ Teachers can take advantage of podcasts as a basis for listening comprehension exercises, as a means of generating conversation based on students’ reaction to podcasts, and as a way of providing each and every student diverse listening materials.

Further I believed that the resources and tools offered by the Internet would motivate the students to perform better while taking up jobs in leading organizations.

A Brief Description of the Curriculum That I’m Required to Follow

It is essential in this context to give a brief description of the curriculum that I handle for III year BE/B.Tech students. It focuses on training students in soft skills apart from imparting domain knowledge for them to work in the corporate world. The curriculum aims at enhancing communication skills among students and evaluating their oral proficiency as well as written communication. A record book is maintained to assess students’ performance continuously (twice a week at least). In order to meet those demands the training sessions had to incorporate listening components as well.

How to Achieve the Goals Set by the Curriculum?

How could this be done with the diversified aim of training students in soft skills like interpersonal, persuasive, selling skills, just to name a few, apart from exposing the students to the corporate world? The most feasible option was using web tools like Podcasts and Blogs. The action research conducted and published earlier by various researchers, it was found out that listening to podcasts helped students to improve their oral communication whereas posting messages in a ‘class blog’ updated their knowledge of current affairs. Needless to mention students learnt to condense the current news and present them briefly.

Podcast versus Other Web Tools

How far does a podcast differ from other web tools? ‘Pod casting includes web casting, where people listen to files through their computers, and podcasting takes the next step too of pushing sound files to subscribers with portables MP3 players such as the ‘Pod for listening on the go’ (Steve McCarty, 2005). We are aware that a ‘Podcast’ refers to broadcasting an audio file with the help of the software ‘podder’. You require an RSS feed to download the audio file and with

the help of an MP3 you can listen to the podcast that has been uploaded anywhere at any time and at any place.

Collaborative Listening

With this advanced technology it is possible to expose students to a number of listening activities to enhance their oral proficiency. Collaborative work promotes such a training program and it was evident that when students listened to podcasts in groups they could improve their knowledge of the expressions as well as the concepts pertaining to Corporate English.

As a first step, students were asked to log on to various ESL and Corporate English podcasts such as-

www.eltpodcast.com

<http://breakingnewsenglish.com>

<http://englishcaster.com>

www.ikey.podomatic.com

www.esl.about.com/od/englishlistening

Practical Application

To ensure purposeful listening, they were asked to do related activities such as writing a summary of what they had listened to, note down idiomatic expressions and also the language used to express the concepts of requesting, persuading, and negotiating, to list out a few.

To explain further, while the site, www.eltpodcast.com offers theme-based dialogues for ESL/EFL students, the site, <http://breakingnewsenglish.com> presents current events of Corporate English followed by activities, pair work and discussion. The students had to sum up the information provided after listening to the podcast. Of the two sites, <http://englishcaster.com> and www.esl.about.com/od/englishlistening, the former provides a lot of learning experiences pertaining to idiomatic expressions and conversational forms and the latter provides various podcasts for learning and teaching. One of the podcasts, ESL pod provides tags in Corporate English. The students were asked to note down those expressions for their future use. The next site, www.ikey.podomatic.com deals with Corporate English relating to transactions that need interpersonal skills, negotiation skills and so on. The students had to listen to them for learning communication skills.

As a second step, they had to use them in various situations relevant to corporate world. These activities proved to be realistic as most of the expressions are relevant to the learning of the prescribed topics in the curriculum such as Corporate Etiquettes, Adaptability, Interpersonal skills and so on.

Development of Uploading Skills

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Uploading one's own podcast is a worthy experience that students have to be exposed to and it is believed that it would facilitate language learning to a greater extent. Steve McCarty (2005) refers to the growing popularity of podcasting in his article as, 'Greater ease of publishing individual voices that brought a democratized social dimension to the web'. And nowadays podcasting is very easy, as there are sites such as www.podomatic.com and www.odeo.com that provide facility for registering and creating podcasts free of cost.

Final Stage

So, in the final stage of the study a few dialogues prepared by the students were uploaded to the podcast created in the free site, www.podomatic.com. How did we do this? The selected dialogues on 'Adaptability', 'Corporate Etiquette and 'Business Introductions' were recorded and saved as sound files. They were then uploaded to the podcast created.

Using Blogs

With regard to the Blog, most of us know that it is an on-line journal, a web tool used for publishing messages, and which, thus, ensures a healthy experience of sharing views, ideas with everyone. As a few sites, particularly www.blogger.com, offer free space for creating blogs, web publishing has become so popular and is done free of cost.

What else could motivate a teacher to use such an advanced web technology in a language classroom?

I wanted to create a blog for my engineering students for a different purpose. My objective was 'to encourage students to post their summary of current news'.

This would enable the students to update themselves with current news and also answer the objective type test on the same conducted at every semester. A class blog was created in the web site, www.blogger.com with the user name and password for the students to post messages. They worked in groups and gathered news from leading newspapers like *The Hindu*, *Indian Express*, *Business News* and *Economic Times*. They played quiz with the available information and in this way updated their knowledge of what was going on around the world. Then the group leaders posted the entire coverage of the weekly news as thematic points by logging onto the blog. It must be pointed out that the students were asked to focus more on business news than general features, as most of the questions in the exam dealt with the former.

Explicit Advantages

Considering the advantages of creating a virtual environment in the classroom. It must be pointed out that

1. Students were exposed to new tools of learning. They were not at all dependent on the course materials or the teacher only, for learning new expressions. It was evident that those who were motivated would certainly access the podcasts regularly and update themselves.
2. Most of them enjoyed the idea of uploading their own podcast, though their dialogues had to be corrected in a few places by the teacher to ensure a fairly satisfactory standard of presentation.
3. They gained confidence in using new expressions as the podcasts served as models for effective communication strategies.
4. Most of them showed improvement in oral communication.
5. They enjoyed listening to native speakers speaking.
6. With blogs they really had the experience of publishing something worthy.

A Worthy Experience, Indeed! And Some Constraints!!

Thus, it should be acknowledged that it was a worthy experience for both the students and me. However, like any study, there were a few constraints, which had to be tackled effectively for conducting this study.

1. Students were permitted to use the Internet facility only one hour per day and so not all students could spend much time listening to the podcasts.
2. Nearly 40% of students had their school education in regional language and so were not confident in writing messages for posting in the blog.
3. The Internet connectivity was quite low most of the times thus posing problems in uploading the sound file to the podcast created. It took a long time to upload every file.
4. Students could not download the podcasts in their mobiles in spite of having MP3 connectivity as accessing the Internet proved to be very expensive. Thus, they had to depend on the facility provided by the institution.
5. Not all had easy access to browsing centers due to their economic background.

Remedial Steps Which Could be Adopted

In order to alleviate the above mentioned challenges the following steps were taken.

1. Students were asked to browse the sites given in browsing centers, make a note of the content to do the related activities. This way I could have a control over their listening task.

2. They were encouraged to work in groups for gathering news items and post the messages.
3. The audio files had to be uploaded in a corporate office.
4. They were asked to post messages in the class blog in the institution itself during their browsing sessions.

To Conclude

To conclude, it is worth mentioning that the flexibility of the curriculum and the cooperation of most of the students made this action research possible. While podcasts promoted effective interaction among students, the blog paved way for web publishing and updating their knowledge of current affairs.

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When a School Becomes a Pool - What Can We Do to Make Language Learning Interesting to Yemeni Students

Abdulghani M. A. Al-Shuaibi, Ph.D.

Situation in Yemeni Schools – Focus of This Study

The title of the present essay is picked out carefully to denote the whole concept of this essay. I attempt to review the educational situation of our pupils in Yemen in three stages. The salient aim is to present some suggestions for the improvement of the educational process in Yemeni schools. As a Yemeni teacher in the field, my objectives are constructed based on my own experience of teaching as well as the experience of some of my colleagues. I will describe some points to be followed and applied for the betterment of the educational situation.

The Teacher

It is important to commence by going back to the source which is deemed to be the teacher. The teacher is considered almost the main axis for the students to learn effectively. He/she is the one who makes students interested in learning or in neglecting a certain subject taught to them. Whenever I had conversations with some of my students I realized that there is truth in the above observation. Continuous interaction with them proved this point again and again.

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Affective Filter

This, in fact, comes in line with the “Affective Filter Hypothesis,” one of the hypotheses of Krashen’s **Monitor Model**. So, I highly commend that teachers read further about this model to deliver effective instruction in their classes. According to this hypothesis, emotional variables (e.g., anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence) affect language acquisition. Less language is learned if the affective filter blocks some of the comprehensible input.

In the classroom, this hypothesis requires an inviting and encouraging environment. I guess this can be effectively mastered by a qualified teacher through whom students will be highly motivated to learn.

Avoid and Eliminate Negative Factors

In this regard, Krashen argues that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Therefore, debilitating anxiety, low motivation and low self-confidence can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up,' it obstructs the progress of language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary, but not enough on its own, for acquisition to take place.

Another factor to enhance the educational process might be related to curriculum. Students may not be up to the level of the designed curricula taught to them. So, Yemeni teachers need to determine whether or not the prescribed course is suitable and practical to their students' level. By reporting on the suitability and practicability to inspectors of schools, the pre-designed curricula can consequently be revisited by curricula makers. Doing this, teachers would be able to handle students' cognitive difficulties and, in turn, would be able to deliver effective classes to them.

A Pool of Learning

By now, we can say that a Yemeni school would become a pool of learning for students after looking into all the previous suggestions explained in this essay. Thus, my main objective of writing this essay has been demonstrated in our discussion. It is, now, the responsibility of Yemeni teachers, inspectors, curricula designers and policy makers to practically apply these suggestions to making a school a real pool of learning.

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Does Number Affect English Pronunciation?

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Complexity of Number Inflection in English

Number in English presents several difficulties to the second and foreign language learners of English.

For one thing, while most plural nouns are formed by adding –s to the singular noun, there are also other plural nouns formed by adding –es for nouns ending in Nouns ending in s, z, x, sh, and ch. Then there also nouns ending in -y preceded by a consonant is formed into a plural by changing -y to -ies. Yet another rule relates to nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel form their plurals by adding - s. Example: boy, boys; day, days. Most nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant is formed into a plural by adding -es. Example: hero; heroes; grotto, grottoes. Some words ending in –o add only –s. For example: piano/pianos, albino/albinos, memento/mementos. Yet another rule adds –ves. For example: nouns ending in -f or -fe are made plural by changing f or fe to - ves. For example, knife/knives, wife/wives. Then we also have irregular plurals: such as scissors (no scissor, please), oats (no, oat please). We also notice that some of the nouns are always used in singular. For example, sugar/sugar, gold/gold, wheat/wheat, etc. Note that when kinds of sugar are discussed, we are allowed to use “sugars.” This rule applies to other always-singular words when they mean varieties or kinds.

A List of Rules of Usage

Let us present these in some order:

1. Most plural nouns are formed by adding –s to the singular noun. Elephant/elephants.
2. There are plural nouns formed by adding –es for nouns ending in s, z, x, sh, and ch. Glass/glasses, box/boxes, match/matches, wish/wishes, buzz/buzzes.
3. Nouns ending in -y preceded by a consonant is formed into a plural by changing -y to -ies. Baby/babies, city/cities, story/stories.
4. Nouns ending in y preceded by a vowel form their plurals by adding -s. Example: boy/boys; day/days.
5. Most nouns ending in -o preceded by a consonant is formed into a plural by adding -es. Example: hero/heroes; mango/mangoes.
6. Some words ending in –o add only –s. For example: piano/pianos, albino/albinos.
7. Nouns ending in -f or -fe are made plural by changing -f or -fe to -ves. For example, knife/knives, wife/wives.
8. Irregular plurals: such as scissors (no *scissor*), oats (no *oat*).
9. Some of the nouns are always used in singular. For example, sugar/sugar, gold/gold, wheat/wheat, etc.

Thus, the students learning English as a second or foreign language need to master a variety of plural formation rules. Added to this variety is yet another rule that changes the pronunciation of words. Number affects pronunciation in a major way.

Does Number Inflection Affect Pronunciation?

1. The same word is pronounced in two different ways when used in the singular and in the plural.
2. It is significant to state here that the spelling of the word remains unchanged.

Of course, the English lexicon does not have many such words but the rule is certainly peculiar. We give below a set of words with their pronunciation to illustrate our point.

The word *corps* (a military unit trained to perform a particular duty), for example, is spelled the same in both singular and plural forms. It is only the pronunciation that distinguishes the singular from the plural. Similar is the case with words like *chassis* (a framework that supports a man-made object, for example, vehicle, etc.), *bourgeois* (a person or people belonging to the middle class or having the attitude of the middle class), *faux pas* (a violation of accepted social norms, for example, standard customs or etiquette rules etc.), *pince-nez* (a style of spectacles supported without earpieces, by pinching the bridge of the nose), *précis* (a concise summary or gist) and *rendezvous* (an agreement between two or more persons to meet at a certain time and place).

A List of Words that Bear Similar Pronunciation Both as Singular and Plural

We present a list of all these words in the table below for substantiating our view point. In all these cases, as would be evident the pronunciations appear to be similar. However, in case of those used as plurals, the plural marker ‘z’ sound at the end is clearly noticeable. And words being used singularly don’t have any plural markers. As is natural, pluralisation does not affect word-stress. In other words, the place of accent in both singular and plural remains the same.

Words	Singular	Plural
' <i>Bourgeois</i>	/ bɔ:ʒwɑ: /	/ bɔ:ʒwɑ:z /
' <i>Chassis</i>	/ ʃæsi /	/ ʃæsi:z /
<i>Corps</i>	/ kɔ: /	/ kɔ: z /
<i>Faux pas</i>	/ fəʊpɑ: /	/ fəʊpɑ:z /
' <i>Pince-nez</i>	/ pænsnei /	/ pænsneiz /
' <i>Précis</i>	/ preisi: /	/ preisi:z /
' <i>Rendez-vous</i>	/ rɒndivʊ: /	/ rɒndivʊ:z /

To wind up the discussion, pluralization plays havoc with non-native speakers’ process of learning spoken English.

Not many are aware of the strange rules governing English pronunciation which is why they tend to falter when it comes to pronouncing words in such cases. These spell similar but are pronounced differently. The only factor affecting the change is the number. Words in singular are pronounced in one way whereas their plural counterparts are pronounced in a different way, but the spelling remaining the same.

How to Master This Complex Variety?

Reading aloud the written text with these plural formation rules and reading the words that follow special rules for plural formation would help improve our pronunciation of these words as well as their recognition in speech. It is also important to spell the plural correctly in writing. For this, copy and dictation exercises may be offered in addition to other types of practice such as students quizzing one another in the class, etc.

What is most important to recognize is that these rules are followed in English and that we as second and foreign language users of English do not have any authority to change the rules! Errors are common in the initial stages but such errors should be corrected and the conventional spelling mastered well.

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**Shashi Tharoor: Transmuting Historical and Mythical
Material into Literary Ideas**

M. Venkatesan, M.A., M.Phil.

Adaptation of indigenous myth was regarded as an important mode of retrieval of the past. Using myths drawn from native tradition, postcolonial writers sought to integrate the cultural life of the past with their post-independence reality. They turned to their own cultural tradition both as the source of a new national identity and as a mythic resource with which they structure their works.

Shashi Tharoor adapted myth and real happenings in the past to write his first literary work. He appeared on the literary scene in 1989 with his first work of fiction, *The Great Indian Novel*. The book won two major literary awards and was highly acclaimed by critics in India and abroad.

Myth and Story-writing and Story-telling in Modern Times

Myth has often been defined as a complex of stories some factual and some fictitious and not so real. These represent some deeper experience and understanding of the societies in which they were and are current. The rediscovery of mythology as a twentieth century a literary device prompted creative writers to evince a new interest in the ancient myths.

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Many twentieth century writers consciously used myth as a literary device in their works. In T.S.Eliot's *The Waste Land*, James Joyce's *Ulysses*, and Eugene O' Neill's *Mourning Becomes Electra*, for example, old myths reappear with a new meaning and an immediacy of appeal. O' Neill's play is a fresh rendering of an ancient Greek myth; Joyce's novel reinterprets Homer's *Odyssey* in the context of twentieth century Dublin; and T.S.Eliot uses the Grail legend to depict the spiritual crisis of modern man in the wasteland of war –ravaged Europe.

Despite their differences of intentions, scopes and techniques, there is one common factor among these writers. Each of them employs an ancient myth in a contemporary context, thereby attempting to examine the predicament of modern man in a larger perspective of time.

Discovering Connections Between Myth and Reality

An abiding characteristic of the Indian mind has been to discover connections between myth and reality. We have been always been conscious of the recurrence of mythic patterns in contemporary events. Characters from the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata* are perennial contemporaries for Indians who acknowledge the continuing influence of the two national epics on their private and public lives.

The first epigraph to Tharoor's novel, a quotation from C.R.Deshpade's *Transmission of the Mahabharata Traditions*, refers to the lasting influence of Vyasa's epic on India's social and cultural life. "The Mahabharata has not only influenced the literature, art, sculpture and painting of India but it has also molded the very character of the Indian people. Characters from the Great Epic... are still household words, stand for domestic or public virtues or vices... In India a philosophical or even political controversy can hardly be found that has no reference to the thought of the Mahabharata." The second citation from P. Lal's transcreation of the epic, *The Mahabharata of Vyas*, suggests its contemporaneity and continuing relevance "The essential Mahabharata is whatever is relevant to us in the sacred by itself."

***The Great Indian Novel* – Exploitation of Myth and Creation of a Parody**

The Great Indian Novel is *Mahabharata* re-written in which Shashi Tharoor employs myth elaborately to function as the prototype. The ancient epic of Vyasa provides for Tharoor's novel not only the narrative aesthetics but also a pattern of life as well as a value system to refer to.

Tharoor discovers a meaningful correspondence between the new myth of India's freedom struggle and fight for democracy and the epic battle to uphold truth and dharma which took place in the country's fabulous antiquity.

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The account of recent Indian history in his novel reviews the memory of the mythic age and evokes the feeling that contemporary Indian reality can be comprehended in the critical light of the country's mythical past. It suggests that ancient Hastinapur is still found in present-day India.

Humour and Parody

Tharoor flavors the narrative with humour and parody. Pandu's "faithfully infidelious" (86) wives – Kunti and Madri – are presented as ultramodern women who speak English and smoke Turkish cigarettes. Tharoor makes much such deviation from the original myth to fit the historical narrative into the narrative frame of the epic.

Diversion from the Epic

The novel also accommodates a number of incidents from Vyasa's poem – some of them in a slightly modified form – which are not essential for the historical account. For example, the escape of the Pandava brothers from the Jotugriha, their adventures during the period of exile, Arjuna's banishment for a year, his love for the elopement with Subhadra, and his humiliation at the hands of a prostitute named Kameswari. These diverting episodes are introduced to give the novel the amplitude and digressive quality of the epic.

Again, in order to devetall some important episodes from the epic with the chronological frame of the historical narrative, the novelist shifts them into a dream world. These include the murder of Gandhi, the disrobing of D.Mohrasi during Indira Gandhi's rule, and the journey of Yudhishtir to heaven, Tharoor integrates some key episodes from the Mahabharata into the novel in order to project certain important political events of post – independence India allegorically.

The defeat of Hidimba Bhima is presented as a parallel to the liberation of Goa by Indian army from Portuguese occupation, the tearing off the body of Jarasandha into two halves by the second Pandava mirrors the dismemberment of Pakistan and the creation of Bangladesh. The humiliating defeat of Sahadeva in the wrestling match with Bakasura during the period of exile reflects India's military debacle during the India-China war in 1962.

Nihilistic Devotion?

The Great Indian Novel is, in fact. Tharoor's version of the present-day *Mahabharata*, and but it is devoid of the original's serious tone. He is neither interested in the epic

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itself nor reverential towards it. He only uses it as a narrative frame to accommodate a different story.

A Subjective Version

The Great Indian Novel replaces the unitary myth of India with a comprehensive, though highly subjective, version of the multi-dimensional reality of the country. It reads like a spoof on the official history of the nation, which is, in Tharoor's opinion, no better than hagiography. He seems to suggest that the version of an individual recollected from memory can also significantly contribute to the making of national history. The novel takes part in the historiographic context and presents the pre- and post-independence history of India from the point of view of an individual, who is both an insider and a participant.

Writers Experience Another View of History

The remark of Gunter Grass, quoted as the third epigraph in the novel, suggests the overall spirit of Tharoor's historical narrative: "writers experience another view of history, what's going on, another understanding of 'progresses, Literature must refresh memory.'" The statement, made in Bombay, stresses the need for fictional reconstruction of history.

According to Grass, writers present an alternative version of history, which is different from the account of professional historians. Their alternative rendering history through fiction not only challenges the official history of a country provided by hagiographers but also refreshes the people's memory of their past.

Reassessment of the Role of Leaders

Tharoor's alternative version of history critically reassesses the role of leader like Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, Subhas Chandra Bose, Mohammed Ali Jinnah, Indira Gandhi, Jayaprakash Narayan and Moraji Desai. Unlike Rushdie, who preferred Nehru, Tharoor gives greater importance to the role of Gandhi. The novel presents a compact but rounded portrait of the Father of the Nation whom contemporary Indians have failed to relate to their lives and hence consigned to the 'mists and myths of historical legend' (47). It recognizes his immense contribution to awaken the people to the evils of British rule.

Parallel Story

In *The Great Indian Novel*, Tharoor takes his readers down through the country's 'tryst with destiny,' with the leading figures from contemporary history cast in the mould of

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great epic characters. Gandhiji, for example, is cast in the role of Bhishma, the celibate Kaurava patriarch, who is obsessed with Truth, nonviolence, “untouchables” and toilet cleaning. He is referred to in the novel as Gagaji (Ganga Dutta) and described by the British Viceroy, Sir Richard, as ‘Public Enema Number one’ (113) Dhritarashtra is blind son of Vichityaviraya and a favorite disciple of Gangaji. The blind son has a weakness for Fabian socialism and is a fatal charmer of the ladies of Bloomsbury. He ‘found education in India a harrowing experience (41) and was sent to England where he acquired ‘ traces of the right accent along with streaks of the wrong ideas’ (110) Later he became the country’s first Prime Minister. Pandu, his pale brother, was expelled from one of the best colleges of the country for striking a British teacher who had called Indians dogs. Fed up of the non-violent way of his mentor, Gangaji, he stormed off to Germany and then to Japan to seek fascist help for the country’s liberation. “Away with Tolstoy, Ruskin, Buddha, Their ideas just make little men littler/No more ‘truth-force,’ only Buddha-/It’s time to learn from that chap Hitler.” (177)

Mohammad Ali Karna, the fruit of the error of Kunti’s adolescence and adopted son of a rich man’s driver, is the lawyer disciple of Gangaji. He has sun-like glow on his face, which distinguishes him from others, and he likes cocktail sausages. He becomes the founder of the Muslim state Karnistan, a country which is carved out of India and which Priya Duryodhani will help split to form Gelabi Desh, The teacher of the five Pandava brothers, who had an engineered birth (‘heir-conditioning,’ [89]), is a bearded socialist named Jayaprakash Drona.

Parody Galore with Historical Truth Mixed Up

The narrative begins with Gangaji’s emergence as a national leader and his election as the President of the Kaurava party which led the country to freedom, and which split after independence, one side going to Priya Duryodhani, Dhritrashtra’s only child with the famous arched brow who, as Prime Minister, imposed a ‘siege’ on the country. It ends with the death of Duryodhani, her murder by her own security guards.

The historical narrative follows the line of the *Mahabharata*, providing insight into both current politics and the epic. The old narrator, Ved Vyas, tells in his story - which is dictated to his amanuensis, the elephant-headed Ganapati...’ of past, present and future, of existence and passing, of efflorescence and decay, of death and rebirth, of what is of what was, of what should have been (13). But in this ‘definitive memoir of life and times’ which is, he claims, ‘nothing less than *The Great Indian Novel*’ (18), history is transformed into myth and the epic characters become figures of contemporary history. The dividing lines between fact and fiction, myth and history become blurred.

History to Suit Novelist's Fiction

Similarly historical events of India's struggle for freedom and her subsequent experiment with democracy are re-organized to suit the novelist's fiction, much in the same way as Rushdie did in *Midnight's children*. The result is defamiliarisation, demystification, and negation of history. There is no clue to reality; nothing can be taken for granted in the uncertain fictional world of Tharoor. Underlying ambiguity and eating history, the text subverts closure and suggests alternative. The narrator says, "for every tale I have told ... every perception I have conveyed, there are hundred equally valid alternatives. I have omitted and there are a hundred equally valid alternatives I have omitted and of which you are unaware... This is my story of the India. I know, with its biases, selections, omissions, distortion, all mine But you can not device your cosmogony from a single birth, Ganpathi. Every Indian must for even carry with him, in his head and heart, his own history of India" (337). It becomes what Roland Barthes would call a 'creative text', which resists finality and remains open to doubt and uncertainty.

More than One Truth, More than One Way

Shashi Tharoor seems to suggest more than one Truth, more than one way of looking at the history and myths which have shaped Indian people and their culture. At one point, the narrator says, almost echoing Saleem Sinai in *Midnight's Children*, that the novel is his version of reality: "It is my truth, Carpathian, Just as the crusade to drive out the British reflected Gangaji's truth and the fight to be rid of bother British and the Hindu was Karna's truth. Which philosopher would dare to establish a hierarchy among such verities?"(164). He asks, "Is it permissible to modify truth with a possessive pronoun?" (164). There is no clear answer in the text but the author seems to suggest that it is permissible.

Like other postmodern writer, Tharoor finds no certitude in any particular ideology or dogma, in any particular view of history and myth. Since history, 'indeed the world, the universe, all human life, and so too, every institution under which we live - is in a constant state of evolution' (245).

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**The Impact of Working Memory on Text Composition in
Hearing Impaired Adults**

K. Balaganesan, M.Sc. (Speech & Hearing)
Manisha, M.Sc. (Speech & Hearing)

Introduction

Working memory involves the temporary storage and manipulation of information that is assumed to be necessary for a wide range of complex cognitive activities. Baddeley and Hitch (1974) proposed that it could be divided into three subsystems: One, the phonological loop providing verbal and acoustic information; a second, the visuo-spatial sketchpad providing its visual equivalent, while both are dependent upon a third attentionally-limited control system, the central executive.

Text production is a complex activity composed of various processes, which tax the storage and processing capacities of working memory in different ways. According to Kellogg (1996), it is possible to predict which writing processes will be hindered when central executive, phonological loop or visuo-spatial capacities are heavily or overloaded. These predictions have been tested in hearing adults (Ransdell & Levy, 1996) and in children (Swanson & Berninger, 1996). The results confirm that the respective capacities of the three registers do indeed bring about specific variations in compositional fluency and/or text quality and length.

Kellogg's Model

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The Impact of Working Memory on Text Composition in
Hearing Impaired Adults

The relationship between text production and working memory is explained by Kellogg (1996). Kellogg formalizes the relationships between the various processes involved in text production and the registers of working memory (as defined by Baddeley, 1992).

Kellogg's model postulates the existence of six basic writing processes, paired together to form three different components : Formulation ('Planning' and 'Translating'), 'Execution' ('Programming' and 'Executing') and 'Monitoring' (Reading and Editing).

Three kinds of relationships between these processes and working memory registers are described.

First of all, the processing capacity of the central executive constrains the course of every controlled process (i.e. planning, translating, programming, reading and editing). In the case of beginning writers, the executing process is not sufficiently automatized. It, too, draws on the resources of the central executive.

Secondly, the storage capacity of the phonological loop constrains the linguistic processing involved in sentence production (translating at the lexical and grammatical levels) and in reading the text produced so far.

Thirdly, the storage capacity of the visuo-spatial sketchpad constrains conceptual processing (planning of text content), especially when the text content is concrete and contains figurative language.

Two Consequences

Writing processes and components are implemented iteratively and recursively throughout text production. If their storage and processing capacities are too limited and/or overloaded, the most costly controlled writing processes cease to operate in parallel (Flower and Hayes, 1980). The resulting sequentialization has at least two consequences (Ransdell, Levy, 1996 & Kellogg, 2002): (i) by increasing the length and frequency of the writing pauses, it brings about a general reduction in compositional fluency; (ii) by limiting interactivity between the controlled processes, it reduces opportunities for monitoring the processes as a whole, thereby diminishing the text's conceptual and linguistic quality.

Difficulties in Mastering Text Production Among Pre-lingual Deaf Children

There exists a great deal of evidence to show that pre-lingually deaf children and adults encounter serious difficulties in acquiring and mastering text production. It suggests that the deaf may have difficulty using a speech-based code for processing linguistic units (Leybaert, Alegria, Hage, & Charlier, 1998). These difficulties have been extensively described from an educational perspective, both by classifying the errors recorded in whole texts (Marschark, Mouradian, & Halas, 1994) and by conducting more controlled experiments, where participants carry out single word production tasks (Transler, Gombert, & Leybaert, 2001).

On the basis of studies involving hearing students, it can be argued that the compositional difficulties experienced by deaf people are partly attributable to a particular mode of processing information in working memory adopted in response to the lack of auditory input. Research into the influence of working memory on the way texts are processed by deaf people has mainly focused either on reading and comprehension (Garrisson, Long, & Dowaliby, 1997) or on the production of isolated words (Leybaert & Alegria, 1995). Studies of text production remain few and far between (Lichtenstein, 1998; Mozzer-Mather, 1990) and it would be well worth taking them a step further.

Objective of the Study

The aim of this study is to highlight and compare the relationships between the working memory capacities of hearing impaired and hearing writers and the efficiency of the conceptual and linguistic processes involved in text production.

Need of the Study

- To assess and compare the conceptual and linguistic qualities of a descriptive text
- To determine how variations in these performances can be associated with variations in phonological and executive capacities.

Method

Subject: Two groups of population were tested. 10 normal subjects with age range of 18 to 21 years and 10 prelingually profound hearing impaired with age range of 18- 21 yrs.

Test environment: All the tasks were carried out in a room with permissible ambient noise levels.

Material

Working memory tasks (production and phonological span tasks) were presented using a laptop computer operating software designed specifically for the experiment. The central executive capacities involved in verbal production were assessed by using adapted versions of the speaking span test designed by Daneman and Green (1986). The signed words were taken from The Signed English School book (Bornstein, H. and Saulnier K. L, 1987). The phonological span was assessed using an adapted version of Conrad's short-term memory task (1964, 1967).

Tasks

Participants were required to perform two written and two memory tasks. The written tasks comprised a grapho-motor automatization test and the production of a descriptive task. The memory tasks comprised of verbal production and the phonological span.

Written Tasks

Grapho-motor task: Participants were required to write the alphabet as many times as they could in the space of 1 min (Abbott & Berninger, 1993). This task was performed in two speed conditions ('normal speed' vs. 'as fast as you can').

Text production task: Participants were asked to write a text in the form of a word about their classroom showing all the furniture and personal possessions. Prior to the written task, in order to facilitate content generation as well as to obtain a reference for scoring the text content, participants were required to draw the layout of their classroom. When they had finished, their plans were collected by the experimenter so that the subjects could not refer to them during the written task. The assignment was read by all participants and then recalled orally (or by signs) by the experimenter before the task began. For both the drawing and text production tasks, participants were required to note the exact times when they started and finished. Each task was given 5 minutes time for completion.

Working Memory Tasks

Two kinds of working memory tasks (production, phonological tasks) were presented using a laptop computer operating software designed specifically for the experiment. Participants were given a notebook in which they were asked to write sentences or series of letters, which are necessary for the test.

Production Span

The central executive capacities involved in verbal production were assessed by using adapted versions of the speaking span test designed by Daneman and Green (1986) (This consisted of presenting a series of written, oral or signed words to participants, who then had to remember as many words as they could and build a sentence around each one (written, oral or signed sentences). The number of words per series was gradually increased (from 2 to 6 words). The oral and written words were prepared in Telugu language.

The signed words, extracted from an ISL text books (used in lessons by deaf students), were all familiar and composed of a single gesture. The oral/written words were dictated/displayed by the computer. For the signed words, a sign language expert was made to sign the words. At the end of each set, participants had to produce a sentence containing all the words in that set. For the written version of the test, the deaf and hearing participants wrote sentences down in the notebook. For the oral/ISL version, the deaf participants signed sentences based on the signed words (the message was interpreted by a sign language expert), while the hearing participants produced spoken sentences containing the words they had heard.

Phonological Span

This span was assessed using an adapted version of Conrad's short-term memory task (Leybaert et al., 1998; Lichtenstein, 1998). A series of 6 letters from Telugu language were

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presented, one letter at a time, in the centre of the screen and participants were asked to write down the letters in their strict order of presentation, leaving blank spaces if they forgot any of them. The 10 6-letter series were composed, so that they would not evoke any word or acronym. The score corresponded to the proportion of correctly recalled letters (an error was a wrong, omitted or misplaced letter in a series).

Procedure

The whole experiment was divided into two individual sessions in which, in the first session two written tasks were carried out and in the second session two working memory tasks were carried out in a separate room for the two different groups. Each session lasted for around 45 min.

Results

Comparisons were made, using paired sample t-tests to find the relationship between these writing performances and working memory capacities. The analyses were carried out in two steps.

Analysis 1: Compositional Performances

Graphomotor Task

The number of alphabetical letters produced in the space of one minute by hearing impaired students in normal speed condition (M = 57.1; S.D. = 7.80) & very fast condition (M=70.2; S.D =4.46) did not differ from that produced by hearing students in normal speed condition (M = 62.3; S.D. =10.14) & very fast condition (M=84.7; S.D = 7.8) t = 2.118 (p>0.05).

Groups	Grapho motor task			
	Mean	S D	t value	p value
Normal adults	62.3	10.14	2.118	0.28
H.I impaired adults	57.1	7.80		

Table-1 Mean S D, t value and p value for the grapho motor task of the two groups

Text Composition

Conceptual characteristics

Text content richness was assessed by counting (i) the number of objects described minus the number of objects drawn, such as chairs, desks, black board (the walls, doors and windows

were not regarded as objects) Results showed no significant difference between the two group regarding total number of objects drawn, (Hearing impaired M = 6.20; S.D. = 2.04) and (Hearing students M = 5.1; S.D. =2.23); t (-1.029) (p= 0.330.);

While calculating the total number of words produced in the text compositional task, a significant difference between the two groups, (Hearing group (M = 19.7 words; S.D. = 4.4) and the Hearing impaired group (M = 11.40 words; S.D 6.62) (p=0.02) were observed.

Linguistics Characteristics

The hearing impaired students produced significantly more linguistic (spelling) errors per word (M = .129; S.D. = .075) than their hearing counterparts (M = .075; S.D. = .038; t=2.54; p = .02). Results are shown in the table given below

Groups	Conceptual characteristics				Linguistic characteristics			
	Mean	S D	t value	p value	Mean	S D	t value	p value
Normal adults	5.1	2.23	- 1.029	0.33	.075	.038	2.54	.02
H.I impaired adults	6.20	2.04			.129	.075		

Table -2 Mean S D, t value and p value for the text composition task of the two groups

Analysis II: Working memory capacities and their relationship with compositional performances

Working Memory Capacities

Verbal Production Span

This span was assessed according to the percentage of presented words that were correctly inserted into sentences. Because of the linguistic difficulties encountered by the deaf students, a sentence was regarded as correct if its meaning was clear and the target word was used in its proper context. We did not take syntactic and spelling errors into account for either the deaf or the hearing students. The results showed significant difference between the hearing impaired students (M =23.1; S.D. = 7.1) and the hearing students (M = 40; S.D. = 0.0) for the production span task. (t = 7.517) (p = 0.00). Results are shown in the table given below

Groups	Verbal production span			
	Mean	S D	t value	p value

Normal adults	40	0.0	7.517	0.00
H.I impaired adults	23.1	7.1		

Table-3: Mean, S D, t value and p values for the verbal production task of the two groups

Phonological Span

The percentage of items recalled in their correct position was subjected to paired sample t test for the comparison. The results showed significant difference between the hearing students (M = 57.2; S.D = 1.9) and the hearing impaired students (M = 40.8; S.D = 9.6) for the phonological span task. (t = 5.78) (p = 0.00). Results are shown in the table given below.

Groups	Phonological span			
	Mean	S D	t value	p value
Normal adults	57.2	1.9	5.78	0.00
H.I impaired adults	40.8	9.6		

Table- 4: Mean, S D, t value and p values for the Phonological span task of the two groups

Discussion

The primary results of this experiment revealed that the hearing impaired students are relatively poorer to the hearing adults in most of the tasks conducted.

a) Text Production

An analysis of text production performances provided three main findings. Hearing impaired students (i) displayed lower compositional fluency and (ii) made more spelling errors but (iii) produced very similar text content, regarding the number of objects described and attributes used. The latter result is consistent with the findings of Marschark et al. (1994), who did not find any difference between hearing impaired and hearing children in terms of text content organization.

b) Working Memory

An analysis of working memory performances revealed that hearing impaired students had lower phonological (memorizing letter series) and executive (written production span) capacities than hearing students. An analysis of the various correlations points a coherent picture of how these working memory capacities in hearing impaired and hearing students can be linked to their text production, especially in-terms of fluency and linguistic quality.

In the hearing students, however, there was no significant correlation between writing span and fluency ($r=.17$). This leads us to assume that the implementation of compositional processes in hearing students did not rely on the capacity of the central executive. This explanation is based on several arguments.

Planning was easier, because familiar knowledge facilitates content generation and the vocabulary associated with the classroom is simple, concrete, familiar and easily accessible. However, we then need to find out why the hearing impaired students failed to benefit from the same familiarization effects, even though they were enrolled in the same schools, confronted with a writing task and matched with hearing students according their compositional skills.

The fact that the writing span of hearing impaired students is shorter than their signed span leads us to think that it is the processes specific to writing that exhaust all their available resources (Mozzer-Mather, 1990).).

Compositional fluency reflects the overall operation of controlled writing processes (planning, formulation and revision - plus grapho-motor execution when it is not sufficiently automatized). The hearing impaired students' reduced fluency probably reflects the sequentialization of writing processes, resulting in more frequent and/or longer writing pauses (Ransdell, et.al, 2002).

This distribution of processes over time occurs when the processing and storage capacities of working memory are overwhelmed and can no longer allow the processes to operate simultaneously (Kellogg, 1996). In the hearing impaired students, this interpretation is supported by the strong correlation ($r=.77$) between compositional fluency and writing span; confirming the existence of a relationship between the time course of the processes and the amount of resources in the central executive available to operate these processes.

Two specific writing processes are involved in the writing span task grapho-motor execution and spelling and grammatical processes. As there was no difference between hearing impaired and hearing students on the alphabetic test, it is reasonable to assume that the reduced fluency was due to high-cost linguistic operations within the formulation process. In all likelihood, hearing impaired students carry out the formulation process more slowly due to difficulties in calculating grapheme-phoneme correspondences. This interpretation is supported by the higher number of spelling errors made by hearing impaired students, proving the problematic nature of linguistic processing.

Spelling errors were far more frequent in texts written by deaf students than in ones written by their hearing counter parts. This is one more replication of a result frequently observed in studies of deafness (Marscharkm 1994; Padden, 1993). In this experiment, the difference between deaf and hearing students revolved around spelling (lexical) mistakes.

Both groups made the same number of grammatical errors, but the hearing impaired students made approximately three times as many lexical errors than the hearing students. Mastering grammatical morphology clearly involves a type of linguistic knowledge that is not yet available at middle-school level, for either deaf or hearing students.

When examining the phonological consequence of spelling and grammatical errors, the main difference between the two groups was the higher frequency of phonologically inaccurate errors made by hearing impaired students. This result is consistent with the study conducted by Leybaert and Alegria (1995), who found that when deaf students produce isolated words, they make 5 to 6 times more phonologically inaccurate errors than their hearing counter parts.

The massive presence of phonologically inaccurate errors highlights the difficulty encountered by deaf writers in using grapheme-phoneme correspondences to spell words. Due to less efficient phonological coding, the monitoring of verbal output fails to curb errors, even in the case of regular words (Hanson et al. 1983; Padden, 1993).

Hearing impaired students make more phonologically inaccurate errors because they cannot use either phonological representations (at the lexical level) or morphosyntactic and morphogrammatical combinations and flexion rules (at the grammatical level) to spell words.

This interpretation is supported by the performances on the serial recall task. [Dodd, Hobson, Brasher, & Campbell (1983) and Leybaert et al. (1998)]

Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to compare the compositional performances of deaf and hearing students and to investigate the relationships between these performances and the different capacities of working memory. Three main results can be reported. (1) For *Composition* no difference arose between the two groups in terms of planning and grapho-motor execution. However, when it comes to formulation, hearing impaired students made more phonologically inaccurate errors than their hearing counterparts.

These difficulties in processing spelling units would appear to diminish compositional fluency. (2) As regards *working memory capacities*, differences were observed in writing and phonological spans (indicating reduced capacities for hearing impaired students on both) (3) Concerning the relationships between *working memory capacities and compositional performances*, main finding reported was: (a) central executive capacity (assessed by the text production task) is associated with compositional fluency in hearing impaired students

This study is an attempt to check the impact on the working memory on the writing skills of hearing and hearing impaired adolescents. In future a large study on the same aspect will provide more light on the impact of working memory in the same population.

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**A Study of the ELT Teachers' Perception of Teaching Language
through Literature at the Higher Secondary School and Degree
levels in Pakistani Milieu**

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Abstract

In Pakistan, ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels do not provide ample opportunities for the fulfillment of governmental objectives (Hafeez, 2004). Over the past two decades and because of the influence of linguistics as a discipline there has generally been felt the need for revising the existing ELT courses at both the levels.

The present study was designed with the intent to find out the soundness of such a generally observed and overtly done criticism of ELT courses at the target levels.

The methodology, we used, was centered on the teachers' perception of ELT courses at both the target levels. The data collected were primarily quantitative in the form of a short survey. The structure of the survey was based on a short questionnaire of 9 items asking for teachers' perception on these courses.

The questionnaire was administered to a randomly selected sample of 226 English teachers who were actively involved in the teaching of English both at the higher secondary school and degree levels across the country.

The results, obtained through the SPSS Statistics Version 17 analysis showed that the teachers were least satisfied with the courses they were teaching. According to their perception, the content of ELT courses predominantly carries literature components, lacks opportunities for teaching the four language skills and, therefore, needs to be revised.

The study suggested that future ELT curriculum designers should think about the inclusion of local culture in the curriculum, make the courses need-based, and bring in internal harmony in these respective courses in terms of focusing on teaching language through literature.

Introduction

Over the past two decades, there has generally been a common desire among ELT experts to look for a meaningful balance to help achieve most of the set objectives in the curriculum of English for academic purposes in Pakistan. Usually, this urge refers to the balance between language and literature in ELT courses. For instance, recently Siddiqui (2007: 166) insists on, “A more balanced approach is required in our curriculum, i.e. a productive blend of language and literature”.

The reason behind this urge is simple.

At present, unfortunately in our schools and colleges, we come across mainly literature based text-books in ELT courses at different levels. “The syllabi at various levels lay least emphasis on listening and speaking skills. Most of the textbooks are literature-based. As in many other developing countries, the emphasis is on ‘classics’ or a ‘high caliber’ literature” (ibid, 2007: 151). As most of the writers and editors of the textbooks have the background of literature only, they consider English to be English literature only. Siddiqui criticizes them as he maintains, “Their passion for literature is manifest in the course-books designed by them which expose the students to ‘great literature’ without helping them to improve their basic language skills” (ibid, 2007: 151).

This extra emphasis on literature has invited a lot of criticism from a group of active teachers in general and ELT experts in particular. They simply consider literature to be a luxury which most of our learners in Pakistan cannot afford as they are not usually equipped with the basic language skills which are essential for using language as a tool of communication.

Governmental Objectives for ELT

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At the outset, it seems apt to see what objectives generally government sets for ELT courses and to see whether the prescribed ELT courses offer room for the materialization of these objectives. Afterwards, the nature and value of the governmental provision in terms of the content of ELT courses at higher secondary and degree levels will be analyzed in the light of teachers' viewpoints.

Broadly looking at some of the governmental objectives reveals that learners are expected to use language contextually after completion of their ELT courses. Hafeez (2004) sums up some of the main governmental objectives of ELT courses at different levels in Pakistan in the following way:

- The learners are expected to learn the language for using it in communication.
- The learners are expected to develop their listening skills so that they can understand the language in formal and informal context.
- The learners need to develop their speaking skills so that they can communicate in formal and informal context.
- The learners need to develop their reading skills so that they can comprehend different types of texts.
- The learners are expected to develop their writing skills so that they can write different things such as writing reports, essays, letters etc.

Language Skills in the Pakistani ELT Program

The traditional four language skills involved in the expression of purpose and meaning, and in the creation and interpretation of messages, provide the basis for the general ELT courses' design (White, 2000). This straightforward theory generally helps the syllabus designers to involve the development of these language skills in learners as their core objectives. Now the question arises whether or not this theoretical framework of the general ELT courses in Pakistan is made a practical reality.

As summarized by Hafeez above, according to the governmental objectives of the teaching of English language at both the higher secondary school and degree levels in Pakistan, the learners are expected to improve all their language skills namely speaking, reading, writing and listening.

Unfortunately, a cursory look at ELT curriculum suggests that there is hardly any time offered to provide any space in the syllabus, methodology and examination etc. to execute all these objectives stated above. Mainly ELT curriculum in Pakistan is designed by incorporating foreign classical literature into it without paying heed to the provision of room for the fulfillment of the target objectives.

The Aim of This Paper

Now, in order to investigate the validity of this over-generalized observation, it seems imperative to take an in-depth look at ELT courses. For this, the present study was undertaken with a belief that the teachers' perception would help analyze the value and nature of the content of ELT courses at the higher secondary and degree levels. Besides, the study was undertaken with the assumption that the above governmental objectives of ELT generally would keep failing until and unless teachers and students are provided with practical opportunities in the form of course content and suitable strategies of teaching/learning.

Thus, in this paper, we simply aim at analyzing the value and nature of the content of ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels. Unlike, some previous studies on the evaluation of ELT curriculum in Pakistan undertaken from the viewpoint of the researchers (Mansoor, 1993, 2005 and Siddiqui, 2007), we intend to analyze the value and nature of the content of the current ELT courses in the light of those teachers' perception who are actively involved in the process of teaching these courses. We feel it is important to ask the teachers themselves because they, being important stakeholders, are closest to the process and most involved in the present context. Again, it is evident that teachers who are teaching these courses may come forward with their firsthand feelings, observations and suggestions on the courses which previously have not been duly acknowledged and analyzed.

Teachers' input would enhance the validity of the simple methodology used, irrespective of the findings, for the study on ELT courses in two ways. One, the perceptions of the active teachers on the value and nature of the content would be based on their day to day experiences of teaching the content of ELT courses. Secondly, like any other sector, education in Pakistan too is based on a highly bureaucratic and hierarchical set up. Due to this, the teachers generally do not have their say on curriculum issues. Providing an opportunity to them to express their perception on ELT courses and analyzing their perceptions will help improve ELT methodology in Pakistan.

A Brief Critical Review of the state of ELT Curriculum in Pakistan

English enjoys premier status besides 69 living indigenous languages in Pakistan (Zuberi, 2005 as cited in Rasool, 2007). It continues to be the language of power and government in this country ever since independence in 1947 (Rahman, 1998, 2002). As an emblem of its popularity, English Language is a compulsory subject from class I in all formal educational institutions in Pakistan (Jalal, 2004). However, the spread of English, with an associated increase in the teaching-learning of the language to a growing number of learners in Pakistan, has led to a number of issues and challenges for adequate provisions for teaching-learning the language across all formal levels of education (Shamim, 1998;

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Jalal, 2004; Cameron, 2003). These issues and challenges are compounded at higher secondary school and degree level when English is taught as a compulsory subject without much thought given to the needs of the learners for using English at these levels. These academic issues can be briefly discussed under the following three subheadings which more or less are interrelated:

The Issue of Classical Literature in Pakistan

ELT courses at the higher secondary and degree levels in Pakistan have always been permeated with classical literature. Siddiqui (2007) cites an example from a higher secondary school level English book carrying S. T. Coleridge's poem 'Youth and Age' wherein words and phrases used like *Ere, woeful, 'Tis, thou, thou art, thy, Vesper-, hath, wert, aye, Masker, hast,* have got nothing to do with the practical needs of the learners. The learners rather find themselves completely lost when they come across such archaic words and phrases. At times, this leads to expected low motivation level for teachers and learners as well as other contextual factors, such as large classes, that impede effective teaching and learning of the language (Mansoor, 2005).

This criticism implies that instead of classical literature, use of more modern literature may be more appropriate and may well cater to the learners' linguistic needs. To be more precise, for instance, instead of classical literature, perhaps, literature written by post-colonial writers may be more relevant, for it will be relatively more contextual and contemporary on one hand whereas on the other as it is generally written in simple English. It may well be more easy to comprehend and manipulate for learning.

The Issue of Foreign Culture

The second issue is more or less related to the first issue. It is the prevalence of non-indigenous literature in ELT courses in Pakistan. Unfortunately, a coherent approach associated with effective language teaching (i.e. language curriculum in relation to values, context, content, etc.) has hardly ever been followed up while designing courses for ELT in Pakistan. For instance, a critical look at the courses available for ELT at both the higher secondary school and degree levels reveals that most of them are either imported or books of English writers from developed countries which are meant to be used for learners whose native language is English (Mansoor, 1993).

Besides, these courses apparently lack cohesion in terms of given content and set objectives to serve as an influential force to help students learn meaningfully at both the respective levels. Thus, the lack of local materials for academic purposes coupled with deficient harmony in these courses vis-à-vis meaningful content has led to the teaching and learning of English being regarded with suspicion by the local ELT experts like Mansoor (1993, 2005), Siddiqui (2007), and Shamim (1998).

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It is also felt by some pressure groups that the current ELT provision leads, on one hand, to undue influence of western culture on the learners and an alienation of their own culture (ibid.). As a result, despite the highly positive attitudes and high motivational intensity to learn-teach English exhibited now and then by the learners and teachers in Pakistan, the position and status of English in our educational set-up remains pointless (Siddiqui, 2007).

The Issue of Need for Reorganization of ELT

The third issue is related to the realization of the need for reorganization of ELT in Pakistan. To reemphasize the less-than-perfect state of ELT in Pakistan, the findings of a study conducted by Tribble and Shamim (2005) indicate the urgent need for the reorganization of English Language teaching at higher levels as well. They maintain that special focus is required on teacher development and call for the provision of adequate materials and resources for implementing curricula that aim to address the needs of students for studying through the medium of English in higher education. The expectations of the employers in terms of candidates' English language skills, both spoken and written, in a highly competitive job market, further underline the need for offering relevant and high quality English language programmes in higher education institutions in Pakistan.

Similarly the findings of Mansoor's (2005) study conducted at Aga Khan University also suggest that students and teachers are not satisfied with the availability and quality of their present English department in degree awarding institutions. In addition, her study highlights the need to develop text-books and materials in keeping with local needs and culture.

Methodology

In this paper, we have investigated the correctness of the above stated observations on the effectiveness of ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels. The methodology we used was centered on the teachers' perception of ELT courses at both the target levels. The data collected were primarily quantitative in the form of a short survey. The aim was to see through the teachers' first hand views on ELT courses they teach at both levels. Moreover the data hopefully were to clarify whether or not there exists some sort of usefulness in the target level ELT courses in Pakistan. The sole use of the survey method can be justified by our focusing on teachers' perception only regarding the courses.

The structure of the survey was based on a short questionnaire of 9 items asking for teachers' perception on the courses they teach. The questionnaire was administered to a randomly selected sample of 113 English teachers who were actively involved in the teaching of English both at higher secondary school and degree level across the country.

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The results, obtained through the analysis done on SPSS Version 17, were tabulated in frequencies and percentages. In addition we have applied normal Z-test to see whether or not the consulted teachers were satisfied with ELT courses they teach at target levels.

Findings and Discussion

This section examines and discusses the combined results based on the four basic aims:

- How far do the teachers think the current ELT courses they teach are literature or language based?
- To what extent do the teachers think that the content of the current ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree level courses carry room for teaching four language skills?
- Are the teachers satisfied with the current ELT courses they teach?
- What do the teachers suggest to improve the teaching and learning of English language in terms of the content of the ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels in Pakistan?

In the following section, each of these questions will be addressed.

How do the teachers think that the current ELT courses they teach are literature or language based?

The analysis of the teachers' perception on the nature of ELT courses provides evidence that the ELT courses in Pakistan are perceived to carry predominantly literature components despite the fact that majority of the learners experienced serious difficulties in understanding an alien literature. 55.4% of the teachers consulted in this study felt that the focus in their course was more on literature than on language.

Table 1: Are the ELT courses literature or language based?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Literature Based	126	55.4
Language Based	58	25.8
Literature and Language Based	32	14.4
Other	10	04.4
Total Respondents	226	100

This simple analysis is quite important to highlight the problem with ELT courses at the target levels. Mostly, the learners at both levels are required to study all genres of literature including short stories, poems, essays, plays and novels. This study substantiates Siddiqui

(2007)'s contention about the content of ELT courses. He asserts, "...this extra emphasis on literature has invited a lot of criticism from a group of practicing teachers and linguists" (ibid: 163).

The extra emphasis on literature in ELT courses has been there for a long time in Pakistan. Since independence in 1947, only classical literature has been permeating ELT courses in Pakistan. But the advent and popularity of linguistics as a discipline across ELT domain of late has necessitated the debate for inclusion of language based ELT courses. Still, as reflected in the teachers' perception in this study, the ELT courses predominantly carry literature at the target levels. It seems thus a matter of serious concern for the future ELT curriculum developers to plan according to the needs of the time.

To what extent do the teachers think that the content of the current ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels courses carry room for teaching four language skills?

The analysis of the survey questionnaire provides evidence that the teachers feel that there is insufficient room in the curriculum for the teaching of listening skills. In this survey, only 21.9% (16.9 + 05.0) of those teachers who replied to the questionnaire felt that there was sufficient provision (See Table 2). The picture is similar for speaking skills. Only 06.8% of the respondents felt that there was sufficient room in the curriculum for the teaching of speaking skills (See Table 3). We have a similar story for reading and writing skills as well. 26.9 % (18.8 + 8.1) of the respondents feels that there is sufficient room for teaching reading skills (See Table 4), and only 38.7% (29.7+9.0) feels that there is sufficient room for teaching writing skills (See Table 5).

Table 2: Provision for teaching Listening Skills in the Content of ELT courses

Response	Frequency	Percent
25%	68	31.3
50%	54	24.0
75%	38	16.9
100%	12	05.0
Less than 25%	14	06.0
No Response	40	16.8
Total Respondents	226	100

Table 3: Provision for teaching Speaking Skills in the Content of ELT courses

Response	Frequency	Percent
25%	114	49.6
50%	32	14.4
75%	16	06.8
Less than 25%	22	09.8
No Response	42	19.4
Total Respondents	226	100

Table 4: Provision for teaching Reading Skills in the Content of ELT courses

Response	Frequency	Percent
25%	46	21.5
50%	78	36.5
75%	40	18.8
100%	20	08.1
Less than 25%	12	04.9
No Response	24	10.2
Total Respondents	226	100

Table 5: Provision for teaching writing Skills in the Content of ELT courses

Response	Frequency	Percent
25%	52	23.1
50%	48	21.4
75%	68	29.7
100%	20	09.0
Less than 25%	06	02.3
No Response	32	14.5
Total Respondents	226	100

The main reason for the teachers' perception that ELT courses at the target levels do not provide sufficient room for the teaching of the four language skills is probably that there is too much of a focus on literature in the curriculum.

A further reason for these findings could be the large classes that teachers have to cope with as mentioned by Mansoor (c.f) as well. Because the classes are large in terms of student strength, a great deal of teachers' time is spent in organizing the learners, taking the attendance, etc. The third obvious reason for the present findings could be the defective educational system in Pakistan, especially the lack of adequate number of trained teachers. Indirectly we also mean that the teachers are not well trained in Pakistan. Due to this reason as well, teachers are unable to effectively mould their teaching according to the prescribed curriculum objectives. Yet another weighty reason that may hamper the teachers from even thinking to adapt ELT courses at the target levels for teaching all the four basic language skills is, of course, their focus on making the learners get through the examinations that the latter are to take. Usually examinations in the English language at both levels predominantly demand the learners to display effective writing skills only.

Are the teachers satisfied with the current ELT courses they teach?

The close-ended item of the survey questionnaire asked for the teachers' satisfaction or otherwise with the current ELT courses they are teaching. Their responses gave a clear cut view that nearly 83% of the respondents felt that they were not satisfied with the current ELT courses they teach.

Table 6: Are the teachers satisfied with the current ELT courses in Pakistan?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Satisfied	24	09.5
Dissatisfied	182	82.7
Don't know	20	07.8
Total	226	100

Table 6 also suggests that barely 09.5% of the teachers covered in this survey felt satisfied with the courses they teach. It is an alarming reality. It is, therefore, evident that the majority may ask for bringing in some improvements to the existing content of the courses.

We also tried to verify the teachers' dissatisfaction vis-à-vis these courses by analyzing their responses inferentially as well. For this we applied Z test to see whether their responses approve of their feeling or not. If we hypothesize that

H0: $\mu = 0$ i.e. the teachers who were consulted in this survey are satisfied with current ELT courses they teach

H1: $\mu \neq 0$ i.e. the teachers who were consulted in this survey are not satisfied with current ELT courses they teach.

We took 5 % level of significance to test the above hypothesis

One-Sample Statistics Z-test

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Are you satisfied with the current ELT courses you teach?	226	1.87	0.421	0.038

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

$$\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$Z = \frac{1.87 - 0}{0.038}$$

$$Z = \frac{(226^2)^{1/2}}{46.66}$$

The tabulated value of Z is 1.96.

Conclusion of the Z test: As the calculated value of Z is greater than the tabulated value from Z-table, we reject the above null hypothesis (H0) and accept the alternate hypothesis (H1) viz. the teachers who were consulted in the survey are not satisfied with the current ELT courses they teach.

The hypothesis is statistically significant.

What do the teachers suggest to improve the teaching and learning of English language in terms of the content of the ELT courses at the higher secondary school and degree levels in Pakistan?

The open-ended item of the survey questionnaire sought suggestions from the teachers included in the survey to improve teaching and learning of English language in terms of the content of ELT courses at higher secondary school and degree levels in Pakistan. The suggestions made by the teachers as to how things can be improved are shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Suggestions to improve the teaching and learning of English with special reference to Curriculum

The analysis of these suggestions reveals that the teachers are relatively dissatisfied with the courses they are teaching, as these do not cater to the needs of the learners in practical life.

Response	Frequency	Percent
Equal importance to language and literature	52	21.2
The courses should focus on the learners' needs i.e. functional English	68	31.2
Listening and Speaking are important	26	11.4
Practical Use of Grammar	68	31.2
Curriculum should quench moral thirst of the learners	12	05.0
Total	226	100

Their perception that the present courses are mainly literature based may indicate a need for these to be integrated with the context based language oriented content to help learners make conversant and competent in practical life.

A similar sort of survey conducted in UK (2004) by CILT, the Association for Language Learning and the Independent Schools Modern Languages Association consider languages an essential element in the curriculum up to at least 16 (Retrieved on 14-03-10 from www.cilt.org.uk/key/trends2004.htm). In the context of the present survey, Hafeez (2004), for instance, suggests that the content of ELT courses should stress the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempt to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language learning.

In other words, the learners at the target levels do not learn English language subconsciously because the academic and social milieu does not support absorption of the target language naturally. Hafeez, therefore, stressed that, in order to fulfill their needs, the learners be equipped with some formal opportunities to learn the target language in an instructional setting through a well planned and meaningfully organized curriculum. The teachers stressed the introduction of functional aspects of language teaching instead of focusing on literary and abstract usage of language in the courses. However, the teachers who formed part of this survey did not reject the importance of literature as relevant content in ELT courses outright, as nearly a quarter of them suggested the need for giving equal importance to both language and literature at the target levels ELT courses. Here, we think they hinted at the need to using literature for language teaching as it has been postulated by many a researcher like (Kelly and Krishnan 1995, Gilroy and Parkinson 1997, Belcher and Hirvela

2000, White 2000, Hanauer 2001, and Kim 2004). Their research recognizes the importance of integrating literature into language teaching.

Other Missing Strategies

Besides, there are certain other grounds as well that add to the precarious state of the teaching and learning of the subject of English in Pakistan. One of these is the absence of true reflection of the needs of the learners in ELT courses at both the levels. Their needs call for the introduction of practical or functional aspects of English whereas they are needlessly fed with complex grammatical and alien literary components, e.g. the use of phrasal verbs, translation into English (grammatical) and 'The Little Willow' a story by Virginia Woolf (literary).

Secondly, as per the perception of the majority of the teachers, the dissatisfactory provision of the current ELT courses indirectly reveals the fact that the vast majority of the learners at these levels cannot feel at home while going and getting through their respective literature based ELT courses. These learners generally face difficulties while taking on non-contextual and imported ELT courses mainly because of the fact that they cannot feel subconsciously being attached to them. Instead they toil consciously with little success. For instance, the learners at the higher secondary school level feel alienated when they take on the short stories like 'The Doll's House', 'The Red Shoes,' etc. and similarly at the degree level, the learners have difficulty to deal with the short stories like 'A Conversation With My Father' and 'A Shadow in the Rose Garden'.

Finally, and most importantly, some of the governmental objectives of the teaching of English Language generally will definitely fail until and unless the set objectives meet practical opportunities for their materialization. The analysis of the perception of the teachers included in this short survey reveals that unfortunately, there is hardly any adequate time offered to provide any space in the syllabus, methodology and examination etc. to execute governmental objectives. Siddiqui (2007) reinforces the teachers' perception when he categorically states that the syllabi at various levels in Pakistani ELT education, lay least emphasis on listening and speaking skills. Contrarily, most of the textbooks of English are literature based. The apparent result is that the writers/editors of these literature based books expose the learners only to great literature without helping them to improve their basic language skills.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The analysis of the comments and perception of the teachers on the value and nature of content of ELT courses they teach reveals that the teachers consider the content of ELT courses does not cater to the needs of the learners in practical life. They suggest introducing new ELT courses focusing on the practical needs of the learners. These new ELT courses

should promote the academic and employment language needs for the learners who may pursue their higher studies. These should offer academic and practical skills that learners can use in pursuing their studies as well as building their careers after graduating from colleges. Moreover, the content and the process of learning need to be structured and integrated in such a way as to help realize the standards for key competencies through spiral progression with a major focus on development of language skills rather than on content.

To conclude, the inclusion of local culture in the curriculum, making the courses need-based, and bringing in internal harmony in these courses in terms of focusing on teaching language through literature should be the key targets of future ELT curriculum designers.

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Some Aspects of Teaching-Learning English as a Second Language

R. Krishnaveni, M.A., M.Sc., M.Phil., Ph.D. Candidate

**Learning without thought is labour lost;
Thought without learning is perilous. - Confucius**

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1. Preface

Learning and teaching languages effectively is a major concern to many teachers throughout the world. Several practices are in use and there are continuous efforts underway to improve the effectiveness of language learning and teaching. There are many languages used across the globe. In India too, there are hundreds of languages used. According to the Constitution of India, every language is assured of some place in the school curriculum. So, it is always good for the teachers to learn more about the problems of language teaching in order to improve their own ways and means of teaching languages successfully.

The primary goal of this work is to provide an easy to understand and yet some comprehensive in-depth description of the new trends used in the field of language teaching. This easy to read short work makes just a few simple assumptions about the background of its readers. The techniques presented here are described in plain English. As a reference source, this work can be used by researchers in areas related to language teaching, and by individuals who are simply interested in developing their own language skills.

This short work has been designed to develop the skills teachers already have so that they can prepare their students more effectively. Although my focus is on language teaching and learning in general, I present the contents mostly as these relate specifically to teaching English language in general. The contents, methods and strategies offered here are easily transferable to teaching any language in India and elsewhere by a diligent teacher.

I shall look at ways to make our teaching as communicative and effective as possible, focusing on the challenges teachers and students face due to various factors: rural versus urban, mother tongue versus second/foreign language learning conditions, aptitude,

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motivation, teaching and learning strategies, etc. We all learn a language in order to develop our ability to communicate not only in speaking but also listening, reading and writing.

This work has been divided into various sections for easy reading and reference.

The booklet seeks to place the position, influence and understanding of English language and communication, reward of knowledge from one generation to the next. It focuses on LSRW: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills receive equal treatment. The book also deals with various factors such as the need for high level of communication between teacher and student. I make a brief attempt to specify models that approach human performance in the linguistic task of communication skills and our educational system.

The booklet focuses also on the basic principles of teaching-learning situations in the classroom, effective teaching as well as the long-term learning process and the improvement of critical listening strategies and self-evaluation, using power words while speaking before the audience and so on.

I deal with the SQ4R method to develop our reading skills and writing, and this is designed to help learn to identify different uses of language also.

The booklet also describes the language teaching method, the TBL methodology and tasks description.

There is no doubt that our classroom needs to be more communicative in order to give our students the best chance of success. I think that surely this short work will enlighten every language teacher to help each learner achieve optimally in their language using all the four language skills, LSRW (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing).

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We must recognize that wholesome language learning should be the goal of any language teaching, even when our curriculum may seek to learn a language such as English only for specific purposes. Purposes of language use and language learning may differ based on need and context, etc., but the basic underlying elements, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing, would always receive focused treatment.

We need to note that our goal in teaching languages in most curriculums is to use them adequately for pre-set purposes. Thus, practice to achieve that goal must be provided in plenty and in a manner easy to acquire, master and perform. Far too long, language teaching in India gave more importance to reading and writing, ignoring the important skills of listening and speaking. Performance in examinations took precedence over actual performance in using the language effectively to meet the needs.

2. Introduction

English is the first language for most people in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States of America. The influence of the British Empire was the primary reason for the initial spread of the language far beyond the British Isles. However, the growing expansion of American influence around the world helped it further to become *the global language* of today.

As Thirumalai (2002) points out,

“English is learned everywhere because people have found out that knowledge of English is a passport for better career, better pay, advanced knowledge, and for communication with the entire world. English is also learned for the literature it possesses, and for the variety and rich experience it provides. English has replaced French as the language of diplomacy. In this computer age, English is bound to expand its domains of use everywhere. Everyone wants to appropriate English as their own.” (<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter1>).

English is today the world’s most widely studied foreign/second language. However, some 500 years back, it was Latin that dominated education, commerce, religion and government in the western world. Modern English is sometimes described as the global *lingua franca*. English is the dominant international language in science and technology, business, entertainment, diplomacy and communication.

Generally speaking, when a language has got the position of a universal language, the position tends to be affirmed and extended by it. Since “every one” knows and uses English, people are almost forced to learn English and use it, and learn it better. Even when we expect the majority of our students to understand and use their native languages extensively, we may be tempted to use English when writing, for example, about research work.

Language is the most important tool of communication. Linguistic problems of understanding arise even when people speak the same language. Tone, facial expressions and voice play an important role in one's speech and the process of communication.

Words with relative meanings, jargon, technical terms, connotative and denotative meanings of words also make it difficult for people to understand the communication they are exposed to.

Language is the means of communication of ideas and feelings to one another. And, language is one of the fundamental aspects of our lives.

There are two types of language styles: spoken language and written language. The spoken form serves as our primary means of coordinating our day-to-day behaviors with others. The written form serves language use for deliberate purposes such as knowledge communication, business correspondences, contracts, etc. It also serves as a long-term record of knowledge from one generation to the next.

Comprehension is a Key Element in Any Language Learning

Generally speaking, communication skill may be divided into two groups, namely, Verbal and Non-verbal communication. Here, verbal communication involves listening, speaking, reading and writing skills while non-verbal communication involves accuracy and audience awareness, brightness and body language correctness (of usage and grammar). Comprehension means the power of understanding. In language learning and teaching this term refers to an exercise aimed at improving or testing the learners' understanding of a language.

The important thing to remember when working with comprehension skills relate to both speaking and reading. Often the comprehension based on an understanding of oral language takes precedence over comprehension based on reading. Thus, there must be

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oral communication on as high a level as possible between the teacher and the children, and among the children themselves. Teachers can take time for oral discussion of ideas. To foster an understanding of language, teachers can provide opportunities for ESL (English as a second language) student to hear speak and read it throughout the day.

At the same time, reading comprehension cannot and should not be ignored. For most of us in India, English is a reality, mostly through our reading and writing. This situation may not change soon. Our speaking is almost similar to reading in both formal and informal situations. This is valid even for our business communication contexts. We are so heavily influenced by the written style of the language since the time English was introduced, we may not get out of this situation easily!

Multilingual Societies and English Learning

In multilingual societies, different languages are allocated different functions, with perhaps the language of the home being completely different from the languages used at work, play, school or in the market place. In such situations, it is common for students to simultaneously acquire two or three language as ‘first/native’ language. When they first start school, majority of children in India is fluent only in their home language. However, there is also a good number of families that use more than one language at home and in their immediate environment. Bilingual families are found everywhere. Moreover, with increase in floating populations, especially in metropolitan areas, many children may be already fluent in two or more languages.

Parents in India who know some English begin to speak in English to their children and within the family. In the early days of Indian Independence, such tendencies were decried and looked down upon as aping the West, etc. However, there is no such feeling seen among the parents these days.

We should say that English has come to stay in most educated families and is no more considered a stranger insofar as interpersonal communication is concerned. This model influences the speech behavior of children as well, both within the family and in the school.

Communication is an attitude, but also a skill, a technique, an art, and a facility of expression. There are four parts to communication, namely, speaking (30%), listening (45%), reading (16%) and writing (9%). So, the ultimate goal is to be able to specify models that help human performance in the linguistic task of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Whatever model we may adopt to teach a language, we should ensure that language develops in a natural way.

3. Principles of Teaching-Learning

“A good teacher will ever be willing to learn”.

We continuously learn all through our life. Our learning may or may not be pursued in a conscious manner, but we all seek to improve our knowledge of the environment. The process of learning is never-ending and hence you must be willing to learn. You learn for all sorts of individuals and contexts, etc. learn from an infant, a person much junior to you or from anybody who is senior or lower in age to you. Always be open to learn.

If I may ask you a question as to why you have come here, you answer will surely be, “I am here to learn.” That is an indicator that you are a person who is willing to learn. So, this is the right attitude for a teacher. Remember also, learning is a long process and we must embrace it without any reservations and must always be willing to learn.

Effective teaching is a process to increase the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the group and its members. Here, the focus is on learning, not teaching. For teaching to be effective, learning must take place.

The steps of effective teaching include

- * Choosing the learning objectives, and
- * Providing a discovery experience that helps the learner understand the need for the skill.

The following basic principles are usually emphasized in teaching-learning situation:

1. LSRW (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) should be emphasized in teaching-learning situations as being separate facets of vocabulary development. Vocabulary would be developed in isolation in the class setting.

2. In learning activities involving writing, each of the language arts areas of grammar, handwriting, spelling, punctuation and content might be stressed in isolation in teaching-learning situations.

3. Reading instruction may be divided into the following categories: Phonics instruction and other word recognition techniques, comprehension of content and oral reading.

Diverse purposes in reading may also be stressed in the elementary school. These purpose would be include:

- a) Reading to acquire facts.
- b) Gaining a sequence of ideas.
- c) Reading to follow directions.
- d) Reading critically and creatively.
- e) Acquiring main ideas and generalizations.

Back in 1971, the Ministry of Education, Government of India (now called the Human Resources Development Ministry) spelled out the objectives that English should achieve by the end of the secondary school stage:

By the end of the course, a student should be able to:

- a) Read with fluency and understand passages of prose written within the limits of the teaching points, and reading vocabulary suggested in the syllabus.
- b) Understand a simple talk on a subject with his experience and

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c) Use the language correctly in the speech and writing within the limits of the teaching points and active vocabulary detailed in the syllabus.

4. Listening Critically

Listening is one half of the communication process. Learning how to become a critical listener is an important step towards comprehension and successful communication. Improve your student's critical listening skills through the use of listening strategies and self-evaluation.

I. Teach the listening process

1. Focus their attention
2. Interpret the information
3. Respond to the speaker's message

II. Evaluate their listening

1. Rephrase and repeat statements
2. Compare and contrast interpretations
3. Research points of interest or contention

5. Types of Listening

Type	How to listen	Situation
Critical	Listen for facts and supporting details to understand and evaluate the speaker's message	Information or persuasive essays, class discussion, announcements.
Empathic	Imagine yourself in the other person's position and try to understand what he or she is thinking	Conversation with friends or family
Appreciative	Identify and analyze aesthetic or artistic elements, such as character development, rhyme, imagery and descriptive and narrative language	Oral presentations of a poem, dramatic performance.
Reflective	Ask questions to obtain information and use the speaker's response to form new question	Class or group discussion

6. Powerful Words

1. Watch your words. Like arrows, once out of the mouth nothing in this world can stop them from creating havoc or happiness in the other person's mind.
2. Your choice of words reflects your personality and maturity. You can use words to generate optimism, and motivate people or push them to depths of despair.
3. Do not say anything that you will not put on paper and sign. Always use words that create positive effect or neutral expression with others.
4. The tune of your voice, if not carefully monitored, can be a turn off to others. You might convey a totally different impression compared to your statement if the tone does not match the situation and words.

Evaluating Word Choice and Language Usage

Language is a tool used to make sense of the world. Until we can express a thought in words, we usually do not understand the thought and cannot explain it to someone else. In addition to thoughts, we express feelings by means of words.

As Thirumalai (2002) points out, "Learning words in any second or foreign language program involves not only learning the meanings of the words, but also learning how these words are used appropriately in linguistic, sociolinguistic, and cultural contexts. ... When we say that we know English, we mean that we know the meanings and usage of a few thousand words in English." We also need to master the "particular attitude associated with the use of words: Approving, Derogatory, Euphemistic, Figurative,

Formal, Informal, Ironic, Jocular, Offensive, Rhetorical, sexist, slang, and Taboo.”
(<http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter10>)

7. Top 10 Tips for Public Speaking and Tips for Plain English

1. Feeling some nervousness before giving a speech is natural and healthy. It shows you care about doing well. But, too much nervousness can be detrimental.
2. Know the room. Be familiar with the place in which you will speak. Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practice using the microphone and any visual aids.
3. Know the audience. Greet some of the audience as they arrive. It is easier to speak to a group of friends than to a group of strangers.
4. Know your material. Practice your speech and assess the length of time available and make changes suitably, if necessary.
5. Relax. Ease tension by doing some breathing exercise.
6. Visualize yourself giving your speech. Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear and assured. When you visualize yourself as successful, you will be successful.
7. Realize that people want you to succeed. Audiences want you to be interesting, stimulating, informative and entertaining. They don't want you to fail.
8. Concentrate on the message, not on medium.
9. Focus your attention away from your own anxieties and outwardly towards your message and your audience.
10. Gain experience. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking.

Importance of Speaking Plain and Simple English

As Thirumalai (2002, <http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html#chapter1>) reports:

The English taught, spoken, and written in the Third World countries is often not plain, simple, and straightforward. As in the Indian sub-continent, it is derived, more often than not, from the English style spoken and written a century ago, in some instances. We certainly need to emphasize grammatical correctness in learning English, but it is equally important to cultivate in our learners a sensitivity and skill to use natural, simple, and straightforward English. Indian newspapers in English and the radio news broadcasts should take the initiative in simplifying the usage.

It is important for us the teachers to teach how to speak and write plain English. We need to avoid our archaic expressions and sentence and phrase constructions. Let us continuously read modern magazines and journals to improve our writing in English.

Simple, plain, and natural English should be our goal.

Again to cite Thirumalai (2002), plain English has several important characteristics that we need to consciously develop in our writing. He quotes the following from Dayananda (1986:13) as the characteristics of Plain English:

1. Prefer the shorter word to the longer one.
2. Use simple, everyday words rather than fancy ones.
3. Prefer verbs over nouns and adjectives.
4. Prefer the specific word to the general.
5. Write short sentences with an average of no more than 20 words.
6. Use the active voice rather than the passive.
7. Be a miser with compound and complex sentences and a spend thrift with simple sentences.
8. Write short paragraphs with an average of about 765 words.

9. Avoid paragraphs that exceed five typed lines for business letters and ten lines for longer compositions.
10. Write with the ear. A sentence may look good on paper but its cadence may be jarring. Listen to your sentences in your head as you write, and do not write anything that you could not comfortably say.
11. Write for the eye as well as the mind. Prepare an overall design, positioning understandable headings, subheadings, and captions for each segment, showing the organization of the text. Make the whole document visually appealing.
12. Use appropriate underlining, ink color that contrasts sharply with the paper, lists, boxes or panels, bold or other typefaces to emphasize points.
13. Use 'white space' in margins, between sections, paragraphs, and lines to make the document look good. (Cited from Crystal 1987:379).

8. Study Aids and SQ4R Method

You can study your textbooks more effectively by mastering the following 6 Skills:

1. Survey,
2. Question,
3. Read,
4. Recite,
5. Record and
6. Review.

These 6 skills, abbreviated as SQ4R, will prepare and guide your reading and later help you recall important information.

The SQ4R Method

Survey

Preview the material you are going to read for these features: chapters, title, heading, subheading, introduction, summary, questions and exercise.

Question

Turn each heading into a question about what will be covered under that heading. Ask the questions who, what, when, where and why about it.

Read

Reading is a visual means of acquiring and retaining information. It is the method by which the majority of students learn best. Reading involves mastering skills in a number of reading related areas and learning to apply those skills properly. Two of these areas are Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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textbook reading and reading style. By gaining and applying skills in these two important areas, you will become a more efficient and effective reader.

Search for the answers to the questions that have been posed in the step above.

Recite

Orally or mentally recall questions and their related answers.

Record

Take notes to further reinforce the information. List the main ideas and the major details.

Review

Review the material on a regular basis, using some or all the steps above.

9. Writing in Everyday Life

You may not be aware of how heavily you rely on writing every day. At home, you might jot down a “To Do List”, take a phone message, send a letter or e-mail, or fill out an application or order form every time you pick up a pen or pencil, you are writing.

Why Write?

Writing is one of the most powerful communication tools you will use today and for the rest of your life. You will use it to share your thoughts and ideas with others and even to communicate with yourself. It is an exploration and it will still be part of your daily personal life.

What are the other qualities of good writing?

- Ideas
- Organization
- Voice
- Word choice
- Sentence fluency
- Conventions

Developing Your Writing Life

- Keep track of your ideas
- Writer’s Note book
- Clippings file
- Writer’s journal

Written work is only one avenue for sending and receiving information. Much of what you need to comprehend comes to you aurally or through visual representation. To understand and remember effectively, you learn to give information orally and visually. By developing your skills in speaking, listening, viewing, and representing you will help your students increase their effectiveness as communicators.

Individuals may not be inclined to read and re-read what we write and make corrections wherever necessary. However, spelling, grammar, sentence structure, punctuation and capitalization, etc. always would need some correction or the other. Even if you have studied and learned English for a number of years, and even if you use it every day at work with some competence, you'd still need to self-edit your writing before you dispatch your letters, etc. In addition we need to learn how to use English in a persuasive and respectful manner when we write our communications. Inoffensive language would avoid gender bias, caste and religion bias, choosing appropriate pronouns, and so on.

You need to learn how to write e-mails in a persuasive way. Often students and teachers alike do not distinguish between the conventions adopted in SMS messages and the conventions that should be adopted in writing e-mails. Capitalization should not be dispensed with in e-mails. Paragraphs should be properly developed. Subject line in the e-mail should have appropriate descriptive and distinct content that truly reveals the content discussed in the e-mail.

10. Language Teaching Method

TBL (Task Based Learning) Methodology

Why Task Based Learning (TBL)?

A Task is:

1. An good activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome
 - a) Do a puzzle
 - b) Play a game

2. Hundred and one things people do in everyday life
 - a) Buying a pair of shoes
 - b) Making an airline reservation

3. Activity or action, which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (as a response)
 - a) Drawing a map while listening to an instruction

A Task-based Approach to Language

1. Allows for a needs analysis to be matched to identified student needs

2. Is supported by the research findings of classroom – centered language learning

3. Allows evaluation to be based on testing referring to task – based criteria

4. Allows for form – focused instruction

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Tasks are activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome. So, we should select topics that will motivate learners, engage their attention and promote their language development as effectively as possible. One of our tasks is to find practical information for students who are going to be trained on the job context in companies. That is why we would do well to select topics such as:

1. Filling in personal details in given forms/applications, etc.
2. Instructions to withdraw money from ATMs.
3. Instructions to open a current or savings account in a bank.
4. Writing or filling in a formal request to get a student card for free rides in bus.
5. Requirement to get a bank statement card
6. Instruction how to complete a check
7. Making inquiries in which students will be involved in daily life. All tasks should have an outcome.

Let us have a brief explanation about the different phases:

1. The pre-task phase introduces the class to the topics and the task, activating topic – related words and phrases.

2. The task cycle offers learners the chance to use whatever language they already know in order to carry out the task and then to improve the language, under teacher guidance, while planning their reports of the task.

3. The last phase allows a closer study of some of the specific features accruing in the language used during the task cycle.

Main Goal

Student should be able to understand and reproduce texts and basic messages in their own language, related to the daily and cultural and professional life.

Task Description

The tasks are designed for students who need to use the language on the job as they get their work experience.

11. Conclusion

Language is the most important tool of communication. It improves our student's critical skills while communicating to others. Communication is the Latin word which means 'to share' our feelings and ideas to one another. In multilingual societies, different languages are allocated with different functions with perhaps the language of the home being completely different from the languages used at work, play, school or in the market place. Therefore, communication plays the most important role throughout world; it may include both verbal and non-verbal aspects.

Generally speaking, there are two types of language styles, namely, oral or spoken and written language. In oral language, sound is the basic element but we are not following the proper grammar while in written language letter is the basic but we are not following the grammar. Similarly, these communication skills such as verbal focused only as LSRW (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) both languages learning and teaching effectively. So, it helps the language teachers to involve the learner in the learning process so that language develops automatically and spontaneously with the use of all four language skills – LSRW (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) – receive equal treatment.

Learn to Identify Different Uses of Language

In your reading, you will find language used in various ways. Recognizing when language is being used to communicate honesty and when it is being used to distort information is an important skill. When you think critically, you need to distinguish between language that presents material clearly and honestly and language that misrepresents ideas and manipulates emotions.

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Challenges Encountered by Teachers in Rural Areas and Strategies to Triumph Over

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Length of Study Should Help, But Here ...

Even after years of learning English at school, many students fail to learn the language. They are unable to communicate freely in the language.

After six years of learning English as a subject at school and three years of compulsory English at college, our average Undergraduate cannot speak a correct sentence in English, Write hi, Curriculum Vitae, or even read an English Daily. There is no exaggeration. Complaints such as these are voiced all over the country. Parents, teachers, examiners and employers complain our learner's poor achievement in English (S. C. Sood, 1995: 167).

When they enter college most of the students do not perform well. Even after a decade of learning English in schools students are not able to use it appropriately to meet their needs. They fail to use the language effectively in day to day communication.

This problem is very acute with the students who come from the rural parts. We also notice that English language teachers in rural areas face many problems and come across a variety of challenges that hinder effective teaching and learning of English as a second language. We need to continuously identify these problems and challenges, analyze these in order to remedial steps.

Negative Attitude

Negative attitude toward learning and using English is still prevalent in the rural regions of India. A part of the reason is historical - earlier generations were subjects under the British rule, only some classes of people, a very small number, indeed, learned English with enthusiasm and occupied position of influence authority in British India. We are now a free nation for over 60 years, and yet English has not yet penetrated into our rural parts and the families of first generation learners. However, there certainly is some dramatic change in the last decade. English now enjoys a pre-eminent place in the Western world and those who seek who seek personal and social prosperity, have softened their attitude toward the English language which in the past was viewed with fear suspicion as a symbol of servitude. Unfortunately, this dynamic change and transition have not yet led to change in teaching and learning strategies in the rural parts.

The attitude of the rural students can neither be called completely negative nor completely positive. Their attitude is paradoxical. They like English and, in this sense, their attitude is positive. However, they find English very difficult. They believe that English is too difficult a language for them to learn.

Their own attitude towards their ability and capacity is also negative. This negative attitude along with their attitude towards their English language teachers, whom they are afraid of as symbol of authority, de-motivates them.

Their negative attitude is stronger than their positive attitude and obviously it is a great challenge for the teacher to break off the negative attitude of the students and teach the language effectively.

Negative Attitude Exhibited by Teachers

Some teachers have a negative attitude towards their students. They are always of the opinion that these students are dull and can never improve. They do not assign them any challenging tasks, complaining that these students would not do such tasks. Due to this attitude of the teachers, the students are not given enough opportunities to show or develop their potential and this lack of opportunity again is a challenge to the teachers.

Besides, the teachers' attitude is highly authoritarian and sometimes they even threaten the students with punishments. Teachers in the rural schools are overwhelmingly strict and as a

result the students are afraid of them. This prevents the existence of a healthy positive student-teacher relationship. The negative attitude of the students towards the language, the teacher and the learning of it poses challenge to the teacher.

Good News! Attitudes Can Be Changed!

However, nothing is impossible. Attitude is a modifiable factor. Negative attitude of the students can be changed if proper attempts are made. The teacher has to develop a friendly attitude and be kind towards the students. This will make the students develop a positive attitude towards the teacher. If a healthy relationship is maintained between the teacher and the students, then the students' negative attitude towards the teacher would change to a positive one.

Learners come to the English classes with a positive attitude to English. It is the duty of the teachers to encourage and sustain this attitude. Very often teachers are responsible for changing such positive attitudes, through their excessive zeal for discipline, perfection and accuracy. Perhaps here they need to take a cue from human nature psychology which regards a relaxed atmosphere as a pre-condition for any learning to take place. A healthy change in teacher's attitude to the learners will go a long way in promoting second language acquisition.

Lack of Motivation

Lack of motivation is another major challenge. In an English language class room in rural areas motivating the learners is the most challenging aspect. If students don't have motivation, then the teaching-learning process becomes a one-sided show. It is the sole responsibility of the teacher to motivate the students. One way to motivate them is through a gentle and firm emphasis of the importance English in the present day world.

Students do not invest as much time in learning English as they do in learning their specialist subjects. One of the reasons is that they don't see English playing a significant role to major in a certain discipline. Any time the students are asked why they are not making effort to improve their English performance; they usually say English is not included for the calculation of percentage of marks for entry into professional colleges, etc. What is missing here is a realization that although performance in English may not be a deciding factor into well paying professional subjects such IT, medicine and other engineering fields, their subsequent success depends upon how well they are skilled in English, the major language of communication around the world in all well paying jobs and careers. In addition, acquisition of additional knowledge depends on the comfort with which a student is able to use English. So, a futuristic perspective is called for here, and the teachers have the responsibility to inculcate this sense in their students.

Separation of knowledge into major and minor or major and support courses in our curriculum adds to the current situation among students for their lack of serious efforts to improve their

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performance in English. As curriculum is also a political tool to achieve preset goals for a society and nation, we may not have much control over the situation here. However, there are some who always seem to have a better vision of themselves of using English in their future career and they try to learn and improve their English. But, then, they are discouraged by the students' culture (of the majority). Any time these students make effort, you can hear others teasing them or laughing at them trying to express their ideas in English. Adult students are particularly too sensitive about their image, so they abandon their goals under the pressure of the inhibitive students' culture.

The solution for this is to adopt a more integrationist approach in offering courses. Specialist subject lecturers, departments and the universities should see clearly the role English plays in their students' academic and professional development.

Lack of Aptitude

There is certainly room to help improve the aptitude of rural students. Most of these may be first-generation college entrants; they have had little real exposure to English in the social context in which they live. Another reason is that the level of English learning/teaching is not adequate in their schools. In some schools, the students are never taught English at the lower classes (up to VII or VIII standard).

In order to promote the aptitude of the students proper steps can be taken. Students' ability to discriminate the sounds of the new language, the ability to break the stream of speech into constituents and to generalize about its structure, and the ability to remember its words are some of the aspects that need to be taken care of. Auditory discrimination is an important element here since the phonology of Indian languages, such as Tamil, including their supra-segmental features are quite different from English features. Without some core minimum ability, no second language learning is possible; from this point of view everyone has basic aptitude. The inherent propensity can be further developed in a learner in order to have better control over the language being learned. So the students need to be given enough opportunity to develop their capability.

Teaching Pronunciation

One of the biggest difficulties a teacher faces when teaching English as a second language is to inculcate proper pronunciation in the speakers. The English language has a number of characteristic features which most foreign speakers do not imbibe readily. Though teaching of pronunciation is a complicated task, it is one of the most significant features of English Language Teaching.

The first and foremost thing is that teachers should be conscious of their own pronunciation. Teachers should describe the pronunciation and tell the learners what are the places and manner of articulation involved in the production of speech sounds and show how those sounds are

physically articulated. In higher classes, teachers can give the learners the phonetic or phonemic symbols. But often mimicry and imitation play a crucial role in achieving success in pronunciation. The sound system of each of the world's languages is quite distinct, yet each language shares universal sound features with all the other languages of the world.

Learners should be exposed to a wide variety of dialects and different pronunciations. Learners must be given enough opportunity to produce large quantities of sentences by themselves. Learners' speech must be recorded and they should be made to listen to the recordings. This provides the learner an opportunity to listen to his own pronunciation and make it possible for him to identify for himself where he goes wrong and enables him to correct himself.

At the college level, before teaching the sounds, the teacher can give an idea to the students about the sound system of English and the areas of difficulty in learning English pronunciation as follows:

- English is not spelt phonetically. There is an exceptional disparity between spelling and pronunciation.
- Assimilation: A sound is influenced and changed by a neighbouring sound.
- Word accent and rhythm
- Silent letters
- Homophones.
- Change of pronunciation with the change in number, i.e. singular and plural.
- Onomatopoeia: combinations of sounds in words that resemble or suggest what words really refer to.

Unpredictability of Pronunciation in English

These areas of difficulty in English pronunciation show that pronunciation in English is unpredictable. There are many areas like this which pose no less confusion to the speaker of English for whom it is not the mother tongue. That makes the job of the English teacher more challenging. However, a teacher with a sound knowledge about English pronunciation can teach sounds effectively. All that you need is a sound knowledge of sounds, special training in phonetics and, of course, and a little patience.

Teaching Grammar

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The fact that English grammar has its own set of complicated rules and regulations makes it a tough language to conquer. A good number of students struggle with these rules, and cannot really understand many of the principles on first or second reading. To make matters worse, English itself has several varieties. Therefore, students may find the Queen's English quite different from American English.

Physical Condition of the Class Room

Another major challenge is the physical condition of the class room. Whatever method is used or technique followed, good learning would not take place and the teacher could not attain her goal, unless the physical condition of the learning content is favourable. Classrooms rural schools in rural areas are not well lit or spacious enough to accommodate the students and the seating arrangement too is not adequate when compared to the situation urban schools. This bad condition of the classrooms in these schools de-motivates the learners and this, in turn, becomes a challenge to the teachers.

A good learning atmosphere would result in good and quick learning of the language. So it is important that the classrooms are spacious enough, well-lit, airy and healthy. The stake holders, educationists and the administrators should be ready to take up the issue and allot funds to keep the classrooms in rural schools in good condition. Government of India has recently made constitutional amendment making education one of the fundamental rights. So, hopefully, the present situation will soon change in a noticeable way.

Large Class

Another major challenge is the strength of the class. In many schools in rural areas the classes are quite big, having more than forty students. Besides, sometimes due to lack of sufficient number of teachers, the classes are combined and the number of students in a class goes up to seventy or eighty. Those teachers who have to cope with classes that contain 50 or more learners are, therefore, often ill-prepared to deal with the situation in which they find themselves in schools.

Students in any class fall under different levels of achievement relating to English speakers, and this is applicable almost every subject. Mixed ability class is our typical class situation in India. These categories can be classified into the below average, average and above average students. All these groups have to be considered in the teaching processes so that no one is left behind.

Teacher would agree that teaching a small class is easier and more efficient than teaching a large class. Teachers can overcome the challenges posed by large size of their classes if they engage the students in activities that keep all of the students interested and participating with the goal of improving their communication skills. Activities like small group discussions, debates, and

language games can be conducted in large classes in order to make the class both lively and interesting.

Lack of Exposure

The students from the rural back ground do not interact in English. Most of them have been studying in Tamil medium schools. In their lower classes they have studied English as a subject and have never made use of it for communication. Their exposure to the English language is very little. This limited exposure to the second language poses a big challenge to the teacher. The only source of English for them is their teacher. The teacher too makes use of L1 often, in order to enable the student understand the contents she presents to the class.

The students find themselves lacking in confidence and courage to stand on their own. They feel shy and are hesitant to actively participate in the class. The reason for the students' shyness to speak a second language with their peers actually emanates from their recognition that they may commit errors. We need to make them realize that none ever speaks any language perfectly without errors all the time. All those, including their teachers, who now speak English, have committed and still commit errors in English. Their recognition is a good asset, but their failure to overcome their shortcoming is a disincentive to learn to speak and write the language without many errors. As they are not ready to interact in the class without hesitation, the English classes become a monologue with the teacher as the performer and the students become inactive and bored spectators.

There is no good interaction between the teacher and the learners and this is one of the limitations that challenges the English teacher and prevents the teacher from being successful in her attempt to enable the students master English.

Other Challenges that are Encountered in Teaching English in Rural Areas

Some teachers are unable to translate English words into students' local language for good understanding. There is also lack of good and graded translation materials as teaching aids. To tackle this challenge the teachers need to improve their vocabulary in the local language. In addition they can give simple explanation to those words instead of trying to give exact meanings in the mother tongue. Teachers can even use certain objects, actions and activities in class to explain certain words and phrases. Pictures and other visual materials like photographs can also be used to overcome this problem. Teaching language through visual aids is one of the innovative methods used by the teacher to teach language in class room.

Teachers can distribute visual aids to students by dividing them into various groups. The students can then be given stipulated time to extract relevant information from the given object/visual. After that, these learners can be called upon to speak about the visual aids given to them.

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This method expands the analyzing capacity of the students. By looking at the picture, the learner should think and come out with innovative thoughts which also help in learning language by creating fun-filled environment around them. The teacher acts as facilitator who motivates the students to talk freely.

Formal, Informal and Non-formal Training for Teachers

These exacting and tricky challenges make it necessary for any teacher of English to have a formal training in teaching practices and methods. It is not enough to have sufficient skills in listening and understanding the language. Even a native speaker of the English language requires methodical and intensive training program to qualify as a good teacher of English as a first/second/foreign language. Many of the skills like understanding specific problems related to particular regions and building basic communication skills in students, etc., can only be acquired through formal learning. At the same time, informal and non-formal learning also have their own relevance and teachers should see such self-training on their own. Teachers have to be prepared for the most bizarre mistakes, and need to know how to handle these delicate situations without affecting their own self-esteem.

Teacher's inability to take full charge of the class especially in unruly situations is another aspect that we need to deal with.

Hours of Instruction in English

In addition to the above constraints, teachers have very limited teaching hours, mostly from three to six hours per week. This is not enough to teach the language elaborately giving emphasis for the basic elements of the language. This is a problem that has to be tackled very carefully. Of course, extra classes can be taken but this is not always feasible and advisable, since it depends on the convenience and wish of the teacher as well as the students. College authorities also have a say in organizing such extra class work!

By using conventional methods, maximum portion of class time will be wasted in exercises and drilling, dealing with grammar and pronunciation which take away a large portion of class time. These methods were mostly used to develop basic skills of language learning such as Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing as independent skills. By following these methods listening and speaking skills were neglected as students could not put their oral language in practice.

Another best advice could be that teachers can teach the students how to learn on their own. The best teacher always inspires. So, the teacher should inspire the students to learn on her own and especially language can be learnt anywhere outside the class too. This possibility should be emphasized.

Several Other Issues and Challenges

One more challenge: Majority of the teachers are unfamiliar with the latest developments in ELT pedagogy. To overcome this problem teachers development programmes should be conducted at regular intervals. Teachers can be kept informed continuously of the latest and recent developments in ELT pedagogy through newsletters, notices, and brochures of different forums for teachers. Educational institutions must subscribe to journals on teaching pedagogy and teacher development. Teachers of English should be encouraged to become members of Teacher Associations which function to provide initial and in-service teacher training, to promote high professional standards, offer opportunities for personal language development, and establish professional journals for members. Such associations offer a forum for the exchange of ideas, resources and information and this would keep the English teachers informed of new techniques, theories and approaches of teaching English as a Second Language.

It is important that ESL teachers have a formal training in teaching practices and methods. It is not enough to have sufficient skills in listening and understanding the language. A methodical and intensive training program is necessary for a good teacher of English as a second language.

One more challenge relates to the suitability of the syllabus. Teachers have voiced concern relating the mismatch between students' level of understanding, teaching context, available resource materials and aids in relation to requirements and goals of the syllabus they are asked to implement. The syllabus is always prepared by a committee the members of which may not be usually the ones who handle these classes. Teachers feel that the involvement of teachers who handle the classes in the process of designing teaching and testing materials is a necessary condition for effecting meaningful changes in curricula. A curriculum is eventually what is practiced in the classroom. It is the mass of teachers who give the document called 'syllabus' a reality and it is they who convey to students an attitude towards learning and impart strategies for studying and preparing for examinations. Teachers who actually handle the classes, therefore, need to be involved in the curriculum and development process. This requires that the authorities should scout around a lot through the districts to identify qualified and skilled teachers from the large population of teachers who actually handle a specific class for which the curriculum and syllabus are being developed.

Since teaching of English, or any subject for that matter, is examination-oriented, students learn English only as a subject rather than as a language. They are also unable to put their learning into practice due to lack of a favorable environment. The best solution to this could be to make the students aware of the fact that languages are not to be learnt as other subjects but have to be learnt in order to use them in day to day life in a comfortable manner. Teaching methods that could help the students improve their communicative skills have to be adopted in the classrooms. Now, due to the world wide growing trends in English, teachers should give more emphasis to

the communicative approach rather than the lecture mode. Their main goal is to make the students effective communicators in English, both inside and outside of the class room.

To achieve this, they should involve the students to participate more in classroom activities so that they will acquire adequate command over speaking skills. To create this environment, teachers can conduct group discussions, where students are supposed to speak only in English. Here, they can give their views, ideas and thoughts in English due to which they develop the habit of speaking fluently in English like they do in their mother tongue. Debates too play an important role to improve the speaking ability of the students, both at school and at higher level. This also helps them to organize their thoughts and ideas in a specific way while speaking.

Role-plays are another important task that can improve the students' performance in English. To make English classes more lively and interesting, teachers can make use of activities like group discussion, debates, and role plays and use computers and other electronic gadgets in the ESL classrooms. This would also help them to overcome some of the challenges they face in the ESL classroom and enable successful teaching.

At present the challenges visible before the English language teachers at the higher secondary level in rural areas are diverse and it is necessary for the teachers and students to meet the demands of the day in creative ways.

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Challenges Encountered by Teachers in Rural Areas and Strategies to Triumph Over

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Variation of Voice Onset Time (VOT) in Kannada Language

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Abstract

Speaking rate changes during normal conversation alters the duration of acoustic properties that specify phonetic segments (Summerfield, 1975). One such acoustic property which is affected by speaking rate is Voice Onset Time (VOT). As most of the studies on VOT are in English and therefore, do not provide sufficient data for generalization to other languages, the present study was planned to investigating the changes in VOT for voiceless and voiced stop consonants in Kannada language (a south Indian Dravidian Language) across different speaking rates.

A total of 20 Kannada speaking young adults, age ranging from 18 to 24 years participated in the study. A set of six phrases were constructed, which were meaningful and they had voiceless & voiced sounds in initial position of the words. Subjects were asked to read the phrases at three different speaking rates. The flashlight from a metronome was used to help the participants to maintain the speaking rate and all the utterances were acoustically analyzed for VOT.

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Results revealed that, VOT values were higher at slower speaking rates and lower at faster speaking rates. These results are consistent with the earlier studies by Volaitis & Miller (1992). The results are also discussed in relation to the speech motor control with reference to the 'Target undershoot Model' by Lindblom (1963). The changes in VOT across speaking rates can also be attributed to the changes primarily in dynamic specification of gesture of articulators.

Introduction

Voice onset time (VOT) is the interval between the release of a stop consonant occlusion and the onset of the vocal fold vibration and is measured from acoustic displays as the time between the release burst and the first quasi periodicity in the acoustic signal (Lisker and Abramson, 1964; Keating, 1984; Klatt, 1975). There are three different types of Voice onset time. First, Zero VOT, it is the onset of vocal fold vibration coincides (approximately) with the plosive release. And the second one is Positive VOT, in this there is delay in the onset of vocal fold after the plosive release (Lag VOT). The third one is, the negative VOT, in which the onset of vocal fold vibration precedes the plosive release (Lead VOT).

VOT has been found to be an effective means to distinguish between voicing categories in oral stops. Studies have consistently shown the voiceless plosives /p/, /t/, /k/ to have long positive VOT'S in the range of 30 to 100 msec (English) and 1 to 45 msec (Kannada). In voiced plosives /b/, /d/, /g/ have negative VOT's in the range of -100 to 0 msec (English) and -126 to -60msec (Kannada). Thus the value of VOT is a good indicator for voiced and voiceless stops and also plays a large role in perceptual discrimination of phonemes of the same place of articulation. However, earlier investigations have shown that VOT is affected by language (Lisker & Abramson, 1964, 1967; Ravanan, 1993), age (Menyuk & Klatt, 1975) and gender (Ravishankar, 1981).

In recent years, more and more studies have focused on the relation between VOT and other possible correlates. The proposed correlates can be divided into two categories, speaker related and non-speaker related. The most widely studied speaker related factors are gender (Whiteside and Irving, 1998, 2001; Ryalls, 1997, 2002), age (Ryalls, 1997), Speaking rate (Kessinger and Blumstein, 1998; Volaitis and Miller, 1992), lung volume (Ryalls, 2002), other speaker related background are ethnic background (Ryalls et al 1997), dialectal background (Schmidt and Flege, 1996; Syndral, 1996). The non-speaker related factors include place of articulation, word frequency, phonetic context (Whiteside et al 2004, Neiman et al, 1983).

Invariant properties of articulatory movements have been a dominant issue in studies related to speech motor control. A study of invariant properties has thrown light on motor control processes underlying speech production. A number of studies have indicated differences in articulatory movement across a variety of context and other influences (Kent, 1970; Fujimura,

1986). One such influence is the rate of speech. Speaking rate is typically defined as the number of output syllables or words per unit time. Speaking rate is thought to affect most, though not solely, coarticulation and spectral temporal reduction (Lindblom, 1963). In turn speaking rate changes the VOT values (Miller et al, 1986; Summerfield, 1975).

Miller et al (1986) measured VOT and overall syllable duration for /bi/ and /pi/, produced across a wide range of speaking rates. They found that as rate was slowed such that syllable duration increased, VOT values become systematically longer. As a consequence, the VOT value that optimally differentiated the VOT distributions for /b/ and /p/ also moved towards longer values. They concluded that the phonetic category boundary along a VOT series shift toward longer VOT values as the syllables within the series become longer (Green & Miller, 1985; Summerfield, 1981). The follow up study by Volaitis & Miller (1992) also measured the VOT for both voiceless (p, t, k) and voiced (b, d, g) stop consonants for syllable initial consonant at different speaking rates. Their results revealed that VOT systematically increased with an increase in syllable duration i.e., speaking rate. Their results replicate the findings of Miller (1986) for labial consonants and extend them to alveolar and velar consonants.

Thus, VOT is found to be negatively correlated with speaking rate and the correlation is highly significant, especially for voiceless stop consonants (Kessinger and Blumstein, 1998; Volaitis and Miller, 1992). However, no significant changes occurred in the negative or short-lag VOT's of voiced plosives (Volaitis and Miller, 1992). As speaker slows down the speaking rate, all the phonetic segments will be stretched and therefore they should all show an increase in duration.

Many of the previous studies that have examined male-female differences in VOT have not controlled for speech tempo, and simply asked the participants to read the stimuli at a comfortable or natural rate (Ryalls et al., 1997; Swartz, 1978; Sweeting & Baken, 1982; Whiteside & Irving, 1997, 1998; Wadnerkar et al, 2006). Allen et al. (2003) recognized this factor and developed an algorithm for determining the magnitude of the effect of individual speech tempo differences. They determined that approximately 10% of the variability in VOT resulted from individual differences even when speakers were directed to speak slowly or quickly. Hence a follow up study was done (Allen et al, 2003) controlling for speech tempo and it was found that there was no difference existing between male and female participants. Thus, they concluded that previous findings ascribed to sex-based differences may, in fact, be the result of differences in speech tempo.

Robb et al (2005) compared the VOT's and syllable durations in the phrases produced by the participants in their study. They found that the females produced significantly longer VOT's for voiceless stops but no significant differences between the males and females in syllable duration. Thus they concluded that the differences that they observed were sex-based rather than speech tempo-based. From the Robb et al. findings, future studies comparing males and female VOT's in phrases and sentences need to either fix speech tempo or provide an acoustic measure that will

allow the researcher to separate the effects of speech tempo and VOT. It should be noted that previous studies comparing the speech tempo of males and females have produced differing results (Byrd, 1994; Lutz & Mallard, 1986; Robb, Maclagan, & Chen, 2004; Walker, 1998).

The literature reviewed suggests that studies are mostly in English and therefore, do not provide sufficient data for generalization to other languages. There is a need for studies with larger number of subjects across various age groups in different languages. Such information can further our understanding of speech timing. In this context the present study aimed to investigate the changes in VOT for voiced and voiceless stop consonants in Kannada language (a south Indian Dravidian Language) with change in speaking rates and also to note gender differences for VOT across different speaking rates.

Method

Subjects

A total of 20 young adults (10 males and 10 females) participated in the study. The age ranged from 18 to 24 years (mean age 22 years) and all the subjects were native Kannada speakers. All participants were non-smokers and reported no history of neurological, vascular or motor impairment which would affect articulation, phonation and/or respiration. None of the participants reported that they had received any kind of formal vocal training. A speech language pathologist while recording determined that the speech and language skills of all the participants were within normal limits for young adults.

Test materials

For the purpose of this study a set of six phrases was constructed, which were meaningful and they had voiceless (/p/, /t/, /k/) & voiced (/b/, /d/ & /g/) sounds in initial position of the word. Phrases used were /pa:ka mathu pa:kashale/, /ba:le mathu ba:le kamba/, /ta:ta mathu ta:tabirla/, /da:ku mathu da:kumaara/, /ka:ge mathu ka:gemara/, and /ga:li mathu ga:lipata/.

Procedure

Subjects were asked to read the phrases at comfortable pitch and loudness level at five different rates which was set in the visual metronome. The flashlight from a metronome was used to help the participants to maintain the speaking rate. The tempo of the phrases uttered was controlled by

using metronome set at 80bpm, 160bpm and 240 bpm. The subjects were asked to match the tempo of production with that of the metronome flashing light at five different rates. The participant's speech samples were recorded through the Sony cardioid microphone (F-V120), which was connected directly to the computer and tempo was controlled by using the Metronome Plus (2nd edition, 2.0.0.1, M & M systems Germany). Hence these samples were recorded live and the same was loaded onto the PRAAT software (Paul & David 2008, version 5.0.27) and stored on computer hard disk. The recordings were done digitally and sampled at 16K Hz, 12 bit quantization. All the recordings were obtained with the microphone position fixed at a constant distance of 10-12 cm from the corner of the mouth.

Before speech sample collection, a practice session was given for each subject to set the pitch, loudness and tempo. The speech samples were collected first for phrase starting with /p/ stop consonant at 80bpm which was set in the metronome, three trials were recorded. And then tempo was set at 160bpm, the subject was asked to produce the phrase at this speed for stop consonant /p/. Similarly, 240 bpm was set in succession and the subject was asked to produce phrases at this tempo respectively and was recorded. The procedure which was followed for /p/ stop consonant phrase was carried out for other remaining stop consonant phrases- /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/ and /g/.

An allegro rate of 160 beats/min, (approximately, 3.5 syllables/sec) was chosen because it occurs within the normal speaking and reading rate of healthy young adults (Crystal & House, 1988; 1990; Miller, Grosjean & Lomanto 1984; Walker, 1988). This phrase production rate was chosen as it is within the range of typical speaking rates used by young adults and was easily accomplished by all the participants in the study. 160 beats/min was taken as reference rate of speech, so one level below and above this rate at the same interval of 80 bpm was selected to analyze voice onset time i.e., at 80 beats/min and 240 beats/min.

Each participant produced six plosives /p/, /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/ and /g/ in 6 phrases, each three times at five different speaking rates. A total of 1080 tokens (6 plosive phrases × 3 repetitions × 3 speaking rates × 20 participants) were acoustically analyzed for VOT. VOT was measured by visually inspecting the spectrograms in the PRAAT software. VOT was measured by placing a time marker at the onset of the noise burst of each stop and another marker at the onset of steady state vocal fold vibration. Steady state of vocal fold vibration was determined by visualizing the first vertical striation in the second formant of the vowel following the each stop. The PRAAT software display spectrogram, in terms of time denoted in milli seconds along the horizontal axis. This allowed for direct measurement of the time between the markers, and thus VOT. All VOT measures were carried out similarly for all stop consonants (/p/, /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/ and /g/) selected for the study.

Statistical Analysis

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The data was subjected to statistical analysis. The mean and standard deviation values of voice onset time at different speaking rates are calculated and tabulated for voiced and voiceless consonants. SPSS (Version 10) was used for statistical analysis. Paired t-test was used on the data to determine the significant difference between the speaking rates and gender.

Results

The data was analyzed to note the effect of different rate of speech on VOT for voiceless and voiced stop consonants. The results are discussed under the following main headings:

1. The voice onset time at different rate of speech for voiceless stop consonants.

2. The voice onset time at different rate of speech for voiced stop consonants.

1. The voice onset time at different rate of speech for voiceless stop consonants:

The mean and standard deviation (SD) values in milliseconds for voiceless stop consonants for males and females across speaking rates are shown in the Table 1. The mean and SD values obtained across different rate of speech indicates as the rate of speech increases the VOT values reduces. More differences was noted at slower rates i.e., 80bpm but the differences were less at faster rate i.e., 160*240bpm. The mean and SD VOT values obtained were longer for males compared to females for all voiceless stops at all rates of speech this difference was consistent.

Voiceless consonants	/p/				/t/				/k/			
	Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
80 bpm	27.7	3.2	19.6	2.0	33.5	2.3	18.5	2.0	32.8	7.4	19.5	2.5
160 bpm	21.6	3.5	14.5	1.0	22.8	4.6	12.8	1.9	25.8	1.7	13.3	1.7
240 bpm	17.4	2.2	12.2	1.2	19.2	3.4	11.1	1.7	20.7	3.7	11.1	1.2

Table 1: Showing the mean and standard deviation (SD) values of voice onset time in milliseconds for voiceless stops across males and females for different speaking rates.

As it is also evident from Table 2, statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were obtained for voiceless stops and gender across all the speaking rates. The study results are in consonance with

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the findings of earlier studies by Miller et al (1986) and Volaitis & Miller (1992) which showed significant difference at speaking rates for voiceless stop consonants.

Voiceless stops	Rate of speech		80 bpm		160bpm		240bpm	
			M	F	M	F	M	F
/p/	80	M		S	S	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S
	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						
/t/	80	M		S	S	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S
	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						
/k/	80	M		S	S	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S
	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						

Table 2: Shows the significance across different rate of speech for voiceless stops- /p/, /t/ and /k/ for males and females [M-male, F-Female, S-significant difference (p<0.05), NS – No significant difference (p>0.05)].

2. The voice onset time at different rate of speech for voiced stop consonants:

Table 3 shows the mean and SD values in milliseconds for voiced stop consonants for males and females across different rate of speech. The mean values obtained across different rates of speech shows that as rate of speech increases the VOT values reduces. Similar differences were noted at slower rate (80bpm) and at faster rate (240bpm). But the SD values were not consistent across rates.

The mean VOT values obtained were longer for males compared to females for all voiced stops at all rates of speech this difference was consistent and SD values were more for female subjects than the male subjects.

Voiced consonant	/b/				/d/				/g/			
	Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
80 bpm	-84.4	6.7	-76.2	7.8	-79.5	8.47	-74.2	12.3	-84.5	4.5	-76.5	6.8
160 bpm	-64.3	8.1	-55.3	8.4	-69.8	10.6	-58.3	7.1	-64.1	6.6	-53.6	6.9
240 bpm	-50.3	3.3	-40.0	8.2	-52.1	8.9	-40.5	9.1	-50.8	8.8	-38.7	10.5

Table 3: Showing the mean and standard deviation (SD) values of voice onset time in milliseconds for voiced stops across males and females for different speaking rates.

Statistically by using paired sample t- test on the data, a significant difference was noted for voiced stop consonants and gender across different rates of speech. From Table 4 it can be seen that significant difference obtained between males and females as well as for voiced consonants across three different rates of speech ($p < 0.05$) excepting for consonant /d/ between 80 and 160 bpm . In contrast to the present study Miller et al (1986) and Volaitis & Miller (1992) observed no significant difference for voiced stop consonants where the difference is smaller.

Voiceless stops	Rate of speech		80 bpm		160bpm		240bpm	
			M	F	M	F	M	F
/b/	80	M		S	S	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S
	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						
/d/	80	M		S	NS	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S
	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						
/g/	80	M		S	S	S	S	S
		F			S	S	S	S

	160	M				S	S	S
		F					S	S
	240	M						S
		F						

Table 4: Shows the significance across different rate of speech for voiceless stops- /b/, /d/ and /g/ for males and females [S-significant difference (p<0.05), NS – No significant difference (p>0.05)].

Discussion

As evident from results, there was a statistical significant difference for voiceless and voiced stop consonants across different speaking rates. The study results were similar to the findings of earlier studies by Miller et al (1986) and Volaitis & Miller (1992) atleast for voiceless stop consonants. Their results revealed that voiceless stop consonants appear to change considerably more with rate than Voiced counterparts. But contrastingly in the present study the results were noted for both voiceless and voiced stop consonants. The changes across rates may be explained on the basis of the hypothesis of multiple sub movements of the articulators (Adams, Weismer & Kent, 1993). According to these investigators, a single movement is constituted by elements of movement subroutines and the blending of these movements. Subroutines in the spatial and temporal dimension determine the actual or total movement. This in turn contributes to precise articulation. The precise in articulation in turn gets reflected in terms of changes in the VOT.

It may be inferred that the movement subroutines executed in the spatial and temporal discussions of speech are more accurate at 160bpm and 240bpm when compared to that of 80bpm. This is reflected in the duration of VOT. There was a statistical significant difference between the 160bpm and 240bpm. Even the mean values were statistical significant the deviations were less at faster rates compared to that of VOT's at slower rates of 80bpm. Thus the values are less clustered at faster rates. This probably suggests that the force dynamics of the articulators are tuned in such a way that it is more or less executed in a subconscious, automatic manner when compared to that of the slower rates of speech. A change from a normal speaking rate (160bpm) of speech may bring about a relatively more conscious control of movement subroutines, which in turn gets reflected in form of changes in force dynamics of the articulators. Thus the effect of longer VOT values at slower rates (80bpm) may probably be explained using this reasoning.

Also to understand this difference, the results were inspected with reference to the 'Target undershoot Model' by Lindblom (1963). This model predicts more spectral, temporal reduction in fast rate of speech than in normal rate of speech. Hence the articulators are said to miss the ideal target position by 'undershoot'. This will explain the reducing VOT values moving from slow to fast rate of speech.

Another important finding which was obtained from the results was a statistical significant difference between genders for both voiceless and voiced stop consonants when rate of speech was controlled. In previous studies, that have examined male and female differences in VOT have not controlled speech rate (Ryalls et al., 1997; Swartz, 1978; Sweeting & Baken, 1982; Whiteside & Irving, 1997, 1998; Wadnerkar et al, 2006). Thus when speech rate was controlled there was gender differences for VOT.

The analysis showed that VOT for productions of voiced and voiceless plosives, male speaker produced voiced and voiceless stop consonants with a longer VOT interval than female speakers. The results were consistent with data from previous studies by Allen, Miller and De Steno (1985). Contrastingly, results were obtained from Robb et al (2005) found that the female produced significantly longer VOT's for voiceless stops. Thus they concluded that the differences that they observed were sex-based rather than speech tempo-based.

Conclusions

Rate of speech is one of the factors which contribute to the variance in the articulatory movement. The western and European studies have probed into acoustical changes in VOT with speaking rate. From the results of the present study, it can be concluded that changes in acoustical duration of VOT for speaking rate result from changes primarily in dynamic specification of gesture of articulators. Hence there is reduction in the VOT from 80bpm to 240bpm for both voiced and voiceless stop consonants for Kannada language and consistent with the previous studies and also gender differences were noted for VOT when speaking rate is controlled.

Clinically the researchers need to watch for the variations in VOT of the individuals occurring due to the influence of speaking rate. There is some need to note the gender differences for VOT; one should control rate of speech. The results need to be supplemented with kinematic analysis which will enrich our knowledge of speech motor control. Also, the obtained data can be employed in developing algorithm for speech synthesis and speaker identification. Further studies can be done with increased large number of participants using other speaking rates.

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**A Comparative Study on the Efficacy of Two Different Clinical
Language Intervention Procedures**

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Maya Leela, (Speech & Hearing)
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Introduction

Delays in language acquisition are one of the most prevalent disabilities in early childhood. It has been documented that 70% of 3 to 5 year old children with developmental disabilities have language delays (Wetherby & Prizant, 1992). Language deficits beginning in early childhood can have ripple effect throughout the child's life. Not only do language deficits place children at risk for academic failure (Blank,1988) the lack of functional communicative skills also places children at risk for social failure in their interaction with peers (Rice,1993), for the development of dysfunctional relationship with their families (Embry,1981) and at increased risk for developing behaviour disorders (Goetz & Sailor,1985).

To remediate these deficits early on, widespread training is needed for early interventionists and parents regarding various effective intervention practices (Warren 2000, Wolery & Bailey 2002). Building support for children's development in the early stages of life may help to alleviate

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learning and behavioural problems as the child gets older (Calandrella & Wilcox, 2000).

Over the past three decades, numerous studies have been conducted to develop and examine different treatment procedures to enhance the communication and language development in children with disabilities. A majority of experimental research documenting treatment effectiveness are based on evidence based practices (Schwartz, Carta & Grant, 1996).

This impressive body of research provided a framework for a developmental model fostering language development and this model supports the use of different treatment approaches at different stages in a child's development. However, recent evidence has demonstrated that some teaching strategies by themselves may not be sufficient to ensure optimal language outcomes (Warren & Yoder 1997).

Most preschool language intervention approaches have focused on the direct teaching of new lexical and linguistic skills as a means of improving child's functional communication skill. It has been assumed that as children's formal linguistics skills improved in the training setting, their functional communication in everyday environments would also improve. But this assumption has not been well supported by empirical research (Costello, 1983).

Traditional and Naturalistic approaches are used by interventionists to facilitate language and communication in children with disabilities. Traditional language intervention is typically conducted in a speech therapy room and is highly structured by the therapist (Fey, 1986; Sundberg & Partington, 1998). The therapist selects the stimulus items to be used during intervention sessions, divides the language target skills into a series of independent tasks and presents these in a series of massed trials until certain criterion is met. The child is often provided with an arbitrary reinforcer combined with praise.

Naturalistic teaching follows the child's lead in terms of the interest and provides a "natural reinforcer" (Sunderberg & Partington, 1998). The reinforcers delivered in naturalistic approach are considered to be more functional in relation to the child's response. To address the need for language intervention in the child's natural settings, including the classroom and home, a number of related natural language teaching procedures have been developed. These include Incidental Teaching (Hart & Risley, 1975), Milieu Language Teaching, Mand Model (Rogers, Warren, 1980; Warren & Rogers Warren, 1984) and Time delay approach. (Halle, Marshall & Spradlin, 1979). Taken together, these procedures might be termed as naturalistic teaching.

Hart and Risley (1975) characterized incidental teaching as the interaction between an adult and a single child, which arises naturally in an unstructured situation such as free play and which is used by an adult to transmit information or give the child practice in developing a skill.

In mand model procedure the main focus is given to child's interest and demands a response from a child. This procedure was found to be highly effective for children with very low rates of initiation. (Rogers- Warren & Warren, 1980; Warren et al., 1984). Time delay procedure is defined as nonvocal cues for vocal language. The trainer identifies a situation in which the child wants an object or assistance and then waits for the child to make a response.

Incidental teaching, the mand model procedure, and the time delay technique have been combined with other strategies to encourage child language in natural environments (Alpert & Kaiser, 1992; Hart & Rogers-Warren, 1978). Hart and Rogers-Warren (1978) termed this approach as milieu language teaching". Kaiser (1993) defined milieu language teaching as "a naturalistic conversation based teaching procedure in which child's interest in the environment is used as a basis for eliciting elaborated child communicative responses. Naturalistic language teaching approaches have been increasingly viewed as the treatment of choice for children at risk or children with developmental disabilities (Noonan & McCormick; 1993 Tannock & Girolametto, 1992).

Naturalistic language teaching has been compared to more traditional therapist directed language approaches to language intervention, such as discrete trial training (Fey, 1986; Spradlin & Siegel, 1982; Sundenberg & Partington, 1998). There has been consistent evidence that didactic instruction to teach formal language skills do not result dependably in increased use of functional language. McGee, Krantz, and McClannahan (1985) reported that naturalistic promoted greater generalization of new language skills, more across people and settings than did a more traditional trainer directed approach. Similarly, Miranda a -Linne and Melina (1992) found that children are likely to generalize the new language skills following naturalistic teaching. However, traditional intervention has proved to be effective in improving the initial acquisition of new linguistic forms (Carr & Kologinsky, 1983; Kaczmarek, 1990) but failed to promote better generalisation of those skills.

Child language therapy in India has closely followed the developments in western literature which leads to many questions of efficacy of this treatment. By nature the service delivery is primarily done by parents as co therapists who favour more naturalistic approaches. Significant studies of efficacy of these approaches have not been reported. One way of looking at this is to compare the gains achieved by children on using different comparative approaches. Such data will be the beginning of evidence based practice research.

Need For This Study

Naturalistic approach such as milieu technique has been found to be effective for improving child's functional communication when compared with traditional approach. In the Indian context major share of language therapy in children with delayed speech and language is done by

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parents. This approach primarily involves naturalistic approaches. In the recent years one to one traditional therapy approaches are also becoming important. It is important to understand the efficacy of these approaches for effective implementation of language therapy. Such comparative studies are significantly lacking in Indian context. This study attempts to fill one such gap in the efficacy research.

Aim

- 1) To compare the outcomes of language therapy when two methods-traditional and milieu approaches used in two groups of language impaired children.
- 2) Indirect aim is to create awareness amongst speech language pathologist (SLP) regarding evidence based practises in therapy.

Methodology

Participants

12 language impaired children (6 children with autism and 6 children with mental retardation) were participated in the study. Participants were selected from clinical population and were randomly divided into 2 groups, Group A & B having 6 children each. The target children in Group A and Group B were selected for language intervention based on Milieu and Traditional approaches respectively. The children ranged in age from 3-5 years but language participated development wise were in the range of 14-28 months, and their severity varied from mild to moderate mental retardation. 6 post graduate speech and hearing students and parents (all mothers) of these children also participated in the study.

Table: 1 Details of child- participant characteristics (subjects)

Sl number	Age (yrs)	Sex	Condition	Years attending speech therapy	Language Age
1	3.6	M	MR	7 months	14-16 months
2	3.9	M	AUTISM	5 months	12-14 months
3	4.4	F	MR	1 year	20-22 months
4	3.3	M	MR	5months	16-18 months
5	4.6	F	AUTISM	6 months	24-28 months
6	3.9	M	MR	7 months	14-16 months
7	3.10	F	AUTISM	6 months	20-22 months
8	3.8	F	AUTISM	4 months	16-18 months
9	3.11	M	AUTISM	6 months	26-28 months
10	3.7	M	AUTISM	7 months	18-20 months
11	3.3	M	MR	6 months	18-20months
12	3.11	F	MR	10 months	20-22months

As can be seen from table 1, the age of children ranged from 3.3 to 4.4 years, Autism & MR was primary causal factor for language delay in 6 children each. All were attending regular speech & language Therapy for 4 months to 1 year duration. All parents were motivated to participate in the study. Overall language levels in subjects ranged in 14 to 28 months, as measured based on REEL scale expression. The group can be considered cohesive and comparable.

Settings and Materials

The groups A and B received language therapy based on milieu and traditional approaches respectively. A number of goals such as, makes request, appropriately responds to communication interaction, initiate and maintains communication interaction were selected to improve the Childs functional communication and these goals were similar across the groups.

The toys and materials were selected on familiarity and relevancy to language therapy goals..

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The Traditional intervention was conducted in a one to one setting in a therapy room, where the therapist and the child were the only participants. Each session was controlled by the SLP along with the selection of an independent task.

The milieu approach based therapy was provided in a wide hall (16'X16') with space for play activities. A variety of milieu teaching strategies such as child cued modelling; mand modelling and incidental teaching were used as key components. The child, SLP and parent were participated in activities while seated on the floor on a mat.

Administration and Scoring

SLP's individually explained about the method of therapy and the targets for therapy in detail, to the parents and their full cooperation was provided. A pre therapy evaluation of child's language was conducted. The 2 intervention approaches were then implemented and continued for 8 weeks (40 sessions).

Each session was monitored twice weekly followed by a discussion session. A functional communication checklist which consists of 30 parameters (Adopted from A Language Resource Packet, 2003; Tensee Department of Education, USA) was used to assess each child's pre and post functional communication skills. Five SLP's validated this checklist.

Pre and post data for functional communication of both the group were collected through observation during a 30 minute semi structured play activity. Each play activity was repeated for three days and was video recorded. The video recorded samples were analyzed and observations were confirmed about the ratings of all 30 parameters of the checklist. The parameters are listed in table 2

Statistical Analysis

Data was analyzed using paired t-test to compare the changes between pre and post.

Results

Results of the pre and post functional communication skills for Group A (Milieu approach) revealed highly significant differences for almost all the parameters except for few parameters like, Responds to questions with "yes" or "no" and expresses recurrence as shown in Table 2.

Table2: Mean, Standard Deviation (S.D) and t' values of the parameters in functional communication checklist for children in Group A

Parameters	Group A (Milieu approach)	Mean	S.D	't' Value
1	Pre	1.29	0.61	4.16**
	Post	2.14	0.53	
2	Pre	1.43	0.76	3.68**
	Post	2.14	0.66	
3	Pre	0.71	0.83	4.83**
	Post	1.57	1.01	
4	Pre	0.57	0.76	4.19**
	Post	1.5	0.94	
5	Pre	0.86	0.77	2.12NS
	Post	1.29	0.99	
6	Pre	1.36	0.74	1.57NS
	Post	1.79	0.80	
7	Pre	0.79	0.80	2.11NS
	post	1.14	0.86	
8	Pre	1.29	0.91	1.24*
	Post	2.07	0.73	
9	Pre	0.79	0.69	2.46*
	Post	1.29	0.91	
10	Pre	1.14	0.86	2.59*
	Post	1.79	0.98	
11	Pre	1.07	0.83	2.62*
	Post	1.85	0.86	
12	Pre	1.5	0.65	2.12NS
	Post	1.93	0.73	
13	Pre	1.00	0.78	4.37**
	Post	1.71	0.91	

14	pre	1.14	0.66	2.48*
	Post	1.57	0.75	
15	Pre	1.14	1.03	2.62*
	Post	1.93	0.83	
16	Pre	0.58	0.65	1.47NS
	Post	0.86	0.95	
17	Pre	1.21	0.69	3.23**
	Post	1.93	0.73	
18	Pre	1.14	0.86	5.49**
	Post	1.93	0.69	
19	Pre	1.36	0.63	2.93*
	Post	2.09	0.99	
20	Pre	0.43	0.65	1.8*
	Post	0.86	0.77	
21	Pre	0.36	0.63	3.29**
	Post	1.14	0.86	
22	Pre	1.00	1.10	0.21NS
	Post	1.07	0.99	
23	Pre	1.14	0.53	4.2**
	Post	2.00	0.88	
24	Pre	1.36	0.74	3.2*
	Post	2.07	0.62	
25	Pre	1.79	0.69	2.51*
	Post	2.36	0.84	
26	Pre	1.00	0.88	3.22**
	Post	1.64	0.84	
27	Pre	0.57	0.65	3.29**
	Post	1.14	0.86	
28	Pre	1.57	1.08	0.16NS
	Post	1.64	0.84	
29	Pre	1.36	1.03	2.62*
	Post	1.93	0.83	
30	Pre	0.93	1.14	6.51**
	Post	2.00	0.61	

Note: NS –Not significant,*-significant at 0.05 level, **-significant at 0.01level.

Significant improvement were observed in 23 parameters namely, eye gaze, gesture, physical

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manipulation, vocalisation ,facial expression, sign language, verbalisation, gains attention of people within environment, express activity choice, provides greetings, express physical condition, express feelings, responds to name call, follow simple commands with verbal clues ,maintains communication interaction, turn taking behaviour, terminates communication interaction, appropriately responds to communication interaction, make requests, expression rejection, responds to questions with yes or no, express recurrence, expresses finished or all gone, answers basic questions, asks question and follows simple commands with visual cues showed mark able differences. However, differences in 7 parameters like expresses needs with in an activity, express comments and anticipates familiar routines were not significant.

Table 3: Mean S.D and t’values of the parameters in functional communication checklist for Group B (Traditional approach).

Parameters	Group B (traditional approach)	MEAN	S.D	‘t’ value
1	Pre	1.21	0.58	2.4*
	Post	1.86	0.86	
2	Pre	2.6	0.51	1.17NS
	Post	3.0	0.94	
3	Pre	2.5	0.70	0.21NS
	Post	2.6	1.34	
4	Pre	1.07	0.92	3.1*
	Post	2.29	1.14	
5	Pre	2.6	0.52	1.14NS
	Post	3.1	1.29	
6	Pre	2.6	0.52	0.29NS
	Post	2.5	0.97	
7	Pre	2.5	0.70	1.96NS
	Post	3.4	1.26	
8	Pre	2.8	0.63	0.20NS
	Post	2.9	1.45	
9	Pre	2.9	0.74	0.00NS
	Post	2.9	1.10	
10	Pre	2.9	0.57	1.04NS
	Post	2.5	1.08	
11	Pre	2.3	0.82	1.66NS
	Post	3.0	1.05	

12	Pre	3.1	0.74	1.12NS
	Post	3.5	0.85	
13	Pre	2.9	0.74	2.18*
	Post	3.6	0.70	
14	Pre	2.0	0.00	1.00NS
	Post	2.3	0.95	
15	Pre	2.2	0.79	0.47NS
	Post	2.4	1.07	
16	Pre	1.9	0.32	1.73NS
	Post	2.8	1.62	
17	Pre	2.5	0.53	0.26NS
	Post	2.4	1.07	
18	Pre	2.5	0.85	0.23NS
	Post	2.4	1.07	
19	Pre	2.5	0.85	0.00NS
	Post	2.5	0.97	
20	Pre	3.1	0.86	0.66NS
	Post	2.8	1.14	
21	Pre	1.5	0.70	1.66NS
	Post	2.2	1.13	
22	Pre	1.4	0.52	1.90NS
	Post	2.2	1.23	
23	Pre	1.2	0.42	1.9NS
	Post	1.6	1.07	
24	Pre	1.2	0.42	0.89NS
	Post	1.5	0.97	
25	Pre	1.7	0.95	1.20NS
	Post	2.2	0.92	
26	Pre	1.7	0.95	1.20NS
	Post	2.2	0.92	
27	Pre	1.21	0.58	2.4*
	Post	1.86	0.86	
28	Pre	1.36	1.08	1.39NS
	Post	1.79	0.80	
29	Pre	1.14	0.95	2.5*
	Post	2.21	1.19	
30	Pre	1.5	0.65	2.12NS
	post	1.93	0.73	

Results of the functional communication checklist for the children who received traditional intervention showed significant differences in five parameters like eye gaze, vocalisation, gains attention of people with in environment, respond to name call and follows simple commands with visual cues. Most of the other parameters like gesture, physical manipulation, facial expression, sign language, verbalisation, etc.

Parameters like eye gaze, vocalisation, gains attention of people with in environment, respond to name call and follows simple commands with visual cues did show a mark able difference in both the groups.

Parameter like Facial expression, express needs within an activity, expresses comments, anticipates familiar routines and verbalisation were failed to give significant changes in both groups.

Discussion

The present study examined the efficacy of milieu and traditional intervention with respect to child's increased use of functional communication skills. Few studies have suggested that the linguistic environment of language impaired children is different and non-conducive for language learning. (Buium, Ryders &Turnure,1973; Marshall, Hegrenes, & Goldstein,1973; Wulbertet al,1975). Keeping this in mind the linguistic environment of language impaired children was improved through optimal natural setting during intervention. The result suggests that milieu approach is an effective language intervention strategy in terms of its primary within treatment setting and generalized effects.

The children who underwent intervention based on milieu approach showed an increased use of target language and functional communication skills across settings and conversational partners. Similar findings were documented by Alpert & Kaiser, 1992; Warren & Gazdag; (1990) & Peterson et al, (2005). Children who received traditional language intervention did not show marked difference in their functional language use. Studies done by McClannahan (1985) and Sundenberg & Partington, (1998) also reported the similar findings.

However, it was noted that there was a slight increase in language content for children who received traditional intervention. It shows that the therapist directed traditional approach is more favourable for the initial acquisition of language content, but failed to promote the child's functional communication skills. Evidences yielded from the studies of Carr & Kologinsky, (1983) & Kaczmareck (1990) also support these findings. However the length of time required to learn the target skills were varied across subjects in both the groups which may be due to individual differences and pathology variation. It is indicative that incorporating effective elements of both the approaches and paying attention to individual variability may hold high

clinical significance.

Conclusion

From the present study it is clear that milieu approach have a positive effect on improving the child's functional communication skills. This study has a major implication that the language intervention setting should be similar to child's usual environment and also attempt to use stimulus and reinforcers that are related to child's everyday activities rather than more therapist directed approaches. This has to be further generalised across settings and conversational partners.

Limitations of the Study

- 1) More rigorous measurement may be employed.
- 2) Parental participation needs to be objectively controlled.

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Dilemma of Usage and Transmission - A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Dhundi-Pahari in Pakistan

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Abstract

Dhundi-Pahari, commonly known as Pahari, is an indigenous language of the people of Murree and its adjacent areas in Pakistan. It, being a minority and regional language has the same kind of threat from Urdu and English as is evident in the case of other minority languages of the world vis-à-vis powerful languages.

There is a growing reduction in the transmission of Dhundi-Pahari to the coming generations. Even the family domain which is supposed to be the last powerful citadel of language is being under tremendous pressure.

In order to judge this phenomenon, a sociolinguistic study was conducted and through open ended interviews, it was found out that not only was Dhundi-Pahari threatened but also the attitudes of the indigenous speakers were diverted to other powerful languages like Urdu and English. Transmission of Dhundi-Pahari to their children seems to have become their least priority.

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The present study concludes that serious efforts are needed to enliven Dhundi-Pahari language and motivate the indigenous population to adopt their native language as a cultural asset for them. (The paper is partially based on a section of my Ph.D. thesis and is submitted with modifications and additions from the large corpus of interview data).

Language Distribution in Pakistan

Pakistan has rich treasure of indigenous languages. According to Ethnologue Languages of the World 16th edition, there are 77 languages in Pakistan. Out of these 72 are indigenous languages (Lewis, 2009). Most of the population consists of bilingual, trilingual or multilingual speakers. A common phenomenon is that each person has one indigenous language which is his/her mother tongue whereas Urdu is the second language for them. Then at school they are supposed to learn English and other world languages such as Arabic, etc.

Pakistan comprises of different cultural, religious and linguistic groups which call for their own individual identity and the linguistic identity is one major source of creating social groups.

Attitudes of Various Classes toward Language Use

Urdu is the lingua franca of Pakistan and is spoken or understood by almost every Pakistani. It is also the national language of Pakistan. Pakistani society is divided into different classes. The affluent class favours speaking and learning English for their toddlers as compared to Urdu and other regional languages of Pakistan. This class which prefers English to other smaller languages is the elite class (Rahman, 2006a; Mahboob, 2002). The members of this class are educated and trained in elite English medium schools. This class usually occupies positions of importance and influence in the bureaucracy and enjoys the perks of civil service and politics. They are trained to rule the majority population or, in other words, Urdu medium masses.

Urdu medium is a term used in a derogatory sense to refer to the backwardness of Government schools as compared to English medium schools (privately established English medium schools) which symbolize high standard, knowledge and sophistication.

English is an official language of the country. It is also the language of the superior services examinations. People from the elite class, mostly trained in elite English medium institutions, qualify for higher posts and, as a consequence, a dichotomy is created among the segments of population.

The condition of the smaller and minority languages in Pakistan is not good and they may not prosper in future as these languages are not granted the appropriate status to expand their domains of use and grow. The rich heritage of the indigenous languages is being ignored and the

so-called sophisticated and cultured languages like English and Urdu continue to prosper and expand their domains of use.

The Plight of non-Urdu and non-English Pakistani Languages

The social and economic class system in Pakistan has introduced a class system among the languages of Pakistan. The middle class focuses on Urdu and to some extent English for educational and official use. The elite class focuses only on English, whereas the lower class has no option but to speak and learn through its own native mother tongue.

The regional and indigenous languages are stigmatized in such a way that their users do not generally like this stigma to be associated with their children. Therefore, the transmission of indigenous languages has declined to a considerable level. Schools also play their role in divorcing the learners from their mother tongues. Consequently the indigenous languages do not appropriately pass on to the future generations and in this way the languages tend to disappear from the scene.

Shift from One Language to Another

According to Holmes (1992), shift from one language to another language might take three to four generations but, sometimes, it takes only two generations. This normally happens with migrants who are generally monolingual in their mother tongue; their immediate descendants are bilingual, while their grandchildren are often monolingual in the language of the host country.

Krauss (1992) states that almost half of the total languages spoken in the world are not being transmitted to the next generations. An additional 40 percent may be in danger as the number of children learning them is decreasing. The remaining 10 percent of the world's total languages are relatively safe.

Dorian (1982) believes that economic and social factors are responsible for language shift. A language does not lose its prestige as long as these two factors are favourable to it. If any other language excels in getting the status and value in these two fields, the shift to that language would be natural.

Medium of Instruction Controversy and the State of Indigenous Languages in Pakistan

As stated above, English is basically the medium of instruction in the elite and privileged schools in the present day Pakistan as it was in vogue during the British control for the exclusive purpose of creating an anglicized class to safeguard British rulers' interests in the colonies (Rahman, 2005). Lord Macaulay specified the same in his Minute of 1835 where he talked about the significance of setting up a representative class, English in their behaviour and Indian in their

colour and origin (Thirumalai, 2003). They ultimately succeeded in designing such a class and, with that class, the English language turned out to be the symbol of status and a symbol of superiority in the Subcontinent. This had been accomplished through the elite English medium institutions.

Two Kinds of Educational Institutions in Pakistan

In Pakistan, there are fundamentally two kinds of educational institutions—English medium schools and non-English medium schools. The English medium schools are of three types —

- i. State-influenced elitist public schools or cadet colleges,
- ii. Private elitist schools, and
- iii. Non-elitist schools (Rahman, 2005).

English is the medium of instruction in the elite schools which prepare an elite class to rule the country as it was planned by the British colonizers (for details, see Thirumalai, 2003). In the non-elite schools too the medium of instruction is English but these schools are at miles distance in performance, style and quality from the first two types of elitist schools. These non-elitist English medium schools found in every nook and corner of cities, towns and villages are crowded by the children belonging to the middle class and upper lower class parents who are ambitious about the education of their children. The rest of the downtrodden send their children to Government schools. English, being an official language of Pakistan, occupies all domains of power -government, bureaucracy, military, judiciary, commerce, media, education and research and knowledge of English promises bright future, security, prestige, and recognition (Rahman, 2005:1). It is consequently, the desire of the parents to invest for the education in English.

The Power and Authority Rest with Two Languages in Pakistan

According to Rahman (2006b) the power and authority is captured by only two languages—English and Urdu. English, being the language of the colonizers, is the symbol of power, authority, manners, sophistication and precisely everything which is noble and great. Urdu is the second most powerful language. On the other hand indigenous languages having no support from the political quarters are becoming the symbol of shame and are being devoured by the powerful languages (ibid). Rahman (2005) discusses the consequences of this policy by the successive governments and analyses the attitude of the indigenous language speakers towards their mother tongues. Mother tongue which should basically be an asset for the native speakers has become a liability for them in Pakistan

Dhundi-Pahari Community and Language

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Pahari/Pahari-Potwari/Dhundi Kairali or Dhundi are the names of the language used by its speakers alternately without change in meanings. Generally, the community members use 'Pahari' as a common name. The name is given after the names of the two majority tribes—Dhunds and Kairals living in Murree and adjoining areas.

Dhundi is the name derived from Dhund which is the name of a tribe also called 'Abbasi'. The major population of Murree, Gulyat and Circle Bakote comprise Dhund Abbasis. Dhunds also live in majority on both sides of the river Jehlum from Kahuta to Muzaffarabad and in the Bagh district in the part of Kashmir in Pakistan (Awan, 2006). 'Kairal' is the second largest tribe in this area. Besides these two majority tribes, there are many different tribes living in this region (Alvi, 2006).

Besides the majority tribe, i.e., Abbasids, other tribes also have their settlements in and around Murree. These include: Satti, Dahnial, Kathwal, Jascomb, Awan, Gujjars, Mughals, Sadaat, Rehmani, Kashmiri, Balti, Poonchi and a very few migrated from India. (Abbasi, 1985; Kashmiri, 2006). Majority of the population lives in villages and Abbasids constitute the major portion of the population of Murree. Education rate has been very low especially among the women. However, in the last three decades or so, the trend of education for both the sexes has increased enormously. As a result there is a mushroom growth of private English medium schools even in the villages. The parents desire to give modern education through Urdu and English to their children. They seem to have realized that their past insular life pattern was of no use and that they should give exposure to their children.

Dhundi-Pahari makes its continuum with Western Punjabi in the south and Hinko in the north and the north western part. Murree, Kotli Sattian, Gulyat and Circle Bakote are the places where it is principally spoken. Although it is not possible to draw a line to show the difference in language distribution in categorical terms, yet the above mentioned areas are considered to contain the Dhundi-Pahari speaking population. Usually the censuses do not cater to record the varieties and dialects but their focus is primarily on broader definitions of languages (Romaine, 1995:27).

Position in Census Reports

According to the Census of Pakistan 1998, the population of the areas where Dhundi-Pahari language is spoken is around 440,000. This estimate has been made by the researchers by calculating the population of the areas where Dhundi-Pahari is spoken because the censuses of Pakistan have never considered it as a separate language. It has been included under the umbrella term *Landha* which means Western Punjabi. Karnahi (2007) objected to the views of Grierson and discussed the characteristic features of Pahari language and culture. In Pothohar region which includes Rawalpindi, Kahuta, Gojar Khan and Taxila, a slightly different form of Pahari is used which is called 'Pothohari'. In the part of Kashmir in Pakistan, up to Neelam valley, its

variant is called Poonchi and in Mirpur and Kotli it is called Pahari, Pothohari and Mirpuri. Alvi (2006) observed that different varieties of this language are spoken from Islamabad to Naran and from the eastern bank of the Hazara Highway to the western banks of the Jehlum River. The central variety being spoken in Murree and its surrounding areas, the language merges into Pothohari and Poonchi varieties in the South and East respectively whereas to the North and the North Western areas it merges into Hindko language.

Before Partition in 1947, the people of Murree used to depend much on their land produce and livestock. They would also dislike leaving their hills. They lived an insular life (Robertson, 1895; Kashmiri, 2006). But after independence, they started finding jobs and turned to cities for livelihood. With better economic conditions many people shifted to Rawalpindi and Islamabad for better education and economic opportunities.

The trend to spend three months of winter in the hired houses in the twin cities, i.e., Rawalpindi and Islamabad, has also increased in the recent past. The major sources of income are Government jobs, hotels and other minor businesses.

Language Preference of Three Age-Groups

The present study investigates the language preference of three age-groups belonging to both urban and rural areas. Moreover, the study tries to throw light on the dilemma of indigenous population regarding learning and transmitting Dhundi-Pahari. The suspense among the population in deciding whether they should learn and use Dhundi-Pahari or focus on other languages is the pivotal point of discussion in this paper.

Research Methodology

This paper is the outcome of the ethnographic fieldwork which lasted for a few months.

Ethnography is a tool through which one can comprehend the inner working of the minds of the people and what they say through their interviews. Ethnography basically acts as a source of interpreting the unique things in culture (Ember & Ember, 2009:1). It is basically exploratory in nature and might demand the presence of an ethnographer in the field for a long time (Neyland, 2008).

In my fieldwork situation, I had to observe the use of Dhundi-Pahari language but it was not possible until I had in my mind the Urdu and English language as well because these two languages had cast a great impact on the local languages like Dhundi-Pahari. As each language has its own culture in its background, the study of language becomes a kind of cross cultural study and this kind of study cannot be carried out without ethnography (Ember & Ember, 2009).

I used participant observation as a technique and participated in twelve families. I interviewed 78 people across the gender and age group. I being a native speaker of Dhundi-Pahari knew the way people behaved and how they could be involved in discussion. Therefore, I chose to interview the representatives of three generations.

Secondly, I divided my field into two parts, i.e., the rural area and the urban area. I did that to collect the data from the two different sections of population. In the rural areas, the education rate is very low and the people living there have a few resources of income. Whereas, in the urban areas, people are more educated, have more resources of income than their counterparts in the rural areas. It was my observation that language decline phenomenon was more functional in the urban areas. I therefore, decided to collect data from both rural and urban areas to understand the real situation.

Description and Division of Interviews

The people who participated in my in-depth interviews were 78 in number including the urban and rural area. Primarily, it was conducted to see the people's attitude towards the use of Pahari and their willingness to adopt Pahari as a subject and course of study. Moreover, it was meant to see if the indigenous population wanted to transmit it to the coming generations. So it was, in a way, an attempt to measure the inner liking or otherwise for Dhundi-Pahari language. This, I supposed, would expose the future linguistic vitality of the community members.

I fixed the following criteria for my participants: age 10 to 20 children's generation, 21 to 50 parents' generation and 51 and above grandparents' generation. I justified the division of generations according to the average ages of becoming parents and grandparents. I did not include the children below 10 years of age because they could not explain fully what they were asked.

I selected only those people who could spare some time and who were ready to be interviewed. I interviewed them only when I received informed consent from the members of the families.

The purpose of these interviews was to elicit the opinion of the people living in this part of the world about their language and how and why they may or may not want to learn and transmit it. I recorded their views on paper. Such long sessions could not be tape recorded and later it would have taken a lot of time to transcribe the materials. So, I took notes and noted the interesting comments to be used in my analysis.

Use of Data for This Study

In the present study I limited myself to 15 excerpts from the corpus of interviews. I discussed these representative excerpts separately to infer the overt and covert desires of the community members to adopt or discard their native Pahari language.

I was not much concerned with the quantitative aspect of their responses but I was focused on the feelings towards Dhundi-Pahari language and how they would like this language to be taught in schools.

Analysis

Results from Rural and Urban Areas

The study showed considerable difference between the rural and urban samples and views about Dhundi-Pahari and Urdu. Pahari is maintained in the rural areas by and large, but, with the increase in education and income, people have developed a liking for Urdu and English. In the excerpt below a parent from rural area expresses his feelings of shame if he were to speak Dhundi-Pahari with the guests. (The excerpts have been transliterated using broad transcription.)

Excerpt 1

mi ki nai Urdu ashni, hain, Pahari bolnian lok ka akhsan, (I don't know Urdu, do I? what would be the comments of the people when they would listen to my Pahari).

The informant is ashamed of speaking Urdu because he has not learnt it as mother tongue. Now he is not confident to speak Urdu. To him, Urdu is a language which could give him respect while Dhundi-Pahari could be a disgrace factor for him. He is conscious of the impact of public opinion. This shows his feelings of inferiority complex regarding the use of languages. Use of Dhundi-Pahari does not make him confident in the society. In order to be confident, he badly needs at least Urdu, if not English. When I asked his wife about her mother tongue she said:

Excerpt 2

pahari tan hab-e-kusay ki ashni, sara bolnai, ma Urdu vi boli kinni aa (Everybody knows pahari, Everyone speaks it, I can also speak Urdu).

I have noted during my interviews in the countryside that women are not primarily satisfied with Dhundi-Pahari and they had a latent wish to speak Urdu. This is common phenomenon among the parent and children generation whereas the grandparent generation had different views about Dhundi-Pahari and Urdu.

An old man who had been a mason by profession said:

Excerpt 3

Pahari ye sikhai asna, hor ka sikan a, Urdu na fashion tan hon aaya (We have been taught Pahari, there was nothing else to be taught, the fashion of speaking Urdu started just now).

Grandparents almost had the same description of Dhundi-Pahari and Urdu. They were observed looking down upon Urdu and especially English. *Abbasi* tribe had been very instrumental in waging a war against the occupied English forces in Murree. They still have traces of hatred for them, their language and their dress. To them everyone who wore jeans or had a haircut was not good at all. But, still contrary to this attitude, they are found appreciating the English for their justice and fair play.

A Family Situation

I happened to interview a couple who were school teachers and had almost the same level of education. Both had an almost different perspective about Dhundi-Pahari and its teaching. The man said in Dhundi-Pahari:

Excerpt 4

Pahari honi chaha ni. Is ni lor e assa ki, (Pahari should be there, it is needed here).

He shows his commitment to promote Dhundi-Pahari language. But the fact is that he and his wife brought up their three children monolingual in Urdu. They tried to protect their children from Pahari language. This is how he disguised himself in the garb of a language activist.

When I asked his wife about her views regarding Pahari and Urdu she said in Urdu:

Excerpt 5

Hamain Urdu ko apna bachu ko sikhana chaia, ye qaumi zaban ha aura dab ahtiram wali zaban ha (We should promote Urdu language which is our national language and a language of manners).

The wife starts speaking Urdu despite the fact that she can easily speak Dhundi-Pahari. This is partly because of the shame that she feels in speaking Dhundi-Pahari and partly because of the fact that she wants to show herself as an educated person. Although, she tries to speak Urdu, she is unable to get rid of the Dhundi-Pahari accent. During the interview, I felt that she was unaware of her Dhundi-Pahari accent. In this excerpt there is one very interesting statement which I heard from different people and that focused on the *societal-behavioural value* of Urdu language. This

lady, like many other people, believes that good and polished manners are attached to the use of Urdu language. Throughout the Subcontinent, this presumption is easily discernible. During the conversation she also said in Urdu:

Excerpt 6

Pahari bolna wala bachun mai tameez nai hoti (The children who speak Pahari do not behave properly).

This statement again shows the attitude of the community members towards Pahari. These kinds of statements are often heard in one way or the other where the mother tongue is degraded as the language of the uneducated and ill-bred people. When I interviewed a school teacher who was teaching in a local English medium school, she expressed the same kind of views:

Excerpt 7

ma to Urdu hi bolti hu apna bachu sa, kyu ka ye unka future ka masla ha, aur English bhi jo aati ha bolti hu. (I converse with my children in Urdu, because it is a matter of their future. I also converse with them in English whatever I know)

It appears from her speech that Dhundi-Pahari is a stigmatized language. She prefers to speak English with her children in tune with the growing significance of English in this world and she openly expresses her views regarding this. Urdu is the national language of Pakistan and it has its recognition as the language of communication among the different speakers in Pakistan. She does not find enough utility in Dhundi-Pahari to be taught to her children.

Abrupt Shift Between Generations

It is observed that there is an abrupt shift from the grandparents' generation to children's generation and we hardly see Dhundi-Pahari speaker in the children's generation in the urban families. Even in the rural households Dhundi-Pahari is losing its ground. When I asked a parent from a rural family why they were not transmitting Dhundi-Pahari language to their younger generation he said:

Excerpt 8

“Ussa Pahari sikhi ta assai kah faida va, ajai tori sahih Urdu nai bolan honin, nikka han ussani dekhi te hasnai, main aanan yan jay unnan nain bacchay unnah ki dakhi ten nan hasan te tan ja o kemyab hon dunya wich” (We learnt Pahari but it didn't give us any benefit, I can't speak correct Urdu even up till now, children laugh at our Urdu, I

want them not to be laughed at by their children and moreover, I want them to thrive in the world).

This statement by a father shows his disenchantment about Pahari language. He is conscious of the fact that his Urdu is influenced by Dhundi-Pahari accent and that is why he becomes a laughing stock. He realizes that it is his fault that he did not have good command on Urdu and its accent. When I asked this question to many other persons, some of them were surprised to know that I was talking about Dhundi-Pahari as a language. Especially the word ‘learning’ was strange for them to use with a “language” like Dhundi-Pahari. One female parent who speaks Urdu with her children says:

Sikkhnain ni ke gal e Pahari wich, ya anwain ye acchi gacshni, (What is special about Pahari to be learnt, it is automatically acquired).

Although, Dhundi-Pahari was learnt by all the parents in the rural setting, some of them are not in favour of transmitting it to the coming generations just because they think that it has no utility in the world vis-à-vis economic and social status.

It is generally observed that Dhundi-Pahari is spoken to the grandparents and parents’ generations more often than the children’s generation. But when we see the generation of children, people tend to speak Urdu especially if the children are below ten years of age. Most of the people have some skill to talk to children in Urdu. During my observation, I have noticed that if a child belongs to a poor family and his physical appearance shows that he is not well off, people tend to speak Dhundi-Pahari with him showing as if this language is worth his status. It is also implied that it is the language of the poor and the downtrodden people. This attitude bears out the observation that Urdu and English are associated with class, sophistication and good breeding (Rahman, 2006a). Even a small girl talked about her grandmother’s language:

Excerpt 9

“dadi amma ko Urdu aati hi nai ha, her waqt Pahari bolti rahti hai aur kehti rahti hain nikkio dand na karo (Grandmother doesn’t know Urdu , she always keeps on speaking Pahari and chides us not to make noise’).

This statement shows that children who are taught Urdu feel that Urdu is a superior language and that their grandparents must be wrong when they speak Dhundi-Pahari. The way the granddaughter associates a negative comment for her grandmother’s choice of Dhundi-Pahari describes the overall attitude of the family members towards Dhundi-Pahari.

The people, who were taught Dhundi-Pahari in their childhood, were asked if they were satisfied that Pahari was taught to them as a first language. This question brought very significant

comments from the interviewees. Around 80% of the total sample said that they were satisfied while 20% said that they would have been more satisfied if Urdu or English had been taught as a first language. But I also noticed that, from among the people who showed satisfaction, some were, in fact, not in favor of Dhundi-Pahari, but they tried to show their loyalty with their culture by asserting that they were in favour of Dhundi-Pahari language. A male grandparent from one of the urban families said:

Excerpt 10

“ya sari pio daday ni zuban i, khandani aadmi pio daday ni cheeza ki na satna” (It is the language of our ancestors and a person with decent family background does not at all throw away the things of his forefathers).

This grandfather lives in the city with his sons and grandchildren but he has not approved of the norms and fashions of city at all. I found him talking about his rural house and all about their rural culture. He did not like his son and daughter-in-law to speak Urdu with their children. He knows that Urdu is compulsory in schools but, according to him, it should not be compulsory in the homes. He complains in the following words:

Excerpt 11

nikkian ki kakh wi pata na je grain ni zidagi kie jai honi assa unna ki gora banana a (Children do not know at all about the life of the village, (Satirically) we are to make them like the English).

This is a harsh criticism of a grandfather on the course of action adopted by his son and daughter-in-law to teach Urdu and English to their children. He is worried that children will never be able to know about their culture. Grandfather was not against learning Urdu and English. He considered them to be the languages of employment and power in the world but he was in favour of additive multilingualism instead of exclusive Urdu monolingualism or Urdu and English bilingualism.

Feeling of Superiority

I also noted that, though the people did not out-rightly oppose Dhundi-Pahari as I saw in the urban side, there was still a feeling that people who learnt Urdu and English were superior to others and that they should also teach Urdu to their children so they might not face many problems in life. Most of the female participants voted in favour of Urdu instead of Dhundi-Pahari. I observed that female parents were more cautious and eager for the education and training of their children as compared to the male parents. Therefore, they wanted their children to learn modern languages.

Lack of Awareness of the Consequences for Dhundi-Pahari Language

I observed from the attitude of the families that they did not understand the gravity of the situation regarding the future of Dhundi-Pahari language. They did not generally realize that Dhundi-Pahari language would be lost if its status remained the same and if the attitude of the parents did not change and shift in favour of its use in the domains of family, social communication and education. I tried to elicit their understanding of this situation, but what they believed that Pahari would definitely be learnt by their children whether they used it in their homes or not. So, they thought that they should go for much better options instead of banking upon a language which would automatically be learnt by their children from the society. While those who favoured the transmission of Dhundi-Pahari said that Urdu would be learnt by the children automatically as it was spoken in the school premises. So, according to them, they should transmit their native language to their children.

An opinion of a male parent from the rural area is very interesting. He says:

“jara lok bacchian nal Urdu bolnai te nal Englosh na wi lafz bolna, me unnan e dakhi te koft honi, nikkay na idhera jogha rahna ten a uthera joghe, adha titter adhe batair”
(I feel deep anguish to see people speaking Urdu with the addition of English words to their children. In this way children develop no proper command on any of these languages).

He used two proverbs, one from Dhundi-Pahari and the other from Urdu. Both proverbs meant that when someone tried to be like two persons, he could not be like any one in totality. But apart from this kind of feeling from some parents, a general tendency in favour of Urdu language emerged during the last two decades. From participant observation I noticed that Urdu with English lexical items was considered as a sign of sophistication and better etiquettes in some families. I have seen parents feeling embarrassed when their son or daughter spoke Dhundi-Pahari or code switched from Urdu to Dhundi-Pahari. In one such situation, a father asked his wife to take the little boy away with her (the boy began to speak in Dhundi-Pahari) on the pretext that the boy was disturbing the progress of interaction. In fact, the use of Dhundi-Pahari in the child's speech was an embarrassment to him, although, to me, it was very natural because the grandparents of the children were Dhundi-Pahari speakers. So, the use of Urdu was not only for its economic significance but also for its social prestige in the society.

This clearly indicates how people want the use of their ethnic first language to be restricted within the four walls of the house.

The rate of 'no' to Dhundi-Pahari usage and transmission is pretty higher than the 'yes' response. This happens when a language loses social and economic motivation behind it.

In this situation where there is no apparent utility left with a language, people tend to reject it and finally it is thrown out of the home domain too. Dhundi-Pahari in the urban area is already at risk and, among those who are the mother tongue speakers of Pahari, almost 69% are not in favour of this language to be encouraged in other domains.

Women and Dhundi-Pahari Use

When I asked a mother from the urban area she said in Urdu (English translation is given):

Excerpt 12

“They may speak Pahari and they do sometimes speak it, but that doesn’t mean, we should leave out other languages like Urdu and English. If the children keep speaking Pahari in places outside their home, how will they learn Urdu and English? They must speak Urdu as much as they can, this will make them good, respected and intelligent student in the society.”

The reason told by this mother explains the psyche of the urban people regarding language use. In the rural areas, I interviewed a mother who also expressed the same kind of sentiment, using different words:

Excerpt 13

nikkay her jaga Pahari bolsan , schoola wich , bazaara wich , rishta daran wich, te lok keh akhsan ke innah ki ka wi nannai sikhaya, parhaya. (How people would criticize, if children start speaking Pahari everywhere, in the school, bazaar, etc., with the relatives. People would think that we haven’t taught and trained them.)

I found women most conscious of the “danger” of Dhundi-Pahari and its so called effects on the personality and nature of children. It is almost equal to exhibiting bad manners for their children if they use Dhundi-Pahari in domains outside their home. I have also noticed that, even in the home domain, Dhundi-Pahari may be generally used by the children only with the family member and if it is considered a great insult if Dhundi-Pahari is spoken to a guest. During my observation, I noticed that women tend to ask their children to speak in Urdu with me.

Lack of Utility as an Important Reason

Dhundi-Pahari is not included as a subject in schools in Dhundi-Pahari speaking areas of Murree and surroundings. Upon my inquiry regarding Dhundi-Pahari as a subject in schools, people

were almost at a loss what to say in response to it. The ratio of “no” was very high. Most of the people didn’t want it as a subject in schools. One mother whose son was in class 8th said:

Excerpt 14

“Pahari na subject nah hona chaina, bacchian opper pehlian a boht boj a , Urdu , englosh, arbi... Pahari na faida ya ka a”. (The children are already overburdened with subjects like Urdu, English, and Arabic, what is the utility of Pahari?)

She, like many others, raises the question of the utility of Dhundi-Pahari in daily life and career, which is not very high at present. Some people expressed their pleasure to hear that Dhundi-Pahari could be introduced as a subject. People usually believed that it was useless to spend time on Dhundi-Pahari. According to them, there was no scope of Dhundi-Pahari in the economical, political and social fields. They were already studying three or four languages. When I asked them if Dhundi-Pahari were offered as a subject in the schools, would they persuade their children to study it, they were again disturbed. Those who appreciated the idea of Dhundi-Pahari as a subject were embarrassed when they were asked whether they would recommend it to their children. The following excerpt explains this phenomenon.

Excerpt 15

Yo buccian upor bhoj a iski parhi te bacchay ka karsan (It is an extra load on the children, what will the children do if they learn it.)

The above excerpt suggests that people as a whole don’t like Dhundi-Pahari to be taught at schools. Only 20% of the interviewees (including the participants from three generations) were interested in the Dhundi-Pahari language as a subject in school. In the urban area, only 12% said that Dhundi-Pahari as a subject would be a very interesting thing for their children. It is ironical that while some people professed to be supporters of Pahari, in practice they didn’t want to support its development. The reason according to them was largely economic.

Dhundi-Pahari language did not guarantee success as it was not the language of the government or offices. It was not a lingua franca either. So, the participants mostly disliked its teaching at the cost of Urdu and English.

Some participants deemed it an extra burden on the shoulders of children. Among both rural and urban participants, I noticed the negative attitude towards Dhundi-Pahari as a subject in schools. Almost 80% participants voted against the idea of persuading their children to study Dhundi-Pahari. Most of them laughed at this idea as if this language was not worth being a part of the syllabus.

Some other participants had the same kind of views put in different words. They were more critical of the system of education which had ignored important science education. This question opened up the very psyche of the participants about Dhundi-Pahari language.

Conclusion

The study concludes that the decline of Dhundi-Pahari language is obvious as its speakers are shifting to Urdu. There is a strong possibility that after a generation or two it will breathe its last and will be replaced by the dominant language such as Urdu and to some extent Punjabi and English. The study investigated the social experiences of the members of the Dhundi-Pahari community regarding the usage of language and how they developed a sense of disregard for their native language. Most of the people talked about their native language in terms of its future utility for their children in the economic field. Moreover, they felt some shame to speak Dhundi-Pahari mostly for social and economic reasons. However, some grandparents and parents show their interest in its maintenance and revitalization.

There is also clear difference in the levels of competence in Dhundi-Pahari use among the three generations. In the children's generation, there is a great reduction in the use of Dhundi-Pahari which is a threatening sign. In the urban areas, Dhundi-Pahari is more endangered as compared to the rural areas where it is maintained to a great extent.

The participants of the interviews seemed to avoid Dhundi-Pahari as a subject in school. Even those who advocated the use of Pahari in the homes did not, in general, support its teaching in school.

People did not seem to understand that the native language learning would help them in learning other languages besides broadening their mental horizon. Some people objected to the teaching of languages any more. They believed that science education was the order of the day; therefore, the teaching of languages should be stopped. According to them, one or two prestigious and international languages should be taught.

The study also found that the people, whose children did not speak Dhundi-Pahari well, were proud of that.

The study concludes that the negative impression of the Dhundi-Pahari language should be reduced by an awareness campaign which should focus on the importance of the cultural assets and cultural artifacts. Though the people who have a negative attitude toward Dhundi-Pahari do not want to pass Dhundi-Pahari on to the coming generations, they may be educated to understand the significance of their native language and how it could give them benefits. The people of this community are famous for their commitment to their culture and traditions. Despite this fact, the disowning of Dhundi-Pahari by the native community does happen.

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Teaching Beyond the Regular Curriculum

Rajesh Bojan, M.A., M.Phil.

Introduction

This paper attempts to explore the importance of teaching beyond the regular curriculum with special emphasis on adopting communicative and cooperative learning strategies.

Learning a second language has become unavoidable particularly in the case of English. No matter to what speech community, to what society one belongs to, there is every chance that one may face English. In every walk of life we choose, whether education, business, travel, etc., it has become an essential requirement to learn English. The concept of learning English as the second language is not novel. Much work has been done. The complexity and challenge involved in teaching English as a second or foreign language has kept this field still active and interesting.

In spite of a long list of teaching approaches and methods, the innovations and improvements have not yet helped totally to overcome the difficulties in the acquisition of a second language. No doubt that every method, old or new, promotes second language learning to some extent. However, the problem lies with the fact that how well these approaches and methods are being utilized. It is also evident made clear that adhering to any one single method is insufficient to fulfill the requirements of every learner.

Importance of Practice

Language learning is like driving a vehicle, once the basic things are understood no more theory is necessary, for what is then needed is practice. Through proper practice one gains mastery and becomes an expert. The more one practices the better his performance. When learners have unlimited exposure to practically learn and use the target language it does more than what theoretical teaching could do. It does not matter how many hours we teach them, what really matters is that how much they are made to speak. It is only through their attempts and reattempts, their ability of communicating can be charged up.

Let Us Not Blame the Methods!

It is high time that we should stop blaming the language teaching methods since, it is clear that none of these methods has been disregarded. We would have made no where without the influence of one method over another. Every stage has been a key to move further and explore. These methods whether traditional or modern when used accordingly to the accurate purpose, appropriate situation and right audience they have never proved ineffective. Early Instructional methods like Grammar-Translation, Audio lingual are still being widely used today.

We are to blame both the teachers and learners for their lack of interest and effort particularly in Indian educational context. Some teachers are not even familiar about these language teaching methodologies, and those of whom who know little are not clear with the application of such theories. There are exceptionally few teachers who are trained to deal with such language difficulties in the language teaching classrooms.

Need to Re-focus

Moreover, in educational institutions in India teachers primarily devote their time for the completion of the curriculum rather than to worry about what they could do to develop the learners' communicative ability. The curriculum has no more than one or two subjects that are meant for language training (in some cases not even one). It is this inadequacy and the result of insufficient practice which has paved way for the learners' inability to attain the communicative competence in spite of years of formal education.

Teaching Beyond the Regular Curriculum

The field of second language teaching has experienced innumerable changes. Every suggestion, every incorporation, every modification, best or worst, has been successful in shaping the area to an acceptable level. Without these research findings, experiments and turning points it would have been impossible to reach the present state.

For the success of any course, a well designed curriculum is a must. Unless we possess a little understanding of things like learner levels and requirements, their expectations, learner difficulties, time length, objectives, authentic materials and methodologies, it is, indeed, difficult

to design a suitable curriculum. In this way an effective curriculum takes several things into consideration. It depends on 'what is needed.' The curriculum has to be planned and designed.

Communicative Approach

Many language teaching professionals around the globe are trying to make the curriculum as much communicative as possible. After the introduction and influence of the communicative approach, it has become a fashion to integrate activities that would trigger interaction. Not only it is important to make our curriculum communicative, but it is also necessary for us to maintain and monitor its effectiveness regularly. It is important that we make the learning process go beyond the subject matter. That is, we should concentrate on 'extra-teaching' especially with the objective of developing communicative skills of the learners.

Specifically with the teaching situation associated with the educational institutions in India, where teachers manage to devote the entire time for the curriculum alone, reaching out to matters beyond the regular curriculum has become a must for shaping our learners well-suited for the competitive world. Stuffing the knowledge without creating any opportunities that would provide the learners to enhance their communicative capability is useless. The approach and method that enable our learners to apply the techniques they have learnt successfully out in the real world under any circumstance are superior to mere subject teaching.

Situations in the Real World

Situations are not readymade in the real world, they are 'on the spot' activities. When the case is such, learners should be capable enough to handle them boldly, comprehend them properly and respond successfully. Learners should understand that language is not just communication it is but proper communication. So, it becomes necessary for the teacher to train the learners to the best of their ability by providing ample real-life situations side by side with their regular teaching. Deviating from the curriculum may sometimes appear disturbing considering the time factor, so as an alternative if sixty percent of the curriculum may be designed to meet the communication aspect it would literally prove very effective. To make this practically possible we can rely on Communicative language teaching and Cooperative language learning methods through which it is much easier to develop the interaction level of the learners. These methods are well-suitable for all types of communicative exercises. We shall now see concisely about these instructional methods and examine how well they facilitate interaction among the learners.

Communicative Language Teaching Approach

The concept of Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a remarkable turning point in the history of language teaching. It is only after the arrival of this revolutionary notion the entire aspect of communication met with a change. The words of Brown (1994:77) clearly express this need and shift as follows:

Beyond grammatical discourse elements in communication, we are probing the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language. We are exploring pedagogical means for 'real-life' communication in the classroom. We are trying

to get our learners to develop linguistic fluency, not just the accuracy that has so consumed our historical journey. We are equipping our students with tools for generating unrehearsed language performance 'out there' when they leave the womb of our classrooms. We are concerned with how to facilitate lifelong language learning among our students, not just with the immediate classroom task. We are looking at learners as partners in cooperative venture. And our classroom practices seek to draw on whatever intrinsically sparks learners to reach their fullest potential.

This shift was very much needed because the output of both Grammar Translation and Audio lingual instructional strategies were unsatisfactory in the sense that they failed to concentrate on the communicative aspect of the learners. It was the time when the knowledge of grammar was considered to be mandatory to master a language, until it was properly realized later that a mere grammatical knowledge is insufficient in enabling learners' communicative capacity.

It was argued that learners learn a language through the process of communicating in it, and that communication that is meaningful to the learner provides a better opportunity for learning than through a grammar-based approach. [CLT Today, Jack C. Richards]

Here is how Lightbown and Spada (1999: 172) define CLT:

CLT is based on the premise that successful language learning involves not only a knowledge of the structures and forms of the language, but also the functions and purposes that a language serves in different communicative settings.

It is clear that communicative competence is favoured in place of grammatical competence. The idea behind CLT has attracted many and has come up to a state where this approach has been implemented all over the world making it an unquestionable success. According to David Nunan (1991:279) the five basic features of CLT are:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

Activities in CLT mirror real-life situations. It is by introducing varieties of activities the teacher creates an interesting and interactional environment on which the learners could operate on their own and communicate in meaningful ways. It is important that the teacher always maintains his role as a facilitator, a motivator and as a participant also. Initially, while conducting activities it becomes necessary for the teacher to encourage the learners to speak more and build confidence in them. Learners could learn better only if there is a proper communicative purpose in an

activity. Hence, it is essential to use apt activities in the classroom. The following exercises serve as a sample of how a communicative activity will look like:

The Reporting Exercise

In this activity, the teacher instructs the learners beforehand to observe any real-life situation. It could be a meeting, a function, a public speech or any other event. Once the learners are done with the observation, the teacher may direct the learners to deliver their oral-report individually. In order to facilitate easier communication the teacher might write out some general questions concerning the activity on the board.

1. What is your event about?
2. Who was the speaker?
3. What did he say?
4. What were the things discussed in the meeting?
5. What did you learn?

After each presentation, the teacher could initiate a general discussion among the learners regarding the report. If the reports are interesting it is possible to notice more interaction in the class.

The Teaching Activity: (A kind of role-play)

In this activity the teacher is supposed to tell the situation clearly and briefly like this:
Students, I am going to present to you a situation now: Person A is a man who wants to learn driving so he meets person B who is the driving instructor. Make out a conversation between the two and enact it as realistically as possible.

In the beginning it is good to introduce such simple activities. In this way, the teacher could provide variety of situations so that it would be exciting as well as interactional. The most important thing to note is that the teacher should never allow the learners to communicate in any language other than the target language. When it appears to the teacher that the learners have picked up confidence and control over their language he might move on to teach them how to appropriately use the non-verbal expressions. Likewise, it is vital that the learners also learn and master the presentation skills in order to excel in their communication.

Cooperative Language Learning

While CLT is flexible to different settings and situations, cooperative language learning method on the other hand is extremely fit for any type of group interaction. The beauty of this method is that it provides an opportunity for the learners to work in groups, communicate one to one and help each other to understand the subject creating an opportunity to learn,

- a) How to work in groups
- b) How to cooperate within a group
- c) How to communicate within a group

d) How to work together to achieve the goal

CLT and CL have almost dismissed teacher-to-students learning model replacing it with student-to-student language learning. The activities that come under CLT and CL instructional methods are not teacher dependent and teacher controlled. Teacher is only a facilitator and learners take control of the entire learning process. Thus, it is known to be learner-centered models of language learning.

What makes cooperative language learning special is that its capability to create a friendly atmosphere making the learners to share their ideas and intentions without any fear and need of working alone. In such a condition, the learners understand that each member of the group has the responsibility to contribute their share for the success of their group. Such a chance of combined effort reduces the risk of feeling the differences existing among the learners as they work as a team.

Cooperative learning helps students feel successful at every academic level. In cooperative learning teams, low achieving students can make contributions to a group and experience success, and all students can increase their understanding of ideas by explaining them to others (Featherstone, 1986).

Additionally, Cooperative language learning also makes the group process a pleasant experience in which the relationship among every member of the group is not competitive but cooperative in nature. The success of the group rests on every member making the learners to realize that each of them are unique and it is their collective knowledge that counts under a cooperative learning condition.

There is much difference between ordinary group works and cooperative learning groups. To understand what makes cooperative learning different, it is essential to comprehend the five elements of cooperative learning as suggested by Johnson and Johnson (1984):

1. **Positive Interdependence:** Every member of the team must depend on one another in order to achieve success.
2. **Individual Accountability:** In cooperative learning, each member contributes his/her share for which they are held accountable.
3. **Face to face (Promotive) Interaction:** Each member is responsible for the progression of the group. Promotive interaction makes it possible for the members to support and encourage one another so that the overall performance rate of the group is high and effective.
4. **Appropriate Collaborative Skills:** In a cooperative learning condition it is necessary for the learners to practice and master leadership, decision making, manage interaction, conflict management and trust building.
5. **Group Processing:** The ability to monitor and modify things whenever necessary for the proper functioning of the group is important. Ability to identify and rectify the problems is the responsibility of every member of the group.

Activities in cooperative learning similar to communicative language teaching places focus on interaction. In a cooperative learning situation learners work together in heterogeneous groups to accomplish their common goals. Listed below are some sample activities that could be made use of in a cooperative learning situation.

The Reading Activity

Once the selection and separation of groups are over, the teacher might assign various topics to each group. The topics could cover things like essays, poems, novels etc. The teacher should instruct them group-wise to read the assigned topics and present them as a group. This type of activity not only enables to share a lot of information but also promotes more interaction in the classroom.

The Short-Film Making Exercise

This is an interesting activity in which the groups are supposed to perform and stage a short film that could last for five or ten minutes. First, the group must take charge of selecting a theme that could be performed. Once the selection of theme is done, the group members could assign the required character roles among themselves and start practicing using a simple script. Once they are satisfied with their performance the group could make use of someone to video-tape their final performance before staging it up. When it is over, the group could display their film in front of the other groups. This activity is not only interesting but also enables the learners to learn to interact, cooperate, make suggestions, act, decide and evaluate themselves.

Conclusion

While the task of learning and mastering a second language could be lengthy and time consuming, it is very obvious that the complexity of the task can be reduced if proper language learning steps are undertaken. With what has been discussed above, it is clear that if we may try to incorporate as much as practical exercises beyond the limits of the curriculum, it would be really possible to produce effective communicative capability among the learners. The amount of additional teaching has to be specifically focusing on training the learners' target language development. Under such an opportunity, the learners have high chance of boosting their communicative performance and academic quality as well.

The above suggested two instructional methods, namely CLT and CL, are suitable for such an objective. There is no doubt that learners when taught under the exposure of communicative language teaching and cooperative language learning strategies, would definitely attain the communicative competence. It is my strong belief that learners exposed and trained under such communicative conditions would pick up the target language extremely well at which point it would also be possible for them to overcome all sorts of learning difficulties.

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**Claustrophobia in Anita Desai's *Cry, The Peacock* -
"From Defeat to Disaster"**

Deepti Chauhan, M.A., Ph.D.

Claustrophobia

Claustrophobia is from the Latin word *claustrum* which means "shut in place." In *Phobias: A Handbook of Theory*, it is defined as: "It is the fear of having no escape, and being enclosed in. It is typically classified as an anxiety disorder and often results in panic attacks."

Obviously, it is an irrational thought. The mind makes a connection that small spaces equal danger, the body follows mind's cue. Resultantly, a person floods with physical symptoms of anxiety – leads to the irrational fear about a certain situation. As it is triggered by a certain situation, it can also be termed as 'situational phobia'.

A person suffering from this condition responds in certain ways: sweating, accelerated heart beat, nausea, hyperventilation and most importantly - a fear of acute imminent physical harm. The cause for this is either rooted in bad childhood experience or, as Lisa Fretscher (2009) describes, it may be due to "warping of an evolutionary survival mechanism."

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Deepti Chauhan, M.A., Ph.D.

Claustrophobia in Anita Desai's *Cry, The Peacock* - "From Defeat to Disaster"

Claustrophobia - Neurosis in Anita Desai's Novels

Anita Desai's novels can be examined as the manifesto of female anxieties, woes, sufferings and panic. She remains more concerned with sensations, thoughts and emotions. Her characters are not types but they are individuals. According to N. Sharada Iyer, her characters are solitary beings - "who have retreated or driven into some extremity of despair, and so turned against or made to stand against the general current of life." (258)

Moreover, Gajendra Kumar defines: "Desai's themes, characterization and images deal with confinement and lack of freedom." (3) This leads the character towards cabin fever and ultimately towards obsession neurosis which we can depict from her maiden novel *Cry, The Peacock*.

Troubled Psyche in *Cry, The Peacock*

Readers are shocked by the neurotic behavior of Maya - the protagonist. Anita Desai plunges to the depth of the queer psyche of Maya and tries to "... discover, and to underline and convey the true significance of things." (240-241) - explains Devika (2004). These are the things or situations that can never be understood on the surface level. Anita Desai brings forth the hidden and dormant impulses of Maya's Mind that brings her closer towards the obsession of killing her husband.

Flashback Narrative Technique

The story in the novel is described through the flashback series of Maya's mind. By this way, writer becomes successful to bring forth the problematic labyrinth of her protagonist's mind. Maya is presented as an over seized pest feeding on a tender leaf. She is a highly sensuous person who believes in the unity of mind and body, self and society. She is a hypersensitive woman. Before her marriage, she is like a toy-princess for her father. She describes her father "...like a silver oak himself, with his fine silver white hair brushed smoothly across his bronzed scalp" (20-21). Her father loves and cares for her. When there becomes something wrong, he soothes her with love and care. She recalls:

"As always happened to me, it was after my most anguished moments that a piece of truth fell into my exhausted mind- the truth [...] my gentle father who would have said to me.... 'it will all be well soon, Maya.' " (59-60) She describes her childhood days in fascination: "The world is like a toy specially made for me, painted in my favourite colours , set moving to my favourite tune" (36). But after her marriage, Maya's life is a complete change. On one hand, Maya is a 'creature of instinct' (16). On the other hand, for her husband reality '..... and idealism are one and the same thing' (20-21).

Pressure of Marriage – Growing Up to Meet the Challenge of Marriage

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Claustrophobia in Anita Desai's *Cry, The Peacock* - "From Defeat to Disaster"

From the beginning of the novel, she remains under the pressure of her marriage with Gautama - a middle aged man with a super intellectual sensitivity. This rational approach leads Maya towards isolation. The queer psyche of Maya is peeled off by different circumstances. She is an oversensitive lady who yearns for: “the peace that comes from companion life alone, from brother flesh. Contact, relationship, communion ...” (18) - these are her main priorities in life.

As a young girl, she desires to love and to be loved in return. But, “Gautama’s coldness disappoints her” (3). Her longing for conjugal love remains unfulfilled because of her husband’s insensitive and frigid behaviour. She remains physically starved. She never gets the sexual satisfaction from her husband. One day, when they returned from party- Maya goes to Gautama in a happy mood, But she finds him sleeping. She comes back to the room silently and thinks :

“A pink carnation bound in a red rose, both lifeless now, buried with the deeds and dust of the evening ... like all the rest of the deeds of which I had thought of speaking to Gautama ..., and now seeing them as tainted with fatality. Fatality-fate, Fate- fatality. I fingered the flowers sadly, and felt much like them as my self-bruised and tired, not quite of today.”(81)

Frustrations in Marital Relations – Sexual Starvation

She wants to do the love trifling with her husband. Her husband does not take care of her wish. She becomes frustrated with not achieving them. Her anguished soul once burst out:

“But then he knew nothing that concerned me. Giving me an opal ring to wear on my finger, he did not notice the translucent skin beneath.....telling me to go to sleep while he worked at his paper she did not give another thought to me ,to either the soft, willing body or the lonely wanting mind that awaited near his bed.” (9)

This unrequited love derives her crazy. As a young girl, she craves for the wild satisfaction during their discourse. Her inner-being suffers a lot when she couldn’t achieve them. Her torn self is shown through her fit of turmoil. She thinks crazily remaining sexually starved: “Fall, fall, gloriously fall to the bed of racing rivers ... Horrid arms and legs tentacles thrashing, blood flowing, eyes glazing. Storm-storm at sea at land! Fury. The wanting run...run and hide if you can miserable fool (180-181). She tries to tell this to her husband but all goes in vein.

When Maya asks her husband about the matter of love - he starts discussing about Yogis and Gita and ridicules her desire of making love. He mocks at her without realizing her passion and demand for love. He tells her that she has the mistake attachment of love.

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Loneliness – Emerging Hysterical Self

This stolid and philosophical speech puts Maya in the shell of loneliness. She couldn't achieve soothing and emotional consoling, love, care and above all understanding from her husband. To add to this, she remains a childless woman. It increases her miseries. Condemned to live a life of emotional, mental and spiritual loneliness, Maya's whole life is converted into hysterical self.

Till the very end she wishes from her husband to be understood: "I was overcome with a desperate timidity begging him once more to answer to come and meet me halfway, in my own world... Had he done so, all might have been quite different. But he didn't." (198) Instead, never be able to understand her psychology, he always leads her unconsciously towards panic and anxiety disorders. To combat over his feeling, he rebukes her: "you are a grown woman now, Maya, no light-hearted child. You must now allow yourself to grow ..." (76-77)

Responses of Husband

This insensitive behaviour of Gautama brings her closer to the engaged lonely shell. Day by day, the humiliating neglect of her husband leads her towards 'nausea'. She feels engaged in her-in-laws house. He cannot see Maya's desperation from life. She broods: "His coldness and incessant talks of cups of tea and philosophy in order not to hear me talk and talking reveal myself. It is that my loneliness in this house." (9) Gautama's cocooned shell of intellectuality leads Maya towards "... a repeated and droll harping on the isolation of the self." (253) (Swain 1999). She herself confesses the effect: "I ceased to hunt then, ceased to plan... for I found myself alone... after all." (57)

Gradually, her angst corrodes herself. In the way of life, her spirits gets crushed by the intangible affairs. She finds herself unable to snap these ties. She longs to activate her life little bit. She wants to go outside to see Kathakali Ballets in Bombay. She wishes to Gautama: 'I want- I want [...] to see Kathakali dances.' But her husband thinks it a stupidity. His behaviour is lackadaisical when he refuses this idea:

"If that is your only reason for wanting to go all that way South, I suggest you wait till a Kathakali troupe comes to give a performance in Delhi..." (42-43) wish get smothered again. This present condition of being stored in a place, as Shubha Tiwari explains: "hunts her to the brim of insanity" (244).

Beginnings of Hallucination

Unoccupied, lovelorn and instinctive, Maya starts hallucinate the things. She also starts believing them hysterically. She becomes accustomed to shadows as if they are the

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people in the world. she admits : “ once upon a time it had been a world peopled with friends as solid, as now shadows were to me...” (51).

When the novel starts, she had already reached to that stage of mania. She had also started thinking about the prophecy of albino astrologer that after four years of her marriage, either she or her husband would die. In this condition, she wants to get relief. She recalls her father who in the condition of any problem had always been strength to her. She mentions this to Gautama: “I wish I could see father again. It always helps.” But rather understanding, Gautama puzzles out : ‘Helps what? Whom?’ Hearing this Maya reflects: “Without realizing what he had done, Gautama had laid his fingers and mine upon the fatal vulnerability of what I had believed in like a fond fool.”(53-54).

N. Raj Gopal (1995) finds:

“Maya’s tragedy is mainly caused by her loneliness, lack of proper response from her husband, non-reciprocation of feelings between the husband and wife, her childlessness and hyper sensitivity” (20).

None to Communicate With – Going Insane

To add to this, there is no one to whom she can tell. She knows that she is becoming insane. She feels frustrated with her own thoughts: “yes I am going insane. I am going further and further from all wisdom, all come I shall soon be mad, if I am not already. Perhaps, it is my madness that leads me to imagine that horoscope that encounters with the albino, his predictions, my fate? Perhaps it is only a phenomenon of insanity.”(53) Knowing this she tries to adjust herself through engulfing into the theory of fatalism given by her father. Her father says that she must accept things as they are. She tries this to impose upon her thoughts: “I should be sane again, and in the daylight I should know all this to be nothing but a fulgurant nightmare. Should I not?” (54).

But instead of recovering, the situation becomes worst: “wherever I laid myself, I could think only of the albino, the magician, his dull, opaque eyes ... it seemed real, I could recall each detail and yet-God, Gautama, father, surely it is nothing but a hallucination” (54).

Hysterically, a red-volcano subsided in her changed into situational fever of death. Thus “...shadows and shadows were... a richer and a more refined one... who now constantly look behind to see where purple ghost of albino followed on silk-swathed oil softened feet” (55). She tries to explain this to her husband. But he remains uninterested. Frustrated, Maya scolds him: “You were bored? Bored? Didn’t you feel anything more? Can’t you feel anything except boredom? You weren’t stifled in that house?”

Solitary Confinement

But Gautama wishes to combat the indiscipline: “If a man were to react...by bursting in to tears, Maya, no court of law would consider him sane...” It creates disturbance in her mind. She argues with her husband but he simply asks: ‘Were you that miserable?’(58-59). Without any understanding from her husband, she suffers from this metaphysical anguish, a tragic sense of loss that leads her towards solitary confinement, reluctance to face reality and last of all to the stage of ‘claustrophobia’. She turns into a mental wreck in the process. She remains lost in her-self for a long time. Gautama pointing to it once says:

“‘Still sitting there? You have not stirred out? Have not lifted a book, your sewing? Nothing at all? But this is madness, Maya.’

‘Madness!’ I screamed, leaping at him to strike him, to stab him... and began to cry hysterically.” She starts hallucinate the prophecy during walking sleeping hours. Day dreaming, night mares and constant fears of death bring her closer to situational phobia. She starts floating in the bizarre world of human imagination. She recollects about the prophecy: “It was now to be Gautama or I.” Unconsciously, she wishes her husband to be dead. She remains restless all of the time. She knows that she can never sleep in peace. She gets entrapped “...in the net of the inescapablethis net was no hallucination , noI could force myself believing that was only a night mare, no more but, in the night , under the stark gaze of the moon , in that wanting silence , my memories came to life ... I knew them to be real ...” (84). She eagerly wants to understand the prophecy of the astrologer and turns to “language.... ‘Of hierograph [which she had] once known. The moon supplies her the answer: “in the end, it was not the stars which told me, but the moon ... It was not the gentle moon of love-ballads and fairy revels ... but a demoniac creature ... phantom gone berserk trying to leap the threshold of my mind” (27). In the last she has to pay the price of her sanity. She has unrest in her mind. She wishes ‘let me sleep ... there is no rest more – only death and waiting” (84). She wants her husband to be dead instead of her sanity. Her hallucination about the death of her husband leads her towards the killing of her husband Gautam.

A Fit of Frenzy

In a fit of frenzy, she pushes her husband over the edge of roof:

“Gautam! I screamed in fury and, thrust out of my arms towards him, out at him ,into him and part him , saw him fall then ,pass through an immensity of air, down to the very bottom.” (208)

To conclude

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In this way, as Dodia (2000) defines, this "... is a journey from defeat to disaster that Maya, the protagonist, is shown to undertake in *Cry, the Peacock*" (27). Claustrophobia is imposed on Maya because of her husband's insensitivity. One wonders why in the first place Gautam got married at all. Gautam is *the* claustrophobia imposed on Maya. It was received and further developed and accentuated by the matrimonial relations. One also wonders why Maya did not do her best to extricate herself from her this cold relationship. Was it the social convention that stopped her from taking this step, or was it that Maya, like most Indian women, hoped against hope that one day Gautam will change and show his love to her?

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Code Mixing and Code Switching in Tamil Proverbs

V. Geetha M.A., Ph.D.
B. Kamatchi, M.A.

Abstract

Code mixing and code switching are common multilingual phenomena. These phenomena occur when bilinguals substitute a word or phrase from one language to another language.

In a language contact situation, the process of code mixing, code switching and interference do take place. Code mixing is the intra-sentential switching whereas code switching is the inter-sentential switching.

Language contact sometimes occurs when there is an increased social interaction between people who living as neighbourhood and have traditionally spoken different languages. But more frequently it is initiated by the spread of languages of power and prestige.

As far as Tamil proverbs are concerned, the social variables like age, religion, social class, and education are playing a vital role to bring language changes in the old version of Tamil proverbs. Such variables are cause to bring language changes at intra-sentential level only. The process of code switching is taking place at monolingual situation among the educated person according to the social context, i.e., in formal situation. Though

many proverbs are having written form, some of them which are used in platform speech, school education etc., switching from spoken into written style.

There are two types of mixing found in Tamil proverbs, namely,

1. Mixing of linguistic elements from two different languages.
2. Mixing of dialectal forms from one dialect into other dialect.

In this paper an attempt is made to explain the types of code mixing and code switching found in Tamil proverbs and the reasons for such mixing will be explained.

Results of Languages in Contact

Bilingualism is the alternative use of two or more languages by the same individuals. The individuals involved are 'Bilinguals'. Initially most people are monolingual in nature. When needs arise, for improving their knowledge, and for purposes of communication, use of more than one language is essential to each and every one. Thus, individuals, societies as well as nations can be bilingual.

Speakers of more than one language are known for their ability to code switching and mixing their languages during communication. This phenomenon occurs when bilinguals substitute a word or phrase from one language to another language. Some linguists suggest that people code switch as a strategy in order to be better understood and to enhance the listener's comprehension. From this one can understand that the code-switching among bilinguals has traditionally been received as a strategy to compensate less proficiency of language.

In a language contact situation, one can find three types of language interaction:

1. Code mixing,
2. Code switching and
3. Interference.

Code mixing is the intra-sentential switching whereas code switching is the inter-sentential switching. Language contact sometimes occurs when there is an increased social interaction between people living as neighbourhoods and who have traditionally spoken different languages. But, more frequently, it is initiated by the spread of languages of power and prestige.

Code Mixing, Code Switching and Tamil Proverbs

As far as Tamil proverbs are concerned, the mixing of code and code switching are taking place based on certain social variables. In the case of proverbs the social variables like age, religion, social class, and education play a vital role to bring language changes in the old version of Tamil proverbs. Such variables are cause to bring language changes at intra-sentential level only.

The process of code switching in proverbs takes place in monolingual situations among the educated persons according to the social context, i.e., in formal situation. Many proverbs are now available in written form. However, some of them used in platform speech, school education, etc., switch freely from spoken to written style. As far as code mixing is concerned, there are two types of mixing found in it:

1. Mixing of linguistic elements from two different languages.
2. Mixing of dialectal form from one dialect into other dialect.

Social Variables

Many social variables influence the selection of the code. The frequency of switching and the degree of mixture depend on the topic of discourse and the level of education of the persons involved.

The rural countryside has traditionally been a monolingual (or better say, mono-dialectal) community. Within it, speech variations are prevalent and the investigations demonstrate that they are socially structured. Besides, the social variables like age, region, and religion play a vital role in language contact.

Age

The concept of code mixing is not language oriented. It is concerned more with the individual speaker's choice. Initially code mixing is possible within a sentence particularly in the nativized borrowed lexical items. It may be extended into different lexical items according to the knowledge of the native speakers in L₂.

As far as Tamil proverbs are concerned, one can notice the mixing of linguistic elements from English, Urdu, and Telugu in Tamil proverbs.

It has also been noticed that there are two kinds of English mixing in Tamil proverbs based on the factor of age.

1. Use of English words by the younger generation to create new Tamil proverbs.

2. Use of simple, familiar/nativized borrowed items of English in Tamil proverbs.

Adult

1. a) Ayyare ungkura:ra:m lingam panca:mirtam ke:kkuta:m.
While the priest is suffering for want of food, the Lord Siva asks for the mixture of banana, jaggery, ghee, milk and honey.
- b) ca:miye: **caikkiLla (cycle)** po:vuta:m pu:ca:ri **pullet (bullet)** ke:kkuta:m.
When god himself is riding only by bicycle, the priest asks for the Bullet (motorbike) to ride.
2. a) e:ma:ntavanna: erutu macca:m moRa koNTa:Tuma:m.
If a person is foolish, a buffalo would call him brother-in-law.
- b) e:ma:ntavanna: erume **e:ro:ppiLa:n (Aeroplane)** o:TTutumba:na:m.
If a person is foolish, others would tell him (and he would believe it) that a buffalo drives an airplane.
3. a) kalla:na:lum kaNavan pulla:na:lum puruSan.
Even if a husband is a stone or a blade of grass (inanimate object), he is still considered as a husband by his wife.
- b) kalla:na:lum kaNavan **full** la:na:lum puruSan.
Even if a husband is stone or a drunkard and an unworthy fellow, he is still considered as a husband by his wife.
4. a) ke:kkaRavan ke:naiya: irunta: ke:ppaila ney valiyutumpa:na:m.
If a hearer is a fool, others would tell him that the ghee will ooze out from the Ragi flour. (And he will believe it.)
- b) ke:kkaRavan ke:naiyana: irunta: villup paTam **a:sca:rukkup (Oscar)** po:vutumpa:na:m.
If a hearer is a fool, others would tell him that the cine star, Vijay's movie villu will get the Oscar award. (And he will believe it.)
5. a) pa:mpu kaTicci polaccavanum irukka:n ceruppu kaTicci

cettavanum irukka:n.

It is true that there are persons who survived even after snakebite and that there are also persons who died because of hurting slippers.

b) **cuna:mi (Tsunami)** alaiyila cikki uyir polaccavan irukka:n a:na:

cuTita:r valaiyila cikki uyir palaccavan illa.

It is true that there are people who escaped from Tsunami but those who are entrapped by girl's dress cannot escape from it.

Such kinds of proverbs are used by the younger generation, because they are learned in school as part of peer communication. They use the nativized borrowed lexical items like cycle, bullet, aeroplane, full, figure, etc., in Tamil proverbs.

Another Variety

6. naTukkut talaiyan pe:ccak ke:TTu namma polappu **Tavunaccu** (down).

Drummer life becomes dull as he thinks that the audience enjoys his music by shaking his head.

7. co:ttukku **la:TTery (lottery)** kaikku **pe:TTary (battery)** .

There no food to eat, but one still spends money on luxury things.

If a person is a bilingual, we can find the impact of another language in his or her speech. This is unavoidable. This interference takes place in all the levels of language. When two persons, who are bilingual in the same languages, interact with one another they switch over from one language to another.

As far as Tamil proverbs are concerned, the code mixing mainly takes place due to the influence of the other language spoken in the region in places like Dharmapuri, Kanyakumari and Tuticorin. Because these areas are multilingual areas some of the words from other languages are automatically used in Tamil proverbs.

Since Dharmapuri district is a multilingual area in Tamil Nadu, due to the influence of Telugu speakers some of the Telugu words like le:Tu, te:vuTu, ce:si, ceppi etc. are used in Tamil proverbs. Likewise some of the Tamil words are mingled with Telugu words forming proverbs in colloquial Telugu nowadays.

8. cukkukku mincina maruntu **le:tu**, cupramaNiyattukku mincina **te:vuTu** le:tu.

No greater than medicine than dried ginger, no greater god than Supramanian.

9. **attaka:ru viriste:** maN monta: **ko:Talu** viriste: pon monta:
If broken by the mother-in-law it is an earthen vessel, if by the daughter-in-law it is a golden vessel.
10. a:yiram poy **ceppi** oru penTli **ce:ci**.
Tell lies by the thousand and do a marriage.
11. ta_uam mincite: matam **mincanu**.
If one gets more money the proudness increasing corresponding.
12. poy con_{na} va:ykku **po:janam** kiTaiya:tu.
The mouth accustomed to lies will be deprived of even parched corn.

Code-switching

Mixing or switching of the codes is a natural linguistic phenomenon which characterizes the bilingualism and multilingualism of the speech community.

According to Hymes (1977), even in a monolingual situation, one can find code switching where a speaker switches from one variety or style to another. He claims that code switching is the alternative use of two or more language varieties of a language or even speech style.

As far as Tamil proverbs are concerned a speaker's switch can occur from one variety or style to another in a monolingual situation. In Tamil proverbs one can notice two types of switches.

1. Switches in platform speech and school education.
2. Switches across different social groups.

Switches in Platform Speech and School Education

In code switching, a single speaker uses different varieties at different times. This is, of course, the automatic consequence of the existence of registers/varieties since the same speaker necessarily uses different registers/varieties on different occasions. For example, when a person is giving a public speech to an audience, especially in political meetings,

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it has become customary and a necessity to quote any suitable proverb in such speech. The speaker switches over from standard variety to a non-standard one and vice versa according to the situation in order to make his or her arguments familiar to the audience.

Like this, in school education, certain proverbs are used as an educative element to improve the language efficiency of the students. In this case, the proverbs are taught in both spoken and written style. The followings are some of the examples for shifting the proverbial expression from spoken style to written style and vice versa.

13. ka:ttuLLapo:te: tu:ttikka. (Spoken variety)
ka:RRuLLapo:te: tu:RRikkoL. (Written variety)
Winnow when the wind blows.
14. na:monnu nenacca: teyvamonnu nenaikkum. (Spoken variety)
na:monRu ninaikka teyvamonRu ninaikkum. (Written Variety)
Man proposes but god disposes.
15. enam enattac ce:rum. (Spoken variety)
inam inattaic ce:rum. (Written variety)
Birds feather flock together.
16. neRakoTam taLumpa:tu. (Spoken variety)
niRaikuTam taLumpa:tu. (Written variety)
A full water pot is not agitated.
17. koRakuTam ku:tta:Tum. (Spoken variety)
kuRaikuTam ku:tta:Tum. (Written variety)
A water pot not full is agitated.
18. ancile: vaLaiya:tatu ampatile: vaLaiyuma:? (Spoken variety)
ayntile: vaLaiya:tatu aympatile: vaLaiyuma:? (Written variety)
Will that which was not bent at five, bend at fifty?
19. paci vanta:p pattum paRakkum. (Spoken variety)
paci vantiTil pattum paRakkum. (Written variety)
Hunger dissipates the ten.
20. pu:vo:Ta ce:nta na:rum maNakkum. (Spoken variety)
pu:vuTan ku:Tiya na:rum maNakkum. (Written variety)

As a fibre used for stringing flowers partook of their fragrance.

21. tan venat tannic cuTum o:TTappam vu:TTac cuTum.
(Spoken variety)

tan vinai tannaic cuTum o:TTappam vi:TTaic cuTum.
(Written variety)

His own actions will burn him; a false cake will burn the house.

22. ko:li miticcu kuncu ca:vuma:? (Spoken variety)

ko:li mitittuk kuncu muTam a:kuma? (Written Variety)

Will a chicken become lame if the mother hen treads on it?

The written variety proverbs are used in the educational system as well in order to improve the language efficiency of the students. In such contexts, teachers give importance to standard variety rather than spoken variety. But, in ordinary conversational situation, people switch use mainly the spoken variety.

Switches across Different Social Groups

Language maintenance is a characteristic of a monolingual community. Every speech community that speaks a particular variety of language keeps using it traditionally, and this helps identify the social groups.

Labov (1966) proposed three types of linguistic variable, namely, indicators, markers and stereotypes. According to him, a variable may act as an indicator which has an indexical value correlating with the socio-economic class membership. Such indicators are recognized by the community at large but are not subject to stylistic variation, i.e., they are relatively permanent characteristics of the speech of certain individuals and groups, which do not change from one situation to another. In the following examples from Tamil proverbs the bold items exemplify this indicator function.

23. caTTippa:nakkuLLa iruntu vanta ma:tiri **vanturuccu**

a:tta:

Suddenly when a person is suffering from fever they used to say like this.

24. eTTu:r kaTa **pa:ppa:ka** etutta vi:TTukkume: **pa:ppa:ka.**

He takes care of eight shops of others and also the opposite house.

25. a:mpuTaiya:n aTiccatukku alale: aTutta:ttukka:ri
cirippa:lennuta:n **alutuNTrukke:na:la:m**.
*I do not weep because my husband has beaten me, but because
my neighbour will laugh at me.*
26. u:rukkuta:n upate:cam **no:kkum ne:kkum** ille:.
This advice is for the society only but not for you and me.
27. kuTukkuRa teyvam ku:raiya **piccuNTu** kuTukkum.
The god, who gives will tear the thatched roof and give.
28. **tikkattava:Lukku** teyvame: tuNai.
God is the destitute's only companion.
29. talaikku vantatu talappakaiyo:Tu **po:yiTuttu**.
*That which would have gone with the head has gone with the
turban.*
30. a:mpuTaiya:n cettu **avatippaTRacce:** aTutta:ttukka:ran
akkuLile: pa:ccuRa:n.
*While her husband was dying, her neighbour thrust his hand
into the arm-pit (of the sorrowing wife).*
- 31.. **kaiyaRutuNTa:lum** kaTangka:ran cuNNa:mpu
tarama:TTa:n.
Not to give lime for an injured hand.
32. ta:Ti pattiNTu **eriyarce:** curuTTukku neruppu ke:TTa:na:m.
*While one man's beard was burning, another man asked him for
a light for his cigar.*

The phrase /vantuviTTatu/ 'it has come' is in literary style. But the same phrase became /vanturuccu / or /vantuTucc/ in the speech style of non-Brahmin communities. Like this, the phrases /po:yiTuttu/ 'it has gone', kaiyaRutuNTu 'having cut the hands' avatippaTRacce: 'while suffering' are used in Brahmin communities. The term pa:ppa:ka 'will see-they' is used in Chettiyar community. There are many dialectal features that are used in the proverbs.

Thus, the phenomenon of transferring the elements or code switching means that the cultural and social patterns and the language structure are transferred from one language into another language or one language variety into another.

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*A Phonetic and Phonological Study of
the Consonants of English and Arabic*

by

Abdulghani A. Al-Hattami, Ph.D. Candidate

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A PHONETIC AND PHONOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH AND ARABIC

ABSTRACT

Since a contrastive analysis of any two languages will give us a clear picture of the areas of difficulty that the learners of a foreign language face, the researcher, as a teacher of English as a foreign language to Yemeni learners felt that it is vitally important to contrast the two languages—English and Arabic.

As a teacher, the researcher has noticed peculiar phonetic and phonological features in his learners' spoken English. So in this dissertation the researcher has attempted a contrastive analysis of one aspect of his learners' mother tongue with that of English. The area chosen for contrastive analysis is a phonetic and phonological study of the consonants of English and Arabic.

In chapter one of this dissertation, the researcher has discussed the value of contrastive analysis between the two languages and the pedagogical implications of such a study. The chapter also discusses briefly the relationship between linguistics and phonetics and the relationship between phonetics and phonology.

The second chapter is a brief outline of the aim and scope of the study. This chapter also gives reasons for choosing Classical Arabic and Received Pronunciation as the dialects to be compared and contrasted and the factors motivating this research.

In the third chapter, since this is a phonetic study, the researcher has discussed briefly the vocal organs that play an important role while producing sounds and the classification of speech sounds.

Chapter four has been devoted to the classification and description of the consonants of English and their occurrence in different positions in a word.

In chapter five, the researcher discusses the consonants of Arabic in the same way in which the consonants of English have been described and discussed in chapter four.

Chapter six is a chapter devoted to a contrastive analysis of the two systems. The points of similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages have been pointed out. This chapter also discusses those sounds in pronouncing which an Arabic learner of English may face problems and the pedagogical implications of this study.

INTRODUCTION

Language is used by human beings for the purposes of linguistic communication. Of course, language is not the only mean of communication. Communication is quite possible without the use of the language. For example, a dog barks and informs its master of the approach of a stranger. A child cries and informs its mother that it is hungry, thirsty or uncomfortable. In both the examples we have cited above, communication does take place, but these are examples of non-linguistic communication. In this research we will deal with linguistic communication.

A language can be used in one of two ways for the purposes of communication. We either speak the language or write in it. Whether to speak the language or to write in it, we use the same language but we do not use it in the same way. On each occasion, we use a different medium. When someone says something, he uses the spoken medium of language (aural medium) and when someone writes something and shows it to others, he uses the written medium of language (visual medium).

The medium of speech is more important than the medium of writing. This is because in the history of any language community, speech comes first and then writing follows, perhaps centuries later. Secondly, any human being in any society learns to speak first and then, long after this, he learns to write. Thirdly, the medium of speech is used much more than the medium of writing as a vehicle of communication by any society, anywhere in the world. Fourthly, writing is only an

attempt to put down on paper the sounds that occur in a language, using graphic

symbols. Each letter of the alphabet of a language represents a sound (some letters represent more than one sound in several alphabets) that occurs in that language. Lastly, modern technology has contributed tremendously to the importance of speech - modern inventions like the telephone, the radio, the tape recorder and several such devices have raised several problems that are concerned with the spoken medium of communication.

Having established the importance of the spoken medium, it is not surprising to find that there is a special branch of linguistics that deals exclusively with speech. And that there is no branch of linguistics which deals exclusively with writing.

Linguistics is a systematic study of language. In fact the branch of linguistics that deals exclusively with the spoken medium of language is called phonetics. This branch of linguistics deals with the production, transmission and reception of the sounds of human speech. In the following chapters we shall look into some of these.

CHAPTER ONE

Contrastive Linguistic Analysis

1.1 General Remarks

It is a common belief that the learner's first language (which he learns in his infancy and therefore is well established in his mind) superimposes itself on the language he acquires later on in life when he attempts to learn a second language. The "foreign accents" in the second language (L2) speech of learners are the clearest support for this belief. When an Arab speaks English, his English sounds like Arabic. The learning of the new set of structures of any foreign language after the acquisition of the set of habits of the first language (L1) (mostly the mother tongue) is, therefore, bound to present problems, owing to the belief that the role of the L1 in second language acquisition is a negative one. That is, the influence of the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2, in such a way that features of the L1 are transferred into the L2, because the transfer, as Lado (1963) argues, is usually in one direction, from the native language to the foreign language or from L1 to L2.

1.2 Contrastive Linguistics and Language Teaching

Linguistics can be applied to many fields and language teaching is one of them. In this section let us briefly analyze the part played by linguistics in language teaching. Linguistic studies began in the world several centuries ago. For a long time, linguists have been looking at points of similarities and dissimilarities between

languages. Until the middle of the twentieth century, such a study was done purely for linguistic purposes—contrastive linguistic analysis was thus an end in itself. In 1957, Robert Lado changed the situation by publishing his epoch-making book *Linguistic Across Cultures*. A new era in linguistic studies and in language teaching began in the 1960's. The application of linguistics to language teaching, particularly foreign language teaching, gained ground across the world.

Lado's publication set in motion an important academic discipline. Lado's *Linguistic Across Cultures* was followed by many such useful publications in the form of books and research articles published in linguistic journals across the world. These discussed the various problems in foreign language teaching and the pedagogical implications of Contrastive Analysis.

Linguistics soon extended its scope. From what was an aid to the pronunciation of religious texts and from what was a study just for its own sake, linguistics came to be looked upon as a useful tool by people engaged in several disciplines. One such discipline is language teaching.

Linguists provide a description of languages and people engaged in teaching these languages gain useful insights into the languages from these scientific descriptions and use the description in their language classroom. A native speaker of English teaching English to other native speakers of English knows how to pronounce the various allomorphs of the plural morpheme, but he may not be aware of the rules governing the different phonological realizations of the plural marker *-s* or *-es*. A casual glance at a systematic description of English makes available to him a treasure-house of information regarding this. Again, a native speaker English teacher has no

hesitation in pronouncing *hanger* as /hɑŋə/ and *hunger* as /hʌŋgə/. He, in spite of his proficiency in the most effective use of his language, may not know why the two letters –ng- occurring in the middle of English words have two different pronunciations. A linguist provides him with the answer and a very simple, easy-to-remember rule. The teacher, in his turn, can tell his learners the same rule and thus ensure that his pupils have a reasonable chance not to make a mistake while attempting to pronounce word-medial –ng-.

The application of linguistics to foreign language teaching or second language teaching is tremendous. A person engaged in teaching any language as a foreign language gains very useful insights into the linguistics of the language he is teaching from a scientific description of the language made by a linguist. He will be at a double advantage if he knows something about the linguistics of the language that he is teaching as a foreign language and also about the language which he and/or his pupils speak as their mother tongue. This important role played by linguistics in language teaching leads us to a discussion of what is known as *Contrastive Analysis*.

1.3 Contrastive Analysis

Any comparison of languages depends on description and the process of conducting a contrastive analysis is taken in the order description and comparison. “The minimum requirement of ‘parallel description’ as James (1980) explains, is that the two languages be described through the same model of description because if the ‘same’ data from L1 and L2 are described by two different models, the descriptions are likely to highlight different facts of the data”. Basically, contrastive analysis is

deeply rooted in ‘structuralism’; that is, early contrastive studies were carried out in the structural framework, a model of structuralist linguists (e.g. Bloomfield 1933; Fries 1952; Lado 1957). According to Sridhar (1980), ‘Taxonomic contrastive analysis demonstrated the differences and similarities between languages in terms of similarities and differences in (i) the form and (ii) the distribution of comparable units, comparability being based on nothing more spectacular than “gut feelings”. This process stressed the significance of detailed ‘scientific description’ of languages rested upon a description of the various categories that constitute the patterns of a language. The differences among languages as Bloomfield (1933) notes were great to the extent that it was kind of impossible for scholars to set up any system of classification that would be suitable for all languages. It is obvious that contrastive analysis is deeply rooted in structuralism and almost all the contrastive analysis activities followed the structural grammatical model.

With the arrival of Chomsky’s generative grammar theory, a new approach for contrastive analysis was offered to replace the taxonomic approach. For Chomsky’s (1965) theory of grammar, contrastive analysis should be based on universal categories that can be found in all natural languages. Thus, the theory criticized taxonomic contrastive analysis and descriptive linguistics as well for their preoccupation with surface structure of language (Di Pietro, 1971). Contrastive analysis has profoundly been influenced by TG model in three aspects, as Sridhar (1980) suggests. These three aspects are (1) “the universal base hypothesis”; (2) the deep and surface structure distinction; and (3) the rigorous and explicit description of linguistic phenomena. The universal base hypothesis, it is claimed, provides a sounder theoretical foundation for contrastive analysis when contrasted with the structuralists’

relative hypothesis. The assumption that all languages are alike at an abstract, underlying level provides, theoretically at least, a basis for comparability.

1.4 The Aim of Contrastive Linguistics

The main concern of Contrastive Linguistics is to facilitate language teaching, particularly foreign language teaching. A good linguistic analysis of two languages—the mother tongue of the students and the foreign language they are learning—helps in producing effective teaching materials in the foreign language that is being taught, taking into account the points of linguistic similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages in question. Fries (1952) presents this role of contrastive linguistics in these words: “The most effective materials are those that are based upon scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learners.”

In fact, it is not only comparing languages which is the tool of this science called Contrastive Linguistics. As the name of the discipline indicates, contrasting languages is as important as comparing them. It is in fact the result of contrastive linguistics that is important as Nickel (1971) puts it. According to him, “Applied Contrastive Linguistics does not aim at drawing the pupils’ attention constantly and systematically to language contrasts. Its objectives, rather, is to aid the textbook author in collecting and arranging his materials and to help the teacher in presenting his subject-matter.”

A teacher, who is engaged in teaching a foreign language, if he is a linguist as well, can do both jobs—(a) comparing and contrasting his pupils’ L1 and the target language and (b) applying his findings to his teaching—very effectively. One of his

jobs will complement and supplement the other. But not all teachers are linguists, nor are all linguists teachers. In a situation where the teacher and the linguist are two different persons, they can aid each other in their jobs. The teacher has an effective role in directing the research of the linguist. The teacher is the person who has first-hand knowledge of the areas of difficulty of his pupils. He knows, through his everyday contact with his pupils, the areas in which his pupils commit mistakes systematically. Most errors highlight mother tongue interference. He can attribute the errors made by his students to linguistic dissimilarities between the two languages. The teacher thus enriches the field of Applied Linguistics, though he himself is not a linguist. The relation between learners' errors and contrastive linguistics has been aptly described by Lado (1963) when he says: "the individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to foreign language and culture— both productively when attempting to speak the language and act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives."

1.5 Linguistics and Phonetics

While linguistics and phonetics have their different specialized roles in the study of language, the difference between them is less important than that which they have in common and which distinguishes them from other disciplines, including those involving some considerations of language, namely the study of language in its own right and for its own sake. To stress this essential unity of purpose and scope, some people use the term 'linguistics' to cover both, subsuming phonetics as one part of linguistics. This is quite acceptable, but raises the difficulty that there is then no single

name for that part of 'linguistics' which is not phonetics, and such a term is quite often needed in practice. The alternative, which we have adopted here, is to use *linguistics* and *phonetics* as mutually exclusive terms and to group them together as 'the linguistic science'. There was a practical convenience in separating the two when phonetics became a laboratory subject in the 1920s: it became possible for instrumental phonetics to dissociate itself from other aspects of linguistic theory, and indeed it was necessary for its own development that for a time it should do so. Linguistics did not become a laboratory subject till the 1950s, with the coming of tape recorders and computers into general use; even now computers are only just beginning to be widely used in the study of language. But the period when phonetics can profitably be separated from linguistics is now past; instrumentation on the one hand and theoretical developments on the other have reintegrated the two in the light of new observations and experience.

As far as those working in the linguistics sciences are concerned, they tend to be specialists either in linguistics or in phonetics. In general, a linguist needs to be a competent phonetician and a phonetician a competent linguist: especially so if he is a teacher of his subject. In research there is work for specialists distributed at all points along the scale, at the extremes as well as in the middle. Some laboratory phoneticians, qualified in physics or physiology may be very little involved with linguistics; while some linguists, especially if mathematically trained and oriented, may not be directly concerned with phonetics. Even then, each must be aware of the results obtained by the other. In the middle of the scale, there are those who specialize precisely in the meeting-ground of linguistics and phonetics, namely, in phonology.

The real point is that neither subject flourishes if cut off from the other; this is perhaps

worth stressing to anyone who may be discussing the introduction of such studies into a college or university. The role of linguistics and phonetics in language teaching is not to tell the teacher how to teach. The teacher of the language is as much a specialist in his field as the linguist is in his, and will remain so. It is obviously desirable that the underlying description should be as good as possible, and this means that it should be based on sound linguistic principles.

This is the main contribution that the linguistic sciences can make to teaching of language: to provide good descriptions. Any description of a language implies linguistics; it implies, that is, a definite attitude to language, a definite stand on how language works and how it is to be accounted for.

1.6 Phonetics and Phonology

By the time a child goes to school and begins to learn a foreign language, the articulatory movements and perceptual strategies that he needs for communication in his own language are well established. He has learned to produce a very wide range of phonetically different sounds in speaking his own language in different situations and at different speeds. He has learned to interpret a very wide range of phonetically different sounds spoken by adults and children of varying social and dialectal backgrounds. If he hears a foreign word, he will recognize the sounds of the word in terms of the categories of his native language, unless the word contains a sound which is so exotic that he has not encountered it as a speech sound before. For instance if he hears one of the ‘clicks’ which occur in the ‘click languages’ of South Africa used as a speech sound, he will perceive this as something exotic, something which will not fit into any of the linguistic categories of his native language. Most sounds in most

foreign languages will occur as phonetic sounds either in his own speech or in the speech of those he hears around him. The child is so accustomed to unraveling an obscure acoustic signal, to making sense out of a very unclear message, that he finds little difficulty in dealing with a foreign word. He deals with it in the familiar way. He assigns each sound to the most reasonable of his established phonological categories. Then, when he is asked to reproduce the word, he pronounces it in terms of good clear members of each category. He hears the foreign word in terms of his own categories and he pronounces the foreign word in terms of these same categories.

We need to consider carefully what is meant by ‘phonetically different sounds’ and what is meant by ‘phonological category’ and what is the relationship between them. Let us begin by deciding what is meant by ‘phonetically different sounds’. One sound, one actual physical acoustic event, may be said to be phonetically different from another sound if it can be shown to be measurably different on some scale—if it is louder, or longer, or higher in pitch, or if the structure of the acoustic waveform is different in some other measurable way. If I say the word *oh* carefully, three times in succession, it will be possible to show, by measuring the acoustic record, that in each case the waveform is slightly different. The physical sound is different. If three different native speakers say *oh*, the word may be shown to have strikingly different acoustic characteristics in each event. The sounds are phonetically different. If each of the speakers is x-rayed while he pronounces the *n* in *no* we will see that each speaker makes slightly different movements—a slight different area and amount of the tip and/or blade of the tongue is placed against a slight different area of the ridge behind the upper teeth for a longer or shorter time. Moreover, to begin with, there will be physiological differences between the speakers’ tongue and the configurations of the

ridges behind their upper teeth. It would be possible to measure the differences between these speakers' gestures, this time in articulatory terms. The sounds produced by these gestures are, again, phonetically different. The infinitely wide range of phonetically different sounds produced by the members of a speech community will be identical, similar to or different from each other in terms of the phonological categories that characterize the speech habits of the community.

Phonetics provides us with a tool, a set of descriptive terms, by which we can describe, as minutely as is necessary for the task in hand, a particular physical sound and the gestures that produced it. It is a tool that is particularly useful for the pronunciation of a given sound and to teach the student to correct his pronunciation in a controlled and explicit way. It enables him to say 'that's better' when a student is moving his articulators in the right direction but has not yet achieved the right sound. The difficulty for the teacher who knows no phonetics is that there is no intermediate point between the 'right' and the 'wrong' sound. He has no way of detecting or of encouraging progress. He has no way of detecting, when a student changes one 'wrong' pronunciation for another, whether the change constitutes a step in the right direction, which should be consolidated, or whether the student has quite arbitrarily shifted a position which was in fact reasonably correct to begin with. A speech sound is produced by a number of articulatory variables—lip position, state of the glottis, to mention only two. If the student produces a 'wrong' sound only one of these variables may be at fault, but a teacher ignorant of phonetics will insist that the sound is the 'wrong' sound. Suppose he is trying to teach a student to produce an English [v] and the student produces instead a very creditable [f]. The student has everything correct except for the 'voicing' variable—the state of the glottis. If the teacher now says 'No,

that's still the wrong sound', without indicating that the student should hold on to the lower lip upper teeth position, the student may shift this variable in his attempt to find the 'right' sound and move even further away from the sound the teacher is trying to elicit. Phonetics offers the teacher a tool with which, in a controlled and systematic way, he can diagnose errors in pronunciation and devise strategies for correction.

We have seen that phonetically different sounds are physical sounds that are measurably different either in acoustic or articulatory characteristics. We turn now to consider what is meant by 'phonological category'. We mean that the child hears many phonetically different sounds but interprets them in terms of the phonological categories of his mother tongue. He hears the phonetically different vowel sounds in *oh* spoken by three native speakers and perceives them all as belonging to one phonological category [əʊ]. He hears *oh* pronounced by an Englishman, a Scotsman and Irishman and, despite the wide variety of phonetic differences, he recognizes all these utterances as pronunciations of *oh*. His phonological category /əʊ/ embraces not only the many possible phonetic variants of /əʊ/ in his own speech—as in *whole*, *roam*, and *coat*—but also those of different speakers of different accents. He will certainly be aware that they speak with different accents but this will very rarely affect this ability to understand what they say. It is important to note, however, that although his phonological category /əʊ/ embraces such a wide variety of phonologically dissimilar sounds, he will have a very distinct idea of how he himself ought to pronounce this vowel in a word spoken slowly and clearly in its citation form. If he is asked to pronounce a foreign word that he regards as similar to an English word, he

will produce the clear explicit form which he associates with the English citation form. An English child may produce from time to time in his own language a vowel very like the front rounded vowel in French *tu* (thou). In a form like ‘Happy New Year’ /həpɪnjʊjɪə/ the back rounded /ʊ/ vowel may be pulled forward by the surrounding /j/s in a fairly rapid style of utterance. The child is used to classifying a stimulus like this fronted vowel as a member of the category /ʊ/ and he is not consciously aware that this phonetic sound is different from any other realization of the category /ʊ/. When he is asked to interpret the French signal *tu* [y] he perceives it to be like his own ‘too’ /tu:/. When he is asked to repeat the French word he repeats it as the English word ‘too’. His ability to produce a front rounded vowel in the sequence ‘Happy New Year’, where the phonetic context provokes the frontness, is just not available to him independently of the context. The phonetically different sounds are members, or realizations of one phonological category.

The foreign language teacher needs the concepts that phonological theory can provide in order to understand that in teaching the pronunciation of a foreign language he is not simply teaching ‘new sounds’ to his students. No single physical new sound can be taught, because each example of a phonological category will be phonetically different, however minutely, from every other example. The teacher must appreciate that in teaching a new sound he is very likely to be teaching a range of phonetic sounds that the student has heard before, either in his own speech or in that of speakers of different dialects of his own language. What he is teaching is not a new sound but a new phonological category. A new phonological category, however,

cannot be taught in isolation as though it were in some way self-contained. It has to be part of a system of phonological categories.

CHAPTER TWO

The Aim and Scope of the study

2.1 General Remarks

The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1987:63) defines contrastive analysis as “the comparison of the linguistic system of two languages, for example, the sound system or the grammatical system. It is based on the following assumptions:

- (a) The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused interference from the first language.
- (b) These difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis.
- (c) Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effect of interference.”

According to James (1980:3) contrastive analysis “is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a contrastive analysis is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.”

With this in mind, it is inevitable and vitally necessary for one to make a contrastive analysis of two languages when one is involved in teaching a language as a second/foreign language to native speakers of another language. It is well known that any person learning a language other than his own is bound to be influenced by the phonetic, phonological, syntactic and even semantic patterns of his mother tongue while trying to master the same features of the language he is learning. In other words, the features of the learner's L1 are bound to influence the same features of the target language of L2.

Since this researcher is a native speaker of Arabic engaged in teaching English to other speakers of Arabic, he thought it fit to attempt a contrastive analysis of one aspect of his students' L1 with that of English. He felt that the contrastive analysis would facilitate his teaching of English. The area chosen for contrastive analysis is a phonetic and phonological study of the two languages—the students' mother tongue and the target language. This area was chosen for this research because phonetic and phonological study plays a significant role in both the languages. A language is a system that operates with a few fixed rules. There are rules governing the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic patterns of any language. A linguist analyses a language scientifically to find out the rules governing the way in which the language operates. A linguistic analysis and its findings play a vital role in language teaching. A teacher of any language who has a thorough knowledge of the way in which that language operates and the rules governing the operation of that language will be an efficient and effective teacher of that language. A teacher of spoken English, for example, will be in a better position to teach it if he has knowledge of the phonetic and phonological rules that govern the language. No doubt,

a native speaker who teaches English needs no theoretical knowledge of the phonology of his mother tongue since he has an intuitive knowledge of the phonology of his mother tongue gained through years and years of exposure to a native variety of this language. A non-native speaker of English engaged in teaching spoken English to other non-native speakers of English, on the other hand, will benefit a lot in his teaching if he has some knowledge of the phonological structure of the language.

No doubt, books written on the structure of Arabic, written in Arabic, are available, but one does not find in such books statements about the language made on the basis of a scientific investigation of the language. I, to this date, have not found answers to important questions like the following:

- (a) Are the so-called velarised consonants of Arabic really velarised or uvularised or pharyngealised?
- (b) Are the consonants that begin the word [ti:n] (figs) and [di:n] (religion) dental or denti-alveolar?
- (c) Do Arabic words begin only with consonants, the phonology of Arabic not permitting vowels to begin words?
- (d) Is there any way in which we can systematize the pluralisation rules in Arabic?

It is possible that there are books and articles available on the linguistic features of Arabic elsewhere in the world, but we in Yemen are yet to come across a scientific description of Arabic and its many features. I tried, with the help of my supervisor Dr. Balasubramanian, to do an empirical description of the consonant

sounds of Arabic on the basis of an instrumental investigation of these sounds. We do not have any instruments here in Yemen and we attempted to have such an investigation made elsewhere, but our attempts, unfortunately, were unsuccessful. So we have to be satisfied with a description of the sounds of Arabic made on the basis of my and my supervisor's perception.

The aim of this research is to find similarities and differences between Arabic and English. I am, as it has been pointed out elsewhere in this dissertation, a native speaker of Arabic. During my last four years studying in the college and two years teaching experience as a teacher of English, I have come across innumerable linguistic problems faced by my students while engaged in learning English. There are problems in pronunciation, problems in the placement of accent on the correct syllable of a word made up of more than one syllable, problems in concord between the subject and a verb in a sentence, problems in the use of relative clauses, and so on.

In order to find out the possible reason for these problems, I decided to attempt a contrastive analysis of Arabic and English. A contrastive analysis of any two languages, embracing all the features of both the languages is a time-consuming, though fascinating, work. Owing to limitations of time, I decided to contrast one feature of the two languages. It is a contrastive phonetic and phonological study of the consonants of the two languages. A brief account of the part played by this branch of linguistics, phonetics and phonology, has been given in chapters 4 and 5.

It is proposed to examine carefully and in detail the phonetic and phonological patterns of Arabic and compare/contrast them with the same features operating in English, with a view to highlighting the points of similarity and points of dissimilarity between the two systems.

2.2 Dialects chosen for this study

It is a well-known fact that in any language, different varieties or dialects exist. When one attempts a linguistic description of any language, particularly a phonetic and phonological description, one faces a problem. The problem is about the variety or dialect of the language he is going to describe.

Let us take the English language as an example first. English has many dialects like British English, American English, Canadian English, etc. Each one differs from the others in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling. To illustrate the pronunciation differences between American English and British English for example, the word *either* is pronounced [ˈaɪðə] in British, but it is pronounced [ˈiːðə] in American English. The word *neither* is pronounced [ˈnaɪðə] in British English and [ˈniːðə] in American English. The list will be endless if one goes on finding out aspects of differences between British and American English, or any other English dialect. Arabic, like English, has many dialects. People in the Middle East speak Arabic with different dialect. For example, in the Egyptian dialect the sounds [θ] and [ð] are missing and they are often replaced by [s] and [z]. So words like [θaːbrɪ] (proper noun) and [ðɪkra] (proper noun) will be pronounced as [saːbrɪ] and [zɪkra]. The Sudanese also replace the voiceless uvular plosive [q] with the voiced

uvular fricative [ʁ]. Both these sounds exist in different dialects of Arabic as two distinct phonemes, so a word like [qa:rɪb] (boat) will be pronounced as [ʁa:rɪb]. In the Iraqi dialect the voiceless velar plosive [k] as in the word [ʔɪħkɪ] (talk) is replaced by the voiceless palato-alveolar affricate [tʃ]—[ʔɪħtʃɪ].

No doubt that among the varieties of dialects a number of regional dialects exist. This time let us take an example from Yemen. The most peculiar example can be taken from the dialect of the people who come from Hadramout. In this area the sound of the letter ڨ [q] is replaced by the sound [g], so these people will not say /qamar/ (moon) instead they will say /gamar/.

In a previous section of this chapter we have discussed the existence of different varieties in both languages English and Arabic. So what do we choose from all these varieties for a linguistic study? From all these dialects I have chosen RP (Received Pronunciation) because this variety forms the basis of printed English in newspapers and books, it is used in the mass media and it is used as a model in teacher-training institutions. It is the variety we normally try to teach those who want to learn English as a foreign language. It is also the variety of English which is easily intelligible the world over. For Arabic I have chosen Classical Arabic because it is the official language in the Arab World and because every speaker of Arabic understands his own colloquial variety and also Classical Arabic since it is the language of the Holy Qura'an.

2.3 Motivation

Since the researcher is a native speaker of Arabic engaged in teaching English to other speakers of Arabic, he often hears /bæk/ instead of /pæk/, thus, obliterating the minimal pairs distinction between *back* and *pack*. Similarly, /fæn/ instead of /væn/, also obliterating the minimal pair distinction between *fan* and *van*. The teacher is at a loss to know why there are such wide divergences between RP and what can be called, loosely, Arabic English. So a detailed account of the phonetics and phonology of the English consonants is vitally necessary particularly for a teacher of English as a foreign language.

The ideal thing would be to attempt such an analysis supported by instrumental evidence. In the absence of any instruments for phonetic research available in Yemen, the writer had to be content with an analysis based on his own perception, supported by that of his supervisor, an expert phonetician. This analysis will be compared and contrasted with the English consonants with a view to finding out the similarities and divergences between the two systems. It will, then, be possible to pinpoint the area of difficulties for native speakers of Arabic using English for communication.

The next three chapters deal with a detailed phonetic and phonological study of the consonants of English and Arabic

CHAPTER THREE

Articulatory Phonetics

5.1 General Remarks

Phonetics is concerned with the articulation of speech sounds and the production of speech and the branch of phonetics that deals with this is called *Articulatory Phonetics*. Since we are concerned with articulatory phonetics in this dissertation let us discuss very briefly what speech sounds are and how they fall into patterns.

5.2 The Vocal Organs

Before going into the details of this branch of phonetics, it is not out of place to say something about the parts of the human body that are involved in the production of speech. These parts of the human body are commonly referred to in phonetic literature as *the organs of speech* or *the vocal organs*.

The way in which speech is produced with the help of the vocal organs is called *the speech mechanism*. This mechanism operates with the help of three systems. The three systems work in a systematic and complicated way and the

organs belonging to each group are put together to form a system. These three systems are (a) the Respiratory system, (b) the Phonatory system and (c) the Articulatory system.

The respiratory system is important in speech production since the basic source of power in the articulation of most speech sounds is the lung-air being pushed out. Air from the lungs goes up the windpipe (the trachea, to use the more technical term) and into the larynx, at which point it must pass between two small muscular folds called *the vocal cords*. If the vocal cords are wide apart, as they normally are when breathing out, the air from the lungs will have a relatively free passage into the pharynx and the mouth. But if the vocal cords are adjusted so that there is only a narrow passage between them, the pressure of the air-stream will cause them to vibrate. Sounds produced when the vocal cords are vibrating are said to be *voiced*, as opposed to those in which the vocal cords are apart, which are said to be *voiceless*.

The parts of the oral tract that can be used to form sounds are called articulators. The articulators that form the lower surface of the oral tract often move toward those that form the upper surface. The names of the principal parts of the upper and lower surface of the vocal tract will be discussed in the next chapters. Human beings are able to produce many more speech sounds which are different from each other and it is necessary to classify them.

5.3 Classification of Speech Sounds

Speech sounds are very broadly divided into two categories, namely, *Vowels* and *Consonants*. *Vowels* are speech sounds articulated with a free oral passage for the

lung-air to escape. Consonants, on the other hand, are articulated with either total obstruction of the air-passage or with a narrow oral passage so that the air escapes with friction. Vowels are further classified taking into account the part of the tongue used, the height to which the tongue is raised and the position of the lips during their articulation. Consonants are classified further taking into account the state of the glottis during their articulation, the place of articulation and the manner in which a sound is articulated.

In the following chapters we shall attempt a detailed discussion of the consonant sounds that occur in English and Arabic.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Consonants of English

4.1 General Remarks

A consonant is “a speech sound where air-stream from the lungs is either completely blocked (stop), partially blocked (lateral), or where the opening is so narrow that the air escapes with audible friction (fricative). With some consonants (nasal) the air-stream is blocked in the mouth but allowed to escape through the nose.” (Richard, 1971).

Thus, it is possible to abstract from a continuous utterance of English, by means of a process of commutation, twenty-four distinctive units¹ which are consonantal both in terms of their function (i.e. they tend to be non-central or marginal in the syllable) and also, in the majority of cases²; in terms of their phonetic form (i.e. they have, at least in some of their realizations, articulations involving the obstructions or narrowings which produce, acoustically, a noise component).

¹No phonetic analysis of the consonants of English was done for purpose of this dissertation since it has been already established by famous native-speaker phoneticians that RP does have forty-four distinctive phonemes, excluding the voiceless labio-velar approximants [M] which is a distinctive phoneme, distinct from the voice [W], in the speech of some native speakers of English.

²Some of the realizations of /r/, /j/ and /w/ are vowels in their phonetic form or, to use Pike’s terminology, they are non-syllabic vocoids.

When the English consonants are classified according to their manner of articulation, they fall into the following groups:

Plosives (6)	/p, b, t, d, k, g/
Affricates (2)	/tʃ, dʒ/
Nasals (3)	/m, n, ŋ/
Lateral (1)	/l/
Fricatives (9)	/f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/
Frictionless continuant (1)	/r/ ³
Semi-vowel (2)	/w, j/

When, on the other hand, these consonants are classified according to the place of articulation. They fall into the following groups:

Bilabial (4)	/p, b, m, w/
Labio-dental (2)	/f, v/
Dental (2)	/θ, ð/
Alveolar/ (6)	/t, d, n, l, s, z/

³The letter r in English is pronounced in a number of different words. The phoneme which we symbolize /r/ has thus several allophones, and only one of these allophones is a frictionless continuant. The phoneme itself described as a frictionless continuant here for the sake of descriptive convenience.

Post-alveolar (1)	/r/
Palato-alveolar (4)	/tʃ, dʒ, ʃ, ʒ/
Palatal (1)	/j/
Velar (4)	/k, g, ŋ, (w)/ ⁴
Glottal (1)	/h/

Of these 24 consonant phonemes, nine consonants are voiceless: /p, t, k, tʃ, f, θ, s, ʃ, h/ and the remaining 15 are voiced: /b, d, g, dʒ, m, n, ŋ, l, v, ð, z, ʒ, r, w, j/

4.2 Classification of English Consonants RP

The twenty-four distinctive consonants in English (RP) are tabulated below. The first symbol of a pair in any box represents the voiceless sound and the second the voiced.

⁴The symbol w has been included both under bilabial and under velar. It is because, strictly speaking, a labio-velar sound. To avoid counting it twice, it has been written within brackets against the category *velar*.

Place Manner	Bilabial	Labio- dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post- alveolar	Palato- alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d				k g	
Affricate						tʃ dʒ			
Nasal	m			n				ŋ	
Lateral				l					
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z		ʃ ʒ			h
Frictionless continuant					r				
Semi-vowel	w						j	(w)	

Table 1. The Consonants of English

4.3 Description of the Consonants of RP English

4.3.1 Plosives

A plosive sound is articulated with a stricture of *complete closure and sudden release*. There are three stages in the production of a plosive consonant. They are:

- i) The *closure or closing stage*—the two articulators come together and make a firm contact with each other.

- ii) The *hold or compression stage*—the two articulators remain in contact for some time.
- ii) The released or explosion stage—the two articulators separate and the air escapes with a slight explosive sound. During these three stages, there is a velic closure, i.e. the soft palate is raised and the nasal passage of air is shut off completely.

During the articulation of a voiced plosive, the vocal cords vibrate during all the three stages. During the articulation of a voiceless plosive, the vocal cords are wide apart during stage 1 and 2. If the vocal cords start vibrating simultaneously with stage 3, the plosive is said to be unaspirated. If the vocal cords start vibrating a little after stage 3 is completed, the plosive is said to be aspirated.

RP has three pairs of plosives: bilabial /p, b/, alveolar /t, d/, and velar /k, g/. /p, t, k/ are voiceless, and /b, d, g/ are voiced.

4.3.1.1.4 Bilabial plosive /p/ and /b/

During the articulation of the principal allophones of /p/ and /b/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is closed completely. At the same time, the two lips are in firm contact with each other and so the oral passage of air is also closed completely. Lung air is compressed behind these closures, during which stage the vocal cords are held wide apart stage for /b/ according to its

situation in the utterance. When the two lips are separated suddenly, the air escapes with an explosive sound.

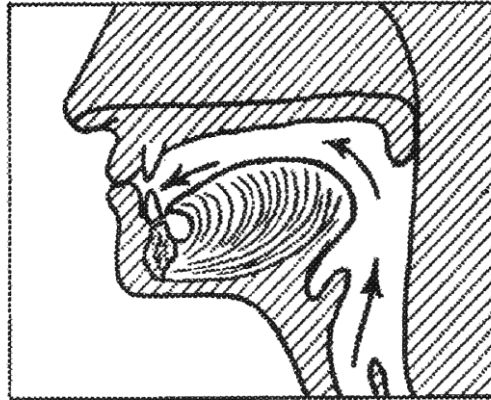


Figure (1) -- /p, b/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /p/ and /b/, we can label them as:

/p/ is a voiceless bilabial plosive.

/b/ is a voiced bilabial plosive.

4.3.1.4.1 The allophones of /p/ are four:

(a) /p/ is a heavily aspirated [p^h] (that is, it is released with a strong puff of breath)

when it occurs initially in a stressed syllable as in *pen* [p^hen] and *please* [p^hli:].

- (b) /p/ is unaspirated [p] when it occurs in an unaccented syllable and in words in which it is preceded by [s] as in *potato* [pə'theɪ'təʊ] and *stamp* [stæmp].
- (c) /p/ is nasally exploded [p^N] (that is, the oral closure is retained and the velum is lowered so that the air escapes through the nose instead of through the mouth) when it is immediately followed by its homorganic nasal /m/ either within a word or at word-boundaries as in *topmost* ['tɒpməʊst].
- (d) /p/ is inaudibly released [p̚] when it occurs word-finally or when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in *cap* [kʰæp̚], *captain* ['kʰæp̚tɪn] and *capture* ['kʰæp̚tʃə].

4.3.1.4 The allophones of /b/ are five:

- (a) /b/ is partially devoiced [b̥] (that is, the vocal cords may not vibrate during all the three phases of its articulation; they may start vibrating only during phase 3) when it occurs initially, finally and when it is followed by a voiceless sound as in *bill* [bɪl], *cab* [kʰæb̥], *obstruct* [əb̥s'trʌkt].
- (b) /b/ is nasally exploded [b^N] when it is immediately followed by its homorganic nasal /m/, both within a word at word-boundaries as in *submit* [səb^Nmɪt] and *Bob made it* [bɒb^Nmeɪdɪt].

- (c) /b/ is a fully voiced [b] when it is intervocalic and when it is followed by a voiced sound as in *above* [ə'bʌv] and *robbed* [ˈrɒb·d].
- (d) /b/ is inaudibly released [b̚] when it is word-final and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in *cab* [kʰʌb̚], *robbed* [ˈrɒb̚·d] and *object (v.)* [əb̚·dʒekˈt].

4.3.1.2 Alveolar plosive /t/ and /d/

During the articulation of the main allophones of /t/ and /d/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The tip or blade of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth-ridge and therefore the oral passage is also closed. Lung air is compressed behind these closures during which stage the vocal cords are wide apart for /t/, but may vibrate for all or part of the compressed stage for /d/ according to its situation in the utterance. When the tip or blade of the tongue is removed suddenly from the teeth-ridge, the lung air escapes with a slight explosive noise.

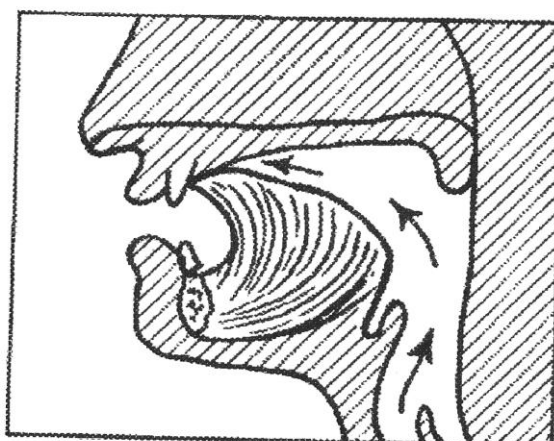


Figure (2) -- /t, d/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /t/ and /d/, we can label them as:

/t/ is a voiceless alveolar plosive.

/d/ is a voiced alveolar plosive.

4.3.1.2.1 The allophones of /t/ are seven:

(a) /t/ is a heavily aspirated [t^h] when it occurs initially in a stressed syllable as in

time [t^ha:ɪm] and *attain* [ə't^hei:n].

(b) /t/ is unaspirated [t] when it occurs in an unaccented syllable and in words

preceded by [s] as in *eight* ['eɪtɪ] and *stop* [stɒp].

(c) /t/ is a nasally exploded [t^N] when it is immediately followed by its homorganic

nasal /n/ as in *cotton* ['kɒt^Nn].

(d) /t/ is a laterally exploded [t^l] (that is, the central closure is retained and the two

sides of the tongue are lowered; the compressed air escapes along the sides of the

tongue) when it is immediately followed by its homorganic lateral /l/ as in *bottle*

[bɒt^ll].

- (e) /t/ is an inaudibly released [t̚] when it occurs word-finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in *cat* [kʰæt-], *catcall* [ˈkʰæt-kɔːt] and that *church* [ðæt-tʃɜːtʃ].
- (f) /t/ is a dental plosive [t̪] if it is followed by /θ/ as in *eighth* [ˈeɪ θ].
- (g) /t/ is a post-alveolar plosive [t̠] if the following sound is /r/ as in *try* [t̠raːɪ]

4.3.3.3 The allophones of /d/ are seven:

- (a) /d/ is a partially devoiced [d̚] in the speech of some people when it occurs initially and finally as in *door* [d̚ɔː] and *bad* [bəd̚].
- (b) /d/ is a fully voiced [d] when it occurs in the neighborhood of voiced sounds as in *under* [ˈʌndə] and *leader* [ˈliːdə]
- (c) /d/ is a nasally exploded [d̪n̩] when it is immediately followed by its homorganic nasal /n/ as in *sudden* [ˈsʌd̪n̩].
- (d) /d/ is a laterally exploded [d̪l̪] when it is immediately followed by /l/ as in *cuddle* [ˈkʰʌd̪l̪].
- (e) /d/ is an inaudibly released [d̚] when it occurs word-finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in *bad* [bəd̚], *bad boy* [bəd̚bɔɪ] and *good jam* [gʊd̚dʒæm].

(f) /d/ is a dental plosive [] when it is followed by /θ/ as in width [wɪ θ].

(e) /d/ is a post-alveolar [d] when the following sound is /r/ as in dry [dra:r].

4.3.1.3 The velar plosives /k/ and /g/

During the articulation of the main allophones of /k/ and /g/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage is shut completely. The back of the tongue makes a firm contact with the soft palate and therefore the oral passage is also closed. When the back of the tongue is removed suddenly from the soft palate, the lung air escapes with a slight explosive noise. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /k/, and they vibrate during the articulation of /g/.

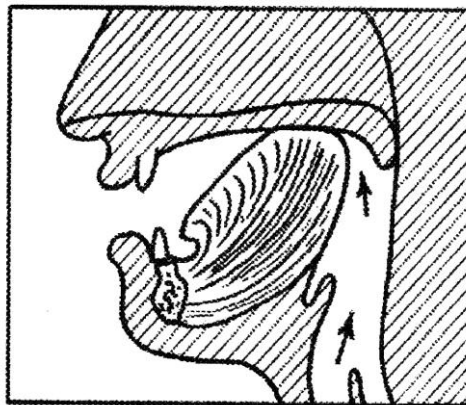


Figure (3) -- /k, g/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /k/ and /g/, we can label them as:

/k/ is a voiceless velar plosive.

/g/ is a voiced velar plosive.

4.3.1.3.1 The allophones of /k/ are five:

- (a) /k/ is a heavily aspirated [k^h] when it occurs initially in an accented syllable as in king [k^hɪŋ].
- (b) /k/ is unaspirated [k] when it occurs in an unaccented syllable and when it is preceded by /s/ in words as in sky [skaɪ] and uncle [ˈʌŋkɪ].
- (c) /k/ is articulated further forward in the mouth (between palatal and velar regions) [k⁺] when it is followed by a front vowel as in keen [k^hi:n] and scheme [sk⁺i:m].
- (d) /k/ is articulated further back in the mouth (in the post-velar region of the roof of the mouth) [k⁻] when it is followed by a back vowel as in school [sk-u:t].
- (e) /k/ is an inaudibly released [k·] when it is word-final and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in pick [p^hɪk·], active [ˈæktɪv] and structure [ˈstrʌktʃə].

4.3.1.3.2 The allophones of /g/ are six:

- (a) /g/ is a partially devoiced [g] in the speech of some people when it occurs initially and finally as in *good* [gʊd·] and *egg* [eg·].

- (b) /g/ is a fully voiced [g] when it occurs in the neighborhood of voiced sounds as in *beggar* ['begə] and *rugby* ['rʌg·bɪ].
- (c) /g/ is articulated further forward in the mouth [g⁺] when it is followed by a front vowel as in *geese* [g⁺i:s].
- (d) /g/ is articulated further backward in the mouth [g⁻] (in the post-alveolar region) when it is followed by a back vowel as in *goose* [g⁻u:s].
- (e) /g/ is an in audibly released [g·] when it is word-final or followed by another plosive or affricate as in *bag* [bæg·] and *rugby* [rʌg·bɪ].

4.3.2 Affricates

Affricates are consonant sounds pronounced with a stricture of *complete closure and slow release*. Because of the gradual separation of the articulators, friction is heard at the same point where the complete closure is made. This friction is less and of a shorter duration than the friction that we hear during the articulation of fricative consonants. In English there are two affricates and these are palato-alveolar.

4.3.2.1.4 Palato-alveolar affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/

During the articulation of the main allophones of /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue make a firm contact with the alveolar-ridge, thereby blocking the oral passage of air as

well. At the same time, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. When the tip and blade of the tongue are removed slowly from the teeth-ridge, the air escapes with a little friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /tʃ/ and they vibrate during the articulation of /dʒ/.

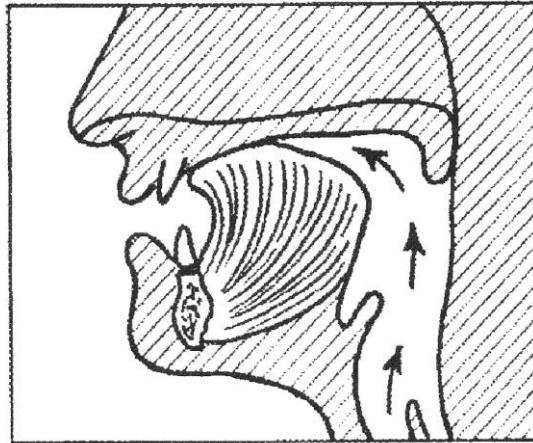


Figure (4) -- /tʃ, dʒ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, we can label them as:

/tʃ/ is a voiceless palato-alveolar affricate.

/dʒ/ is a voiced palato-alveolar affricate.

There are no important allophonic variants of /tʃ/ occur except in the degree of lip-protrusion used during their articulation.

4.3.3.1.4 The allophones of /dʒ/ are two:

(a) /dʒ/ is a partially devoiced [dʒ̥] when it occurs initially and finally in words as in

judge [dʒ̥ʌdʒ̥].

(b) /dʒ/ is a fully voiced [dʒ] when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds as in

suggest [səˈdʒest].

4.3.3 Nasals

A nasal consonant is articulated with a stricture of complete oral closure. That is to say, the active and the passive articulators make a firm contact with each other, but there is a velic opening so that the air escapes freely through the nostrils. RP has three nasal consonants: the bilabial nasal [m], the alveolar nasal [n] and the velar nasal [ŋ].

4.3.3.1 The bilabial nasal /m/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /m/, the soft palate is lowered and therefore the nasal passage is open, velic opening. The oral passage is closed by shutting the two lips firmly. The lung air escapes freely and continuously through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

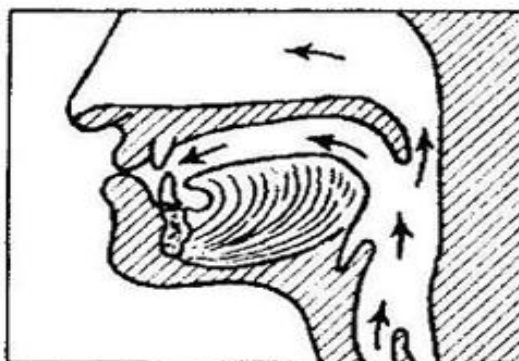


Figure (5) – /m/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /m/, we can label it as:

a voiced bilabial nasal.

4.3.3.1.1 The allophones of /m/ are two:

(a) /m/ is a labio-dental nasal [m̥] when it is immediately followed by /f/ and /v/,

both within words and at word-boundaries as in *comfort* ['kʰʌmfət:] and *same*

village ['se:ɪm'vɪɪdʒ].

(b) /m/ is a partially devoiced [m̥] in the speech of some people when /s/ precedes it

as in *small* [sm̥ɔ:t].

4.3.3.2 The alveolar nasal /n/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /n/, the oral closure is affected by the tip or blade of the tongue making a firm contact against the alveolar-ridge. The soft palate is lowered and thus the nasal passage of air is open. The lung air escapes freely through the nostrils. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

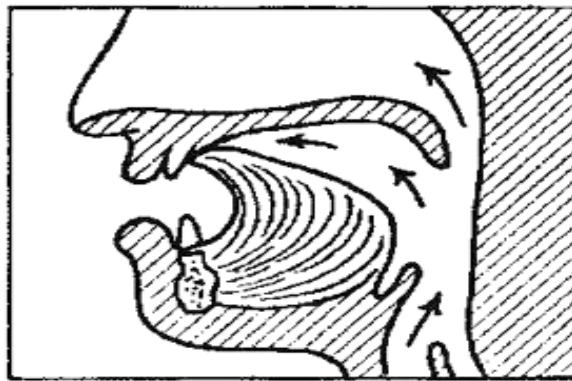


Figure (6) – /n/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /n/, we can label it as

/n/ is a voiced alveolar nasal.

4.3.3.4 The allophones of /n/ are four:

- (a) /n/ is a dental nasal [] when it is followed by /θ/ or /ð/ as in *tenth* [t^he θ].
- (b) /n/ is a post-alveolar [ɲ] when it is followed by /r/ as in *enroll* [ɪn'rə:ʊɹ].

(c) /n/ is a partially devoiced [n̥] in the speech of some people when it is preceded by /s/ as in *snake* [sneɪk̚].

(d) /n/ is a fully voiced [n] when it occurs in the neighborhood of voiced sounds as in *ignore* [ɪg'nɔː].

4.3.3.3 The velar nasal /ŋ/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /ŋ/, the oral closure is affected by the back of the tongue making a firm contact with the soft palate. The soft palate is lowered, thereby opening the nasal passage of air. The lung air escapes freely through the nostrils. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

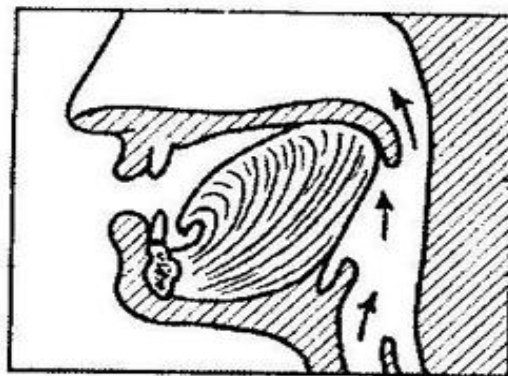


Figure (7) – /ŋ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /ŋ/, we can label it as:

/ŋ/ is a voiced velar nasal

There are no allophonic variants of /ŋ/ except the voiced velar nasal [ŋ] which occurs in all the words which have /ŋ/ in them.

4.3.4 Lateral

A lateral consonant is articulated with a stricture of complete closure in the center of the vocal tract. The sides of the tongue are lowered and the air escapes along the sides of the tongue without any friction. There is only one lateral consonant in English which is symbolized /l/.

4.3.4.1 The alveolar lateral /l/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /l/, the soft palate is raised and so that the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The tip or blade of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth-ridge and so the oral passage of air is also closed completely. But the sides of the tongue are lowered and the air from the lungs escapes along the sides of the tongue freely and continuously. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

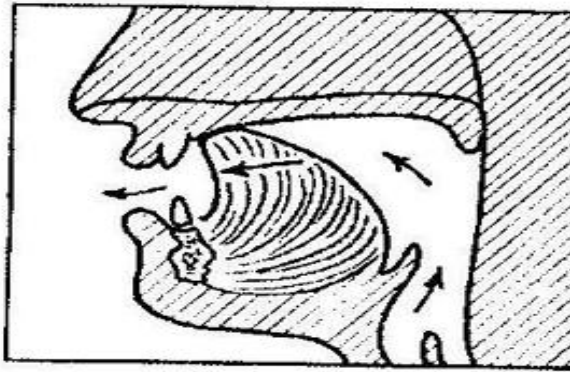


Figure (8) -- /l/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /l/, we can label it as:

/l/ is a voiced alveolar lateral

4.3.5.4 The allophones of /l/ are four:

(a) /l/ is a dental lateral [l̪] when it is immediately followed by /θ/ or /ð/ as in *health*

[he θ] and *call them* [ˈkɔːl ðm].

(b) /l/ is a voiceless [l̥] when it is preceded by an aspirated /p/ or /k/ as in *please*

[pʰliːz] and *clear* [kʰliə].

(c) /l/ is a ‘clear’ or palatalized [lʲ] when it is immediately followed by a vowel or the

semi-vowel /j/ as in *leave* [liːv] and *million* [ˈmɪljən].

(d) /l/ is a 'dark' or velarised [ɫ] when it is word-final or when it is immediately followed by a consonant as in *pill* [p^hɪɫ] and *wealth* [weɪθɫ].

4.3.5 Fricatives

Fricatives are articulated with a stricture of close approximation. There are nine distinctive fricatives in English. Labio-dental /f, v/, dental /θ, ð/, alveolar /s, z/, palato-alveolar /ʃ, ʒ/ and glottal /h/.

4.3.5.1 The labio-dental fricatives /f, v/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /f/ and /v/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The lower lip is brought very close to the upper front teeth so that there is a very narrow gap between them. The air from the lungs escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /f/ and they vibrate during the articulation of /v/.

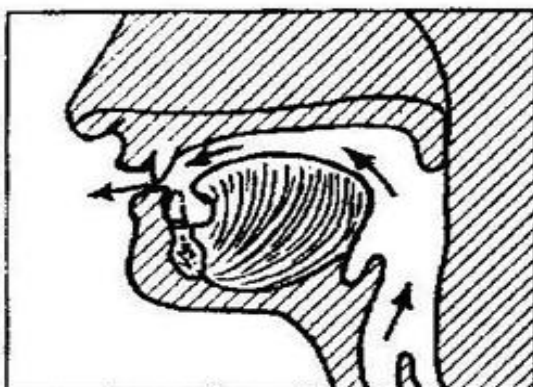


Figure (9) -- /f, v/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /f/ and /v/, we can label them as:

/f/ is a voiceless labio-dental fricative.

/v/ is a voiced labio-dental fricative.

There are no important allophonic variants of /f/ occur except in respect of the position of the lips which depends on the lip position required by an adjacent vowel.

4.3.5.1.1 The allophones of /v/ are two

(a)

/

v/ is a partially voiced [v] when it occurs initially and finally in a word as in *veal* [vi:t] and *leave* [li:v].

(b)

/

v/ is a fully voiced [v] when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds as in *review* [ri:vju:].

4.3.5.2 The dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/

During the articulation of the principal allophones of /θ/ and /ð/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The tip or blade of the tongue is brought between the two rows of teeth in such a way that there is a very narrow gap between them. The lung air escapes through this narrow space with audible friction. The vocal cords do not vibrate during the articulation of /θ/, but they vibrate during the articulation of /ð/.

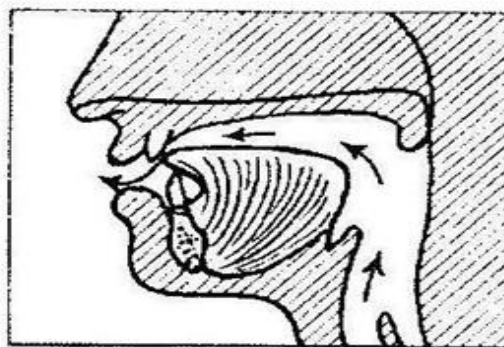


Figure (10) – /θ, ð/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /θ/ and /ð/, we can label them as:

/θ/ is a voiceless dental fricative.

/ð/ is a voiced dental fricative.

There are no important allophonic variants that differ significantly from each other and thus /θ/ can be said to have one allophone [θ] which occurs in all the words in which /θ/ occurs.

4.3.5.2.1 The allophones of /ð/ are two:

(a) /ð/ is a partially voiced [ð̤] when it occurs initially and finally as in *there* [ðeə]

and *with* [wɪð].

(b) /ð/ is fully voiced when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds as in

breathing ['bri:ðɪŋ]

4.3.5.3 The alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /s/ and /z/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are brought near the teeth-ridge in such a way that the space between them is

very narrow. The lung air escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are kept wide apart during the articulation of /z/.

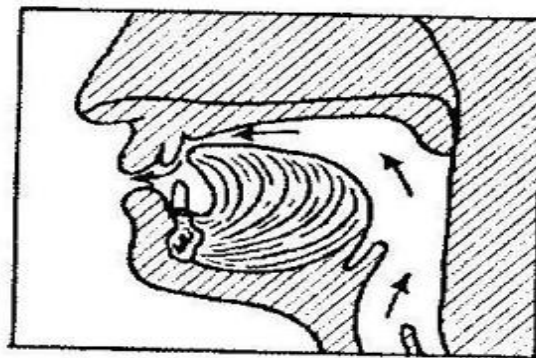


Figure (11) – /s, z/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /s/ and /z/, we can label them as:

/s/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative.

/z/ is a voiced alveolar fricative.

There are no allophonic variants of /s/ other than the one involving lip rounding.

4.3.5.3.1 The allophones of /z/ are two:

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(a) /z/ is a partially voiced [z] when it occurs initially and finally in a word as in *zoo*

[zu:] and *buzz* [bʌz].

(b) /z/ is a fully voiced when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds as in *easy*

[i:zi].

4.3.5.5 The palato-alveolar fricatives /ʃ/ and /ʒ/

During the articulation of the principal allophones of /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are brought very near the teeth-ridge. At the same time, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. The lung air escapes through the narrow gap between the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth-ridge and between the front of the tongue and the hard palate with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /ʃ/, but they vibrate during the articulation of /ʒ/.

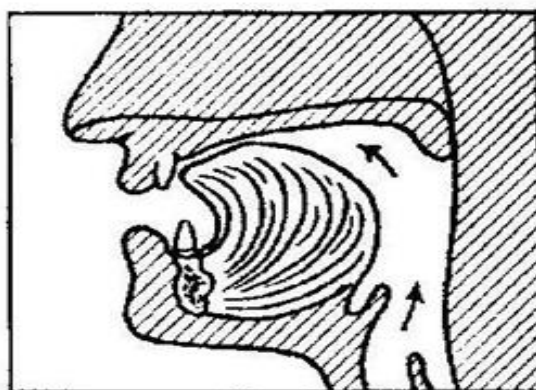


Figure (12) – /ʃ, ʒ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, we can label them as:

/ʃ/ is a voiceless palato-alveolar fricative.

/ʒ/ is a voiced palato-alveolar fricative.

There are no allophonic variants of /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ other than the involving the lip-rounding.

4.3.5.4 The glottal fricative /h/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /h/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage completely. The two vocal cords brought very near to each other, the air from the lungs escapes through this narrow glottis with audible friction. The tongue is doing nothing during the articulation of /h/, but it takes the position of the next vowel sound. On the basis of the articulatory description of /h/, we can label it as:

/h/ is a voiceless glottal fricative.

4.3.5.4.1 The allophones of /h/ are two:

- (a) /h/ is a voiced [ɦ] when it occurs in intervocalic position as in *behind* [bə'ɦaɪnd].
- (b) /h/ is a voiceless when it occurs initially as in *heat* [hi:t].

4.3.5.5 Frictionless continuant /r/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /r/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip of the tongue is brought near the rear part of the teeth-ridge in such a way that there is sufficient gap between the two for the air to escape freely without any friction. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

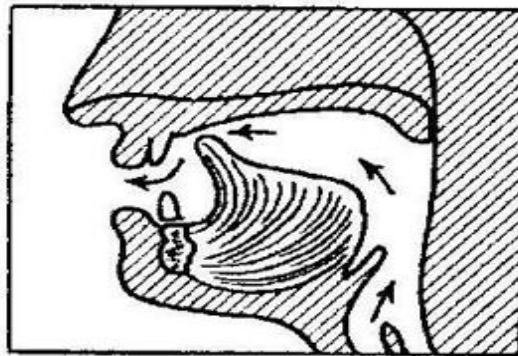


Figure (13) -- /r/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /r/, we can label it as:

/r/ is voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant.

4.3.5.5.1 The allophones of /r/ are four:

(a) /r/ is a voiceless post-alveolar fricative [r̥] when it is preceded by an aspirated

/p/, /t/ and /k/ as in *pray* [pʰre:ɪ], *try* [tʰra:ɪ] and *cry* [kʰra:ɪ].

(b) /r/ is a voiced post-alveolar fricative [r̄] when it is preceded by /d/ as in *dry*

[dra:ɪ].

(c) /r/ is a voiced post-alveolar tap [ɾ] when it occurs between two vowels or when it

occurs after /θ/ as in *very* [veɾɪ] and *three* [θɾi:ɪ].

(d) /r/ is a voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant [r̥̄] when it occurs initially as

in *reek* [ri:k̥̄].

4.3.5.6 Semi-vowels /j/ and /w/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /j/, the front of the tongue takes up a position necessary for the articulation of a vowel between front close and front half-close depending upon the closeness or openness of the vowel that follows /j/. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The

vocal cords vibrate, producing voice. The tongue moves immediately to the position of the following sound. The lips are spread but there may be anticipatory lip rounding if /j/ is followed by a rounded vowel. On the basis of the articulatory description of /j/, we can label it as:

/j/ is a voiced palatal semi-vowel.

4.3.5.6.1 The allophones of /j/ are two:

(a) /j/ is a partially devoiced [j̥] when it is preceded by unaspirated /p/, /t/ and /k/

as in *stew* [stju:].

(b) /j/ is a voiceless palatal fricative [ç] when it is preceded by aspirated /p/, /t/

and /k/ and by /h/ as in *pure* [pʰçɔ:], *tune* [tʰçu:n], *cure* [kʰçɔ:] and *huge*

[hçu:dʒ].

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /w/, the back of the tongue assumes a position required for the articulation of a vowel between back close and back half-close depending upon the closeness and openness of the vowel that follows it. The soft palate is raised so that the nasal passage of air is blocked completely. The tongue moves immediately to the position of the sound that follows /w/. The lips are rounded during the articulation of /w/, the degree of lip-rounding

depending upon the lip-position of the vowel that follows it. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice. On the basis of the articulatory description of /w/, we can label it as:

/w/ is a voiced labio-velar semi-vowel.

4.3.5.6.2 The allophones of /w/ are three:

- (a) /w/ is a voiceless labio-velar semi-vowel [w] or [M] when it is preceded by aspirated /t/ and /k/ as in *twist* [t^hwɪst-] and *queen* [k^hwi:n].
- (b) /w/ is a partially devoiced [w] when it is preceded by any other voiceless sound as in *sweet* [swi:t̚].
- (c) /w/ is voiced [w] when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds as in *beware* [br'weə].

4.4 Lip-position during the articulation of the consonants of English

The position of the lips during the articulation of the consonants depends upon the lip-position required for the articulation of the vowel that immediately follows them or precedes them. Any consonant is pronounced with spread lips if the vowel that follows it is an unrounded one. There will be anticipation of a consonant if the vowel that follows it is a rounded one. Here are some examples of the consonants that are articulated with spread and rounded lips:

Consonant	Lip-spread	Lip-rounded
/p/	peel	pool
/b/	been	Boon
/d/	deal	do
/k/	keel	cool
/g/	geese	goose
/tʃ/	cheap	choose
/dʒ/	jeep	job
/m/	mean	moon
/n/	neat	noon
/ŋ/	sing	song
/f/	feel	fool
/v/	veal	voice
/θ/	thin	thaw
/ð/	this	those
/s/	seen	soon
/z/	zip	zoo
/h/	he	hot
/r/	read	road
/j/	Year	Yoke

During the articulation of /ʃ/, however, there is a certain amount of lip-protrusion irrespective of the vowel that follows it. But the lip-protrusion is more

during the articulation of /ʃ/ in a word like *shoe* than it is during the articulation of

/ʃ/ in a word like *she*.

4.5 Occurrence in different position of the consonants of English:

As we said earlier on in this dissertation that there are 24 consonant phonemes in RP English. These consonants occur in different positions in a word. These phonemes are listed below with examples that illustrate their occurrence in the initial, medial and final position.

Consonant	Initial	Medial	Final
p	peak	speak	ship
b	buy	rabbit	lamp
t	take	retain	cut
d	do	sudden	sad
k	key	sky	lack
g	great	struggle	bag
tʃ	cheap	future	catch
dʒ	jail	majority	manage
m	made	lemon	sum
n	name	send	open
ŋ	_____	singer	hang

l	life	Below	tool
f	fat	sphere	life
v	view	evening	live
θ	thin	method	bath
ð	there	mother	clothe
s	some	ask	less
z	zoo	buzzed	maze
ʃ	shade	admission	fresh
ʒ	_____	decision	garage (only in French loan sounds)
h	hot	behave	_____
r	rain	around	_____
w	waist	sweet	_____
j	year	tune	_____

CHAPTER FIVE

The Consonants of Arabic

5.1 Introductory Remarks

There are twenty-eight distinctive consonants in Arabic.⁵ These consonants are listed below, with one example each for their word-initial, word-medial and word-final occurrence. The phonetic symbols used here are those of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). The phonetic symbols have been enclosed within square brackets here since their phonemic status has not yet been established in this dissertation. After classifying them according to their manners of articulation, the consonants belonging to each manner (i.e., plosives, fricatives, etc.) are established as belonging to different phonemes, with the help of minimal pairs.

⁵By the term “Arabic” here, as elsewhere in this dissertation, is meant the classical variety of Arabic. There are differences between the classical dialect and the different colloquial dialects (be they national varieties or regional varieties within a nation) as far as the consonants are concerned. Some of these differences are mentioned, where relevant, in appropriate sections of this chapter. But by and large, the description is based on the classical variety of Arabic which is perfectly intelligible all over the Arab-world.

5.2 The Arabic consonants and their occurrence in words

No	Arabic letter	Consonant	Word-initial	Word-medial	Word-final
1.	ب	[b]	[ba:b] ⁶ (door)	[maʃbad] (temple)	[qalb] ⁷ (heart)
2.	ت	[t]	[i:n] (fig)	[ka: ɪb] (writer)	[bɪn] ⁸ (girl)
3.	ط	[t̪] ⁹	[a:ɪɪb] (student) (student-masc.)	[la i:f] (kind)	[saʊ] (whip)
4.	د	[d]	[ʊb] (bear-n)	[ʃa l] (justice)	[dʒa i:d] (new)
5.	ض	[d̪]	[aʊ] (light)	[fa l] (favorite)	[maʕa] ¹⁰ (illness)
6.	ك	[k]	[kʊra] (ball)	[ja:kʊ] (he eats)	[samak] (fish - n)
7.	ق	[q]	[qalam] (pen)	[saqf] (ceiling)	[bu:q] (horn)
8.	ء	[ʔ]	[ʔab] (father)	[qʊrʔa:n] (the Holy Qura'an)	[samaʔ] (sky)
9.	ج	[dʒ] ¹¹	[dʒami:l] (beautiful-masc.)	[madʒnu:n] (mad man)	[θaldʒ] (snow)

⁶Subtle phonetic differences such as the differences between [b] and [b̥] (the released and unreleased or inaudibly released varieties of the voices bilabial plosive) are NOT indicated in these transcriptions. These are discussed and described later in this chapter, when the allophones of each phoneme are listed.

⁷The vowel phoneme represented in the Arabic orthography by the mark “kasrah” has two allophones, [a] and [a̠]. Their occurrence is not discussed here. The appropriate phonetic symbol has been used in transcriptions. In phonemic transcriptions, only /a/ has been used.

⁸The phoneme represented by the Arabic letter ن “noon” has a denti-alveolar allophone. This is discussed under the section **nasal**.

⁹The diacritic [~] is used across the symbols [t], [d], [θ] and [s] in this dissertation. This diacritic, according to the principals of IPA, refers to velarization or uvularization. This diacritic is used to symbolize the consonants represented by the Arabic orthographic symbols ط [t̪], ض [d̪], ظ [d̪] and ص [S]. More about this secondary articulation is said in appropriate places in this dissertation.

¹⁰The Arabic letter ڍ is a voiced alveolar tap (as indicated in the transcription of this word) when it occurs single in a word. It is [r] (the voiced alveolar trill) when it is doubled intervocally. The phoneme symbol used is /r/.

¹¹The sound represented by the symbol [dʒ] here and elsewhere in this dissertation is the one represented by the Arabic orthographic symbol ج. It is certainly an affricate in classical Arabic, but it is NOT a palato-alveolar affricate as at the beginning of the English word *joy*. When I articulate the Arabic sound represented by the letter ج, the tip of the tongue does NOT touch the alveolar ridge in the mouth. On the basis of my own perception, I feel it is a voiced palatal fricative which, strictly speaking, should be symbolized [jj]. Since this is a complicated symbol, for the sake of transcription simplicity, the symbol [dʒ] has been used to represent this sound throughout this dissertation.

10.	م	[m]	[mɪftaħ] (key)	[barmi:l] (barrel)	[kari:m] (generous) (generous)
11.	ن	[n]	[na:ʕ] (fire)	[manzɪl] (house)	[wa an] (country) (country)
12.	ف	[f]	[fanna:n] (artist-masc.)	[nafs] (soul)	[la i:f] (kind)
13.	ث	[θ]	[θaldʒ] (snow)	[kaθi:ʕ] (abundant)	[jalhaθ] (he gasps)
14.	ذ	[ð]	[ðarrah] (atom)	[ʔaðn] (permission)	[ʔɪð] (whereupon)
15.	ظ	[ð]	[ðaʕf] (envelope)	[ʔaði:m] (great)	[ħað] (luck)
16.	س	[s]	[saħa:b] (cloud)	[rasu:l] (prophet)	[madʒlɪs] (assembly)
17.	ص	[S]	[Sa:bu:n] (soap)	[ʔaSa] (stick)	[ba:S] (bus)
18.	ز	[z]	[zaman] (time)	[mɪzma:ʕ] (pipe)	[ʔaʕz] (rice)
19.	ش	[ʃ]	[ʃams] (sun)	[ħaʃi:ʃ] (grass)	[kabʃ] (ram)
20.	خ	[χ]	[χa:S] (special)	[naχl](date-palm)	[ʔaχ] (brother)
21.	غ	[ɣ]	[ɣʊla:m] (boy)	[ʔaɣf](eagerness)	[ba:lɪɣ] (adult)
22.	ح	[h]	[ħʊlm] (dream)	[baħʕ] (sea)	[mɪlh] (salt)
23.	هـ	[h]	[hɪla:l] (crescent)	[lahab] (flame)	[ʔɪlah] (God)
24.	ل	[l]	[lahm] (meat)	[kalb] (dog)	[fi:l] (elephant)
25.	ر	[r]	[ʕadʒʊl] (man)	[kaʕi:m] (generou)	[χabi:ʕ] (expert)
26.	ع	[ʕ]	[ʔadl] (slave)	[sa:ʔa] (watch-n)	[ʕʊbaʕ] (quarter)
27.	ي	[j]	[jad] (hand)	[jahja] (proper-noun)	----- ¹²
28.	و	[w]	[walad] (boy)	[aʊwal] (first)	----- ¹³

¹²In traditional descriptions of Arabic, [j] has been described as occurring in word-final position. Word like [kʊrsɪ] (chair) are quoted as example. The letter ي (which stands for [j] in syllable-initial position, [i:] between two consonants, and [ɪ] word-finally) is often described as [j] in traditional description in its medial and final occurrences. In this dissertation the combination “fathah” + ي (the short vowel [a] followed by the letter ي) is treated as a diphthong [aɪ]. Word-final occurrences of the letter ي are treated as [ɪ] because word-final ي is always pronounced [ɪ].

¹³What is said in 8 above is applicable to the letter و in Arabic. In its syllable-initial occurrences, it is pronounced as [w], between two consonants it is always the long vowel [u:]. When it is doubled in the middle of words, it is treated as the diphthongs [aʊ] + [w] in this dissertation. When the letter و occurs finally as in عدو [ʔadu:] (enemy), it is distinctly pronounced as the long vowel [u:].

5.3 The Arabic consonants and their places of articulation

When the consonants of Arabic are classified according to their places of articulation, they fall into the following twelve groups.

No	Place of articulation	Sounds which fall under this category	Total number of sounds in this category
1.	Bilabial	[b] [m]	2
2.	Labio-dental	[f]	1
3.	Dental	[θ] [ð] [ð]	3
4.	Denti-alveolar	[l], [l], [l], [l]	4
5.	Alveolar	[n], [s], [S], [z], [ʕ/r], [l]	6
6.	Palato-alveolar	[ʃ]	1
7.	Palatal	[dʒ] ¹⁴ , [j]	2
8.	Velar	[k]	1
9.	Uvular	[q], [χ], [ʁ]	3
10.	Pharyngeal	[ħ],[ʕ]	2
11.	Glottal	[h], [ʔ]	2
12.	Labio-velar	[w]	1
Total			28

¹⁴See footnote 7 of this chapter.

5.4 The Consonant of Arabic according to the state of the glottis during their articulation.

Twelve of these consonants are voiceless. They are: [ʔ], [ħ], [k], [q], [f], [θ], [s], [ʃ], [χ], [ħ] and [h]. Fifteen others are voiced, articulated with a vibrating glottis. These are: [b], [d], [dʒ], [m], [n], [ð], [ð], [z], [ʁ], [l], [r], [j] and [w]. The glottal stop [ʔ] cannot be included in either of these categories since, during its articulation, the glottis tightly shut and then suddenly opened.

5.5 The Consonants of Arabic according to the manner in which they are articulated.

According to their manner of articulation, the consonants of Arabic can be divided into the following categories.

No	Manner of articulation	Sounds in this category	Number of sounds in this category
1.	Plosives	[b], [t], [d], [k], [g], [ʔ]	8
2.	Affricate	[dʒ]	1
3.	Nasals	[m], [n]	2
4.	Fricatives	[f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [ʒ], [z], [ʃ], [x], [ʁ], [ħ], [h]	12
5.	Lateral	[l]	1
6.	Tap/Flap	[ɾ/r]	1
7.	Frictionless continuant	[ʁ]	1
8.	Semi-vowel	[j], [w]	2
Total			28

The consonants of Arabic are tabulated below in the form of a chart, indicating places and manner of articulation. According to international conventions, if there are two sounds in a box, the one on the left stands for the voiceless sound and the one on the right indicates the voiced sound. For the sake of convenience, the orthographic symbols representing the consonants are also given in the chart.¹⁵

¹⁵This chart is a slightly modified version of Al-Ani (1970). The modifications have been done after Balasubramanian (1999).

place manner	Bilabial	Labio- dental	Dental	Denti- alveolar	Alveolar	Palato- alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyn-geal	Glottal	Labio-velar
Plosive	b ب		t ت د ط ض					k ك	q ق		ʔ ء	
Nasal	m م				n ن							
Affricate							dʒ ج					
Fricative		f ف	θ ث ذ ظ		s س ز ص	ʃ ش			x خ ځ غ	ħ ح	h ه	
Tap/Flap					ɾ ر							
Lateral					l ل							
Friction-less continuant										ʕ ع		
Semi-vowel							ɣ ي					w و
Total	2	1	3	4	6	1	2	1	3	2	2	1

Table 2: The Consonants of Arabic

5.6 A brief Phonemic Analysis of the Consonants of Arabic

A brief phonemic analysis of the consonants of Arabic is attempted below. The sounds belonging to each type of consonants are taken up and phonemic status of each is established with the help of minimal pairs.

5.6.1 Plosives

The plosives that occur in Arabic are eight in number. They contrast with each other in minimal pairs like the following:

- (i) [b] and [] [ba:b] (door) and [a:b] (repented)
- (ii) [] and [] [] (fig) and [] (religious)
- (iii) [] and [] [] (fig) and [i:] (soil)
- (iv) [] and [] [a:ɛ] (house) and [a:ɛ] (dangerous)
- (v) [k] and [q] [kalb] (dog) and [qalb] (heart)
- (vi) [k] and [ʔ] [kaθi:ɛ] (abundant) and [ʔaθi:ɛ] (broadcasting)

5.6.2 Affricate

There is only one affricate in Arabic and it occurs in environments similar to those in which the different plosives occur, namely, word-initially followed by a vowel, word-medially and word-finally, necessitating the establishment of a separate phoneme to accommodate the sound.

5.6.3 Nasals

The two nasal sounds [m] and [n] contrast with each other in minimal pairs like

[mahɛ] (dowry)

[nahɛ] (river)

and therefore belong to two different phonemes.

5.6.4 Fricatives

The fricatives which are twelve in number show several phonemic contrasts such as the following:

(i) [f] and [θ] [faʔɛ] (rat) and [θaʔɛ] (taking revenge)

(ii) [θ] and [ð] [bʊθu:ɛ] (scares) and [bʊðu:ɛ] (seeds)

- | | |
|--------------------|--|
| (iii) [ð] and [ð] | [ðʊl] (despising) and [ðʊl] (seducing) |
| (iv) [θ] and [s] | [θaːɛ] (state of anger) and [saːɛ] (walked) |
| (v) [s] and [S] | [siːn] (name of a letter) and [Siːn] (China) |
| (vi) [s] and [z] | [mɪsmaːɛ] (nail) and [mɪzmaːɛ] (flute) |
| (vii) [s] and [ʃ] | [siːn] and [ʃiːn] (names of letters) |
| (viii) [ʃ] and [χ] | [ʃʊmuːl] (containment) and [χʊmuːl] (laziness) |
| (ix) [χ] and [ʁ] | [χaːb] (non fulfilment) and [ʁaːb] (absent) |
| (x) [χ] and [ħ] | [χaːb] (vinegar) and [ħal] (solution) |
| (ix) [ħ] and [h] | [naħɛ] (slaughter) and [nahɛ] (river) |

5.6.5 Lateral

There is just one lateral sound in Arabic. It is [l] which occurs in the same environments in which the plosives, affricates, nasals and fricatives occur. Also, since the manner of articulation of this sound is different from those of the plosives, affricates, nasals and fricatives, we have to establish a separate phoneme to accommodate this sound. But since [l] and [r] contrast with each other in minimal pairs like the examples given below, we have to establish two phonemes to accommodate them.

[l] and [r] [liːm] (lemon) and [riːm] (proper noun)

5.6.6 The Frictionless Continuants and Semi-vowel.

There is again one frictionless continuant in Arabic which is [ʕ]. This again should be assigned to a separate phoneme since it occurs in the same environments in which the plosives, affricates, nasals, fricatives and lateral occur. Also, there is phoneme contrast between [ʕ], [j] and [w], as proved by the following minimal pairs:

- (i) [ʕ] and [l] [ʕa:m] (a year) and [la:m] (name of a letter)
- (ii) [ʕ] and [j] [ʕaʕm] (swimming) and [jaʕm] (day)
- (iii) [ʕ] and [w] [ʕa:ɾ] (normal) and [wa:ɾ] (valley)
- (iv) [j] and [w] [jalaʕ] (a kind of pigeon) and [walaʕ] (to miss someone)

5.7 An articulatory description of the Arabic Consonants

Having listed the consonants of Arabic, categorized them according to the state of the glottis, and the places and manners of articulation, and having established the phonemic status of the consonants, let us now turn our attention to an articulatory description of each consonant and a brief discussion of the allophonic variants of each.

5.7.1 The plosives

5.7.1.1 Bilabial plosive /b/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /b/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is closed completely. At the same time, the two lips are in firm contact with each other and so the oral passage of air is also closed completely. Lung air is compressed behind these closures, during which stage the vocal cords may vibrate for all or part of the compressed stage according to its situation in the utterance. When the two lips are separated suddenly, the air escapes with an explosive sound.

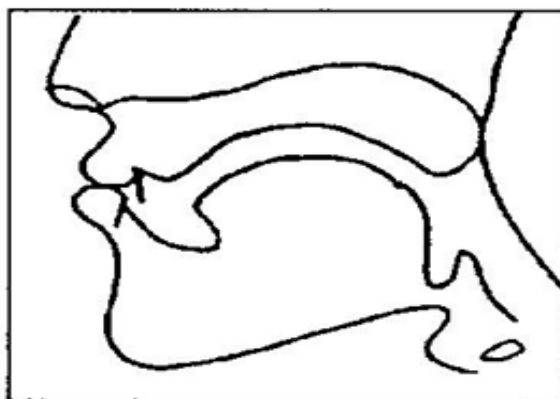


Figure (13)– /b/

On the basis of the articulatory description of the principal allophone of /b/, we can label it as:

a voiced bilabial plosive.

The allophones of /b/ are the following:

- a) /b/ is a partially devoiced [b̥] when it occurs initially, finally and when it is followed by a voiceless sound as in [ba:b] (door). This happens in the speech of some people.¹⁶
- b) /b/ is a fully voiced [b] when it is intervocalic and when it is followed by a voiced sound as in [θa:bi] (proper noun) and [ʕamba] (papaya).
- c) /b/ is an inaudibly released [b̚] when it occurs finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [ʕab̚] (slave) and [θaub dʒa i:] (new dress).
- d) /b/ loses its voice and is realized as [p] (voiceless bilabial plosive) when it is immediately followed by a voiceless sound as in /ħabs/ = [ħaps] (prison), /sab / = [sap̚] (Saturday).¹⁷

5.7.1.2 Denti-alveolar plosives /t/, /t̪/, /d/ and /d̪/

During the articulation of the main allophones of /t/ and /d/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is shut off completely.

The tip or blade of the tongue makes a firm contact with the upper front teeth and the teeth-ridge and therefore the oral passage of air is also closed. Lung air

¹⁶It is quite natural for an initial or final voiced sound to get devoiced because of the preceding/following silence. This phenomenon of devoicing has been described on the basis of perception. No experimental work was possible in Hodeidah.

¹⁷Strangely, this happens only when /b/ is followed by a voiced sound. When it is preceded by a voiceless sound /b/ retained its voice and is realized as [b̚] as in /ʔakbaɛ/ = [ʔak̚ baɛ] (the greatest).

is compressed behind these two closures, during which stage the vocal cords are wide apart for / /, but may vibrate for all or part of the compression stage for / / according to the phonetic environment in which it occurs in an utterance. When the tip or blade of the tongue is removed suddenly from the upper front teeth and the teeth-ridge, the lung air escapes with a slight explosive noise.

The principal allophones of the two phonemes / / and / / are articulated in the same way as the principal allophones of / / and / / are articulated. The only difference is that during the articulation of the principal allophone of / / and / /, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate¹⁸ and therefore they are velarised or they have a back vowel quality.

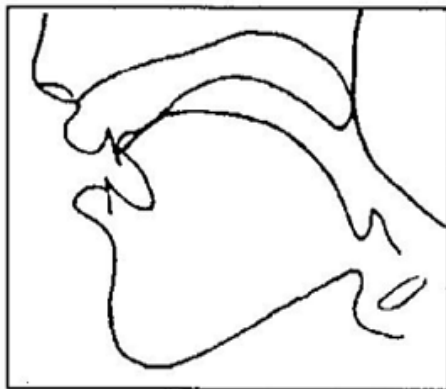


Figure (14) - /t,d/



Figure (15) - /t̠,d̠/

¹⁸We have called these velarized on the basis of perception. The secondary articulation involved may be one of uvularisation (the extreme back of the tongue being raised in the direction of the uvular). In the absence of experimental evidence to the contrary, we have chosen to call the secondary articulation one of velarization.

On the basis of the articulatory description of the principal allophone of / / ,

/ / , / / and / / , we can label the as:

/ / is a voiceless denti-alveolar plosive

/ / is a voiceless velarised denti-alveolar plosive

/ / is a voiced denti-alveolar plosive

/ / is a voiced velarised denti-alveolar plosive

The allophones of / / are two in number:

a) / / is an inaudibly released [ʔ] when it occurs word-finally as in [qa: ʔ]

(qat leaves) and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in

[u: ʔarb] (tasteful mulberry) and [laʔɪba ʔdʒali:lah] (Jalieela played). This

happens at word boundaries.

b) / / is a voiceless alveolar plosive when it is immediately followed by /ʃ/

as in [aʃ ɪ] (Do you want?)

The allophones of / / are two in number:

- a) / / is an inaudibly released [] when it occurs word-finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [su:] (whip) and [mata: ʔdʒard] (good rubber).
- b) / / is a fully released [] when it is followed by a vowel as in [i:n] (soil).

The allophones of / / are three in number:

- a) / / is a partially devoiced [] in the speech of some people when it occurs initially and finally as in [ub] (bear-n) and [ja] (hand).
- b) / / is a fully voiced [d] when it occurs in the neighborhood of voiced sounds as in [ʃab̥] (slave).
- c) / / is an inaudibly released [] when it occurs word-finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [madʒ] (glory) and [ʔadʒa: ʔdʒa:bar] (well done Jaber).

The allophones of / / are three:

- a) / / is a partially devoiced [] in the speech of some people when it occurs initially and finally as in [baɪ] (eggs) and [aba:b] (fig).

- b) /k/ is a fully voiced [k] when it occurs in the neighborhood of voiced sounds as in [wa:k] (situation).
- c) /k/ is an inaudibly released [k̚] when it occurs word-finally and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [ma:kə] (sickness) and [nʌːdʒ] (ripeness).

5.7.1.3 Velar plosive /k/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /k/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The back of the tongue makes a firm contact with the soft palate and therefore the oral passage is also closed. When the back of the tongue is removed suddenly from the soft palate, the lung air escapes with a slight explosive noise. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /k/.

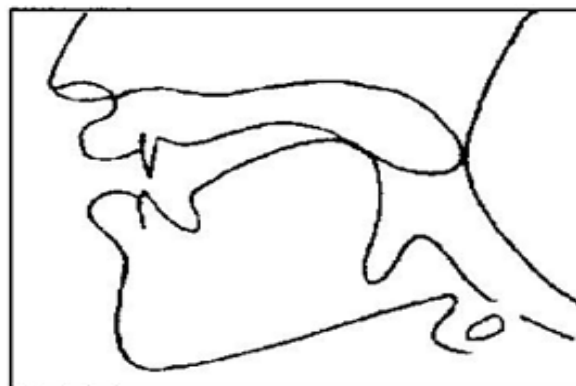


Figure (16) – /k/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /k/, we can label

it as:

a voiceless velar plosive

The allophones of /k/ are three:

- a) /k/ is articulated further forward in the mouth [k⁺] when it is followed by a front vowel as in [k⁺i:s] (bag).
- b) /k/ is articulated further back in the mouth [k⁻] when it is followed by a back vowel as in [k⁻ʊ ʊb] (books).
- c) /k/ is an inaudibly released [k^ʰ] when it is word-final as in [samak^ʰ] (fish) and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [mak^ʰ ab^ʰ] (office) and [jan ahik^ʰdʒa:rʊh] (offends his neighbor).

5.7.1.4 The uvular plosive /q/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /q/, the soft palate is raised and therefore the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The extreme back of the tongue is in firm contact with the uvular to form the oral

closure. When the extreme back of the tongue is removed suddenly from the back wall of the pharynx, the lung air escapes with a slight explosive noise.

The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /q/.

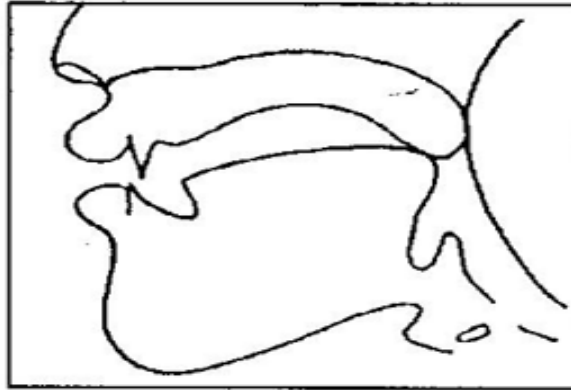


Figure (17) -- /q/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /q/, we can label

it as:

a voiceless uvular plosive

The allophones of /q/ are three:

- a) /q/ is articulated further forward [q⁺] when it is followed by a front vowel as in [q⁺ɪsm] (department).
- b) /q/ is articulated further backward [q⁻] when it is followed by a vowel as in [q⁻ʊwah] (force).

- c) /q/ is an inaudibly released [q̣] when it is word-final as in [su:q̣] (market) and when it is followed by another plosive or affricate as in [waq̣] (time) and [barqu:q̣ɟar] (good plum).

5.7.1.5 Affricate

In Arabic there is only one affricate and that is palatal.

5.7.1.6 Palatal affricate /ɟ̣/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /ɟ̣/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The front of the tongue touches the hard palate. When the front of the tongue is removed slowly from the hard palate, the lung air escapes with a little fricative. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

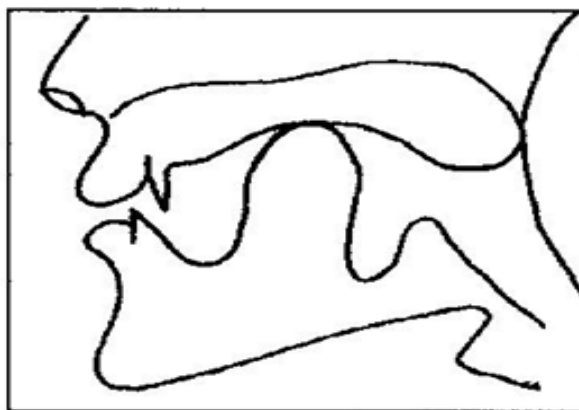


Figure (18)– /ɟ̣/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /dʒ/, we can label it as:

a voiced palatal affricate

The allophone of /dʒ/ are two:

a) /dʒ/ is a partially devoiced [dʒ̥] when it occurs initially and finally as in

[dʒami:l] (beautiful) and [θaldʒ] (snow).

b) /dʒ/ is a fully voiced [dʒ] when it occurs in the vicinity of voiced sounds

as in [nadʒm] (star).

5.7.1.7 Nasals

There are two nasal phonemes in Arabic: the bilabial nasal [m] and the alveolar nasal [n].

5.7.1.8 Bilabial nasal /m/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /m/, the soft palate is lowered and therefore the nasal passage is open. The oral passage is closed by shutting the two lips firmly. The lung air escapes freely and continuously through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.



Figure (19)– /m/

On the basis of the articulatory description of the main
allophone of /m/, we can label it as:

a voiced bilabial nasal

The allophones of /m/ are two:

- a) /m/ is a labio-dental nasal [m̪] when it is immediately followed by /f/ as
in [na:m̪faħ] (Fath̪ slept).
- b) /m/ is bilabial in all other environments.

5.7.1.9 Alveolar nasal /n/

During the articulation of the main allophone of /n/, the oral closure is

affected by the tip or blade of the tongue making a firm contact against the

alveolar-ridge. The soft palate is lowered and thus the nasal passage of air is open. The lung air escapes freely through the nostrils. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

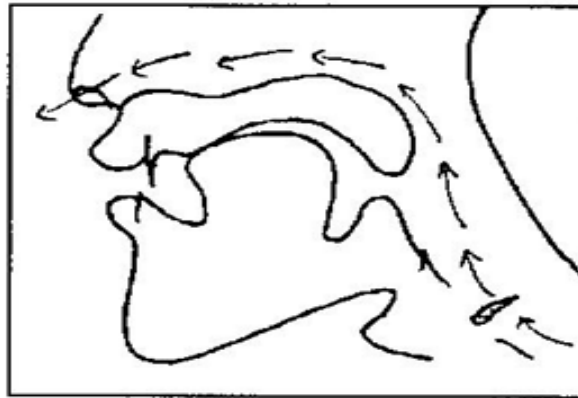


Figure (20) — /n/

On the basis of the articulatory description of the principal allophone of /n/, we can label it as:

a voiced alveolar nasal

The allophones of /n/ are the following:

- a) /n/ is a dental nasal [n̪] when it is following by /θ/, /ð/, /ð/, / /, / /,

/ / and / / as in [bɪn] (girl), [mʊhɑ̃ ɪs] (engineer), [waha θa:bi]

(Thatbit is weakened), [hasa ðafr] (Hassan won).

- b) /n/ is an alveolar nasal when it occurs initially as in [nu:ʕ] (light),
intervocalically (single and double) as in [hana:ʕ] (proper noun) and
[fanna:n] (artist masc.) and finally as in [ti:n] (fig)..
- c) /n/ is a velar nasal [ŋ] when it is followed by /k/ or /q/ as in [ʃaŋq]
(hanging), [baŋk] (bank).

5.7.1.10 Lateral

There is only one lateral consonant in Arabic which is symbolized /l/.

5.7.1.11 The alveolar /l/

During the articulation of the main allophone of /l/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The tip or blade of the tongue makes a firm contact with the teeth-ridge and so the oral passage of air is also closed completely. But the sides of the tongue are lowered and the air from the lungs escapes along the sides of the tongue freely and continuously. The vocal cords, producing voice.

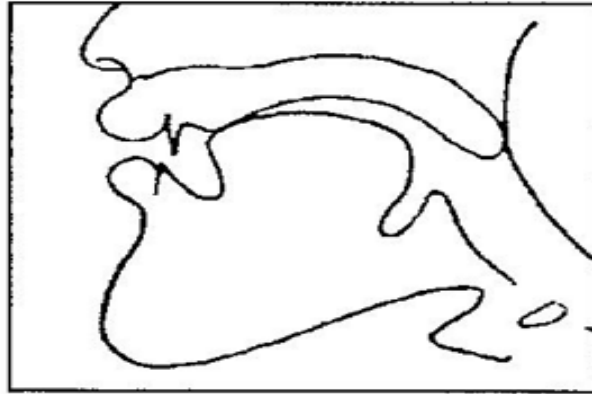


Figure (21)– /l/

On the basis of the articulatory description of / l /, we can label it as:

a voiced alveolar lateral

The allophones of / l / are the following:

- a) / l / is a dental lateral [] when it is immediately followed by /θ/ or /ð/ or /ð/ as in [χar ða:maʔ] (a thirsty horse).
- b) / l / is clear or palatalized [l] when it is immediately followed by a vowel or the semi-vowel /j/ as in [li:m] (lemon), [lɪjaʊm] (for one day).
- c) / l / is dark or velarised [ɫ] only in the word [ʔaɫɫah] (Allah).

5.7.1.12 Fricative

In Arabic, there are twelve fricatives: the labio-dental fricative /f/, the dental fricatives /θ, ð, ð/, the alveolar fricatives /s, z, S/, the palato-alveolar /ʃ/, the uvular fricatives /x, ɣ/, the pharyngeal fricative /ħ/ and the glottal fricative /h/. /f, θ, s, S, x, ħ, h/ are voiceless, and /ð, ʃ, ɣ, ð, z/ are voices.

5.7.1.13 The labio-dental /f/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /f/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The lowered lip is brought very close to the upper front teeth so that there is a very narrow gap between them. The air from the lungs escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /f/.

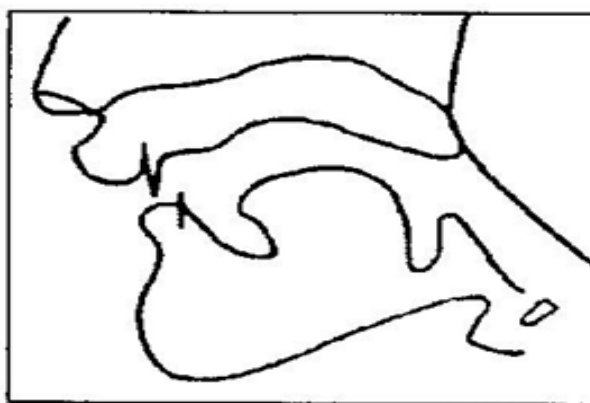


Figure (22)— /f/

On the basis of the articulatory description, we can label it as:

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Abdulghani A. Al-Hattami, Ph.D. Candidate

A Phonetic and Phonological Study of the Consonants of English and Arabic

a voiceless labio-dental fricative

No important allophonic variants of /f/ occur except in respect of the position of the lip position required by an adjacent vowel.

5.7.1.14 The dental fricatives /θ/, /ð/ and /ð/

During the articulation of /θ/ and /ð/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The tip or blade of the tongue is brought between the two rows of the teeth in such a way that there is a very narrow gap between them. The lung air escapes through this narrow space with audible friction. The vocal cords do not vibrate during the articulation of /θ/, but they vibrate during the articulation of /ð/.

The principal allophone of the phoneme /ð/ is articulated in the same way as /θ/ and /ð/ are articulated. The only difference is that during the articulation of the principal allophones of /ð/, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and therefore it is velarised or it has a back vowel quality.



Figure (23)– /θ, ð/

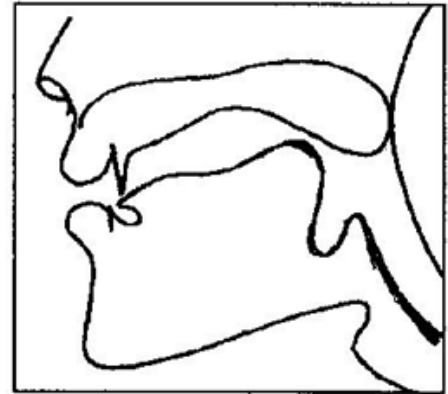


Figure (24)– /ð̤/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /θ/, /ð̤/ and /ð̤/, we can label them as:

/θ/ is a voiceless dental fricative

/ð/ is a voiced dental fricative

/ð̤/ is a voiced velarised dental fricative

There are no allophones variants that differ significantly from each other and thus /θ/, /ð/ and /ð̤/ can be said to have one allophone each [θ], [ð] and [ð̤] which occurs in all the words in which /θ/, /ð/ and /ð̤/ occurs.

5.7.1.15 The alveolar fricatives /s/, /S/ and /z/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /s/ and /z/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are brought near the teeth-ridge in such a way that the space between them is very narrow. The lung air escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are kept wide apart during the articulation of /s/, but they vibrate during the articulation of /z/.

The principal allophone of the phoneme /S/ is articulated in the same way as /s/ and /z/ are articulated. The only difference is that during the articulation of the principal allophone of /S/, the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate and therefore it is velarised or it has a back vowel quality.

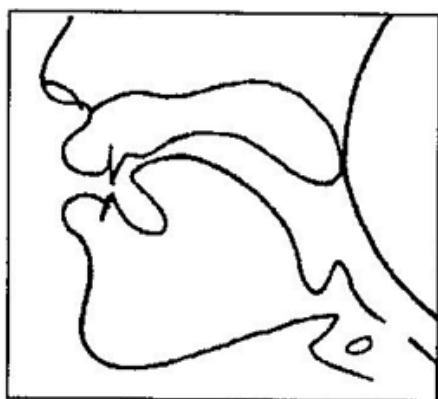


Figure (25)– /s, z/

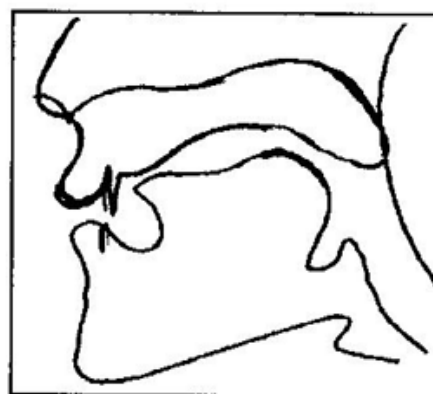


Figure (26)– /S/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /s/, /z/ and

/S/, we can label them as:

/s/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative.

/S/ is a voiceless velarised alveolar fricative.

/z/ is a voiced alveolar fricative.

There are no allophonic variants that differ significantly from each other and thus /s/, /z/ and /S/ can be said to have one allophone each [s], [S] and [z] which occurs in all the words in which /s/, /S/ and /z/ occurs.

5.7.1.16 The palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /ʃ/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The tip and blade of the tongue are brought very near the teeth-ridge. At the same time, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. The lung air escapes through the narrow gap between the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth-ridge and between the front of the tongue and the hard palate with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /ʃ/.

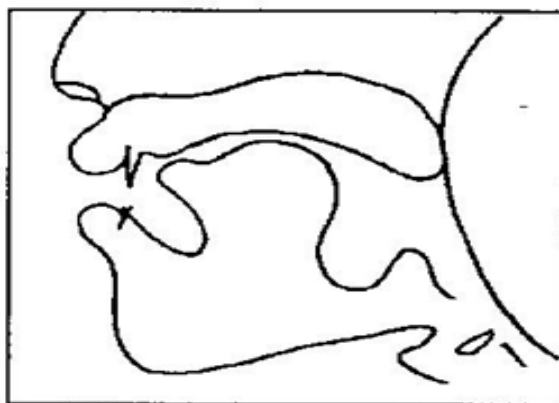


Figure (27)— /ʃ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /ʃ/, we can label

it as:

a voiceless palato-alveolar fricative

There are no allophonic variants of /ʃ/ other than the one involving the lip-rounded.

5.7.1.17 The uvular fricative /χ/ and /ʁ/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /χ/, and /ʁ/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The extreme back of the tongue is brought very close to uvular so that there is a

very narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /χ/, but they may vibrate during the articulation of /ʁ/.

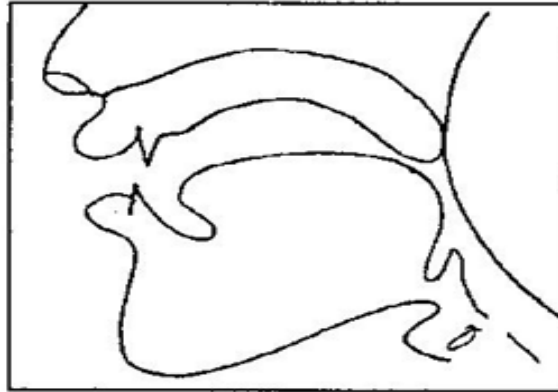


Figure (28)— /χ, ʁ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /χ/ and /ʁ/, we can label them as:

/χ/ is a voiceless uvular fricative.

/ʁ/ is a voiced uvular fricative.

There are no important allophonic variants of /χ/ and /ʁ/ occur except in respect of the position of the lips which depends on the lip position required by an adjacent vowel.

5.7.1.18 The pharyngeal fricative /ħ/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /ħ/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The root of the tongue is brought very close to the back wall of the pharynx so that there is a very narrow gap between them. The air from the lungs escapes through this narrow gap with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart during the articulation of /ħ/.

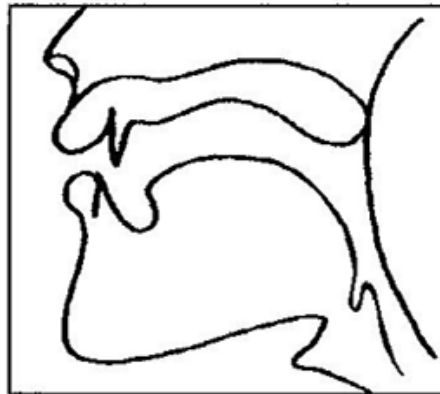


Figure (29) – /ħ/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /ħ/, we can label

it as:

a voiceless pharyngeal fricative

There are no important allophonic variants of /h/ occur except in respect of the position of the lips which depends on the lip position required by an adjacent vowel.

5.7.1.19 The glottal fricative /h/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /h/, the soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air completely. The two vocal cords brought very near to each other, the air from the lungs escapes through this narrow glottis with audible friction. The tongue is at rest during the articulation of /h/, but it takes the position of the next vowel sound.

On the basis of the articulatory description of /h/, we can label it as:

a voiceless glottal fricative.

The allophones of /h/ are two:

a) /h/ is a voiced [ɦ] when it occurs in intervocalic position as in [mʊɦɑndɪs] (engineer).

b) /h/ is a voiceless [h] when it occurs initially as in [ɦɪlɑl] (crescent).

5.7.1.20 The tap or flap

There is only one tap consonant in Arabic which is symbolized as /r/.

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /r/, the soft palate is raised as to shut off the nasal passage completely. The tip or blade of the tongue strikes quickly against the teeth-ridge just once. There is sufficient gap between these two articulators for lung air to escape freely without any friction. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

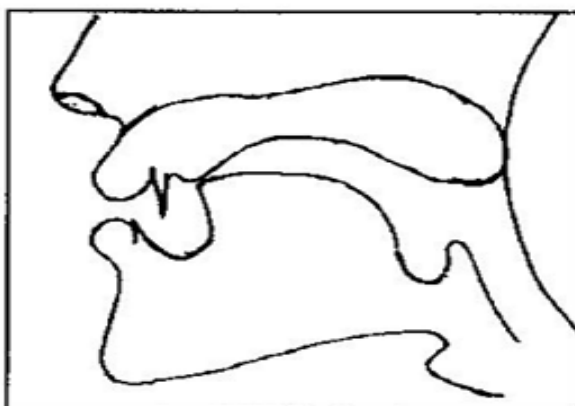


Figure (29) -- /r/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /r/, we can label

it as:

a voiced alveolar tap or flap

The allophones of /r/ are the following:

- a) /r/ is a voiced alveolar tap [ɾ] when it occurs single or when it occurs single or when it occurs after /θ/ as in [kaɛi:m] (generous) and [ʕaθɛah] (false step).
- b) It is /r/ when it is doubled as in [ʕarrafa] (defined).

5.7.1.21 The frictionless continuant and semi-vowels

There are three sounds in Arabic which come under these two categories: the pharyngeal /ʕ/, the palatal /j/ and the labio-dental /w/.

5.7.1.22 The pharyngeal frictionless continuant /ʕ/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /ʕ/, the soft palate is raised and so the nasal passage of air is shut off completely. The root of the tongue is brought near the back wall of the pharynx so that there is a wide gap between them. The air from the lungs passes through this wide gap freely, without any friction. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

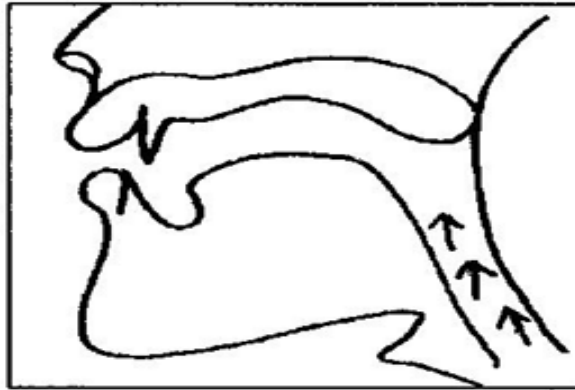


Figure (30)– /ʕ/

On the basis of the basis of the articulatory description of /ʕ/, we can label it as:

a voiced pharyngeal frictionless continuant¹⁹

There are on important allophonic variants of /ʕ/ occur except in respect of the position of the lips which depends on the lip position required by an adjacent vowel.

¹⁹In many traditional and even British books, the sound represented by the letter ʕ has been described as a fricative.

5.7.1.23 The palatal frictionless continuant /j/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /j/, the front of the tongue takes up a position necessary for the articulation of a vowel between front close and front half-close depending upon the closeness or openness of the vowel that follows /j/. The soft palate is raised so as to shut off the nasal passage of air. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice. The tongue moves immediately to the position of the following sound.

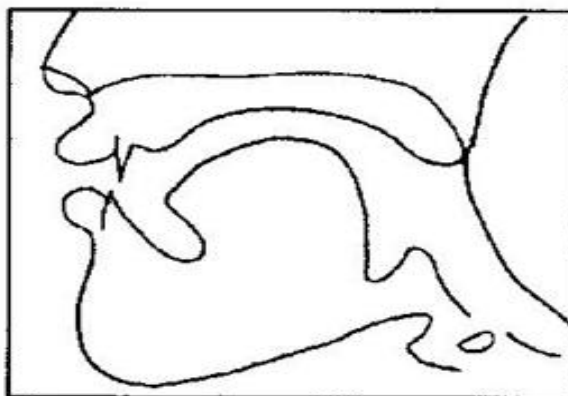


Figure (31)-- /j/

On the basis of the articulatory description of /j/, we can label it as:

a voiced palatal frictionless continuant

The allophones of /j/ are the following:

- a) /j/ is a voiceless [j] when it is preceded by a voiceless consonant as in [jaħja] (proper noun).

5.7.1.24 The labio-velar frictionless continuant /w/

During the articulation of the principal allophone of /w/, the back of the tongue assumes a position required for the articulation of a vowel between back close and back half-close depending upon the closeness or openness of the vowel that follows it. The soft palate is raised so that the nasal passage of air is blocked completely. The tongue moves immediately to the position of the sound that follows /w/. The vocal cords vibrate, producing voice.

On the basis of the articulatory description of /w/, we can label it as:

a voiced labio-velar frictionless continuant

There are no important allophonic variants of /w/ occur.

5.8 Lip-position during the articulation of the consonants of Arabic

Consonant	Lip-spread	Lip-rounded
/b/	/bɪju:t/ (houses)	/bʊr/ (flour)
/ /	/ i:n/ (fig)	/ u: / (mulberry)
/ /	/ ɪju:r/ (birds)	/ a:lɪb/ (student)
/ /	/ i:k/ (cock)	/ ʊb/ (bear-n)
/ /	/ ɪjaʃ/ (loss)	/ ʊr/ (harm)
/k/	/ki:s/ (bag)	/kʊrah/ (ball)
/q/	/qɪja:s/ (measurement)	/qu: / (living)
/ʔ/	/ʔɪna/ (where)	/ʔaʊraq/ (papers)
/dʒ/	/dʒi:l/ (generation)	/dʒʊbn/ (cheese)
/m/	/mɪf ħ/ (key)	/mʊhan ɪs/ (engineer)
/n/	/niabah/ (substitution)	/nu:r/ (light)
/f/	/fi:l/ (elephant)	/fu:l/ (broad bean)
/θ/	/θɪja:b/ (dresses)	/θʊlθ/ (third)
/ð/	/ðɪkra/ (memory)	/ðarah/ (atom)
/ð/	/ðɪʃ/ (limp)	/ðarf/ (envelope)
/s/	/si:rah/ (career)	/sʊʔ/ (evil)
/S/	/Sɪja:m/ (fasting)	/Sa:bu:n/ (soap)
/z/	/zɪʔbaq/ (mercury)	/zʊdʒa:dʒ/ (glass)
/ʃ/	/ʃɪba:m/ (city in Yemen)	/ʃʊkr/ (thankfulness)
/χ/	/χɪju: / (yarns)	/χʊbz/ (bread)
/ʁ/	/ʁɪja:b/ (absence)	/ʁʊla:m/ (boy)

/ħ/	/ħɪ a / (mourning)	/ħʊb/ (love)
/h/	/hɪlɪl/ (crescent)	/hʊda/ (right path)
/l/	/li:m/ (lemon)	/lʊʔlʊʔ/ (peal)
/r/	/rɪba:t/ (tie)	/ru:ħ/ (soul)
/ʕ/	/ʕi: / (festival)	/ʕu: / (lute)
/j/	/ja:smi:n/ (proper noun)	/jɔ:m/ (day)
/w/	/wɪdʒh/ (face)	/wala / (boy)

CHAPTER SIX

A Comparison and Contrast of the Consonant systems of the two languages and its Pedagogical Implications

6.1 General Remarks

No doubt, English and Arabic have two different sound systems. Some of the sounds that occur in English occur in Arabic as well, because no two sound systems can be expected to be one hundred percent different from each other. Since the aim of this research work is to contrast the consonant systems of English and Arabic on the basis of the analysis of the two systems given in chapters 4 and 5, some points of similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages have been listed in this chapter.

In this chapter, we shall attempt a contrastive analysis of the English and Arabic consonant systems. We shall discuss the phonetic and phonological systems of these two languages as far as the consonant sounds are concerned.

The phonology of English taken as a point of reference, as mentioned earlier, is essentially that of Received Pronunciation (RP) as described by A. C. Gimson in his book *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English* (2nd edition, 1976). The point of reference regarding Arabic is based on the words so far available on the phonology of Arabic and also on the researcher's

knowledge of Arabic as a native speaker. Listed below are some phonetic and phonological differences between the two systems.

6.2 Phonetic Differences

The voiceless plosives of English have heavily aspirated allophones which occur when the plosives occur initially in accented syllables. Thus /p/, /t/ and /k/ are heavily aspirated in words like /'pensl/, /pə'tertəʊ/ and /ə'kaʊnt/ respectively. The voiceless plosives that occur in Arabic are unaspirated in whatever phonetic environments they occur. Native speakers of Arabic are therefore likely to use the unaspirated variety of /p/, /t/ and /k/ in their English speech in whatever phonetic environments they occur. This is likely to affect the intelligibility of their English only when they speak to native speakers of English who tend to hear an unaspirated voiceless plosive as a voiced plosive. Within the Arabic-speaking world, this allophonic substitution does not create any problems of unintelligibility.

The major allophones of /t/ and /d/ in English are alveolar plosives. On the other hand, the major allophones of /t/ and /d/ in Arabic are denti-alveolar plosives. Therefore it is very common to hear Yemeni learners of English saying [tɪn] instead of [di:n] and [ɪn] instead of [tɪn], replacing the alveolar plosives by the more familiar denti-alveolar

plosives. This again does not cause any problems of unintelligibility within the Arab world because they do make a distinction between the English [t] and [θ] and [d] and [ð] since [t], [θ], [d] and [ð] are four distinct phonemes in Arabic.

The English phoneme /dʒ/ has an allophone which is [dʒ], the voiced palato-alveolar affricate. The Arabic phoneme (which we have chosen to represent with the symbol /dʒ/ for the sake of transcriptional convenience), on the other hand, has one major allophone which is a voiced palatal affricate. Arabic speakers of English who pronounce the Arabic letter ج as an affricate are likely to use the palatal affricate in their English speech. This again, except to the ears of a trained phonetician, does not cause any problem of unintelligibility.

There are however, a vast majority of Arabic speakers who pronounce the Arabic letter ج as a voiced plosive. The affricate (either palatal or palato-alveolar) just does not occur in their speech at all. These people face a major problem because they systematically substitute [dʒ] in English words by [g], resulting in a lot of confusion and sometimes total unintelligibility. Thus, they say [gʌmp] for *jump*, [gɒn] for *John*, [frɪg] for *fridge*, [bæɡ] for *badge*.

Minimal pairs distinctions like *bag – badge, egg – edge* just do not occur in their speech at all.²⁰

In native varieties of English the two letters *ng* are pronounced [ŋ] (that is, without the voiced velar plosive [g] after [ŋ]) when these two letters end a word and when these two letters occur in the middle of words which are derived from verbs. Thus *singer* is /'sɪŋə/ but *finger* is /'fɪŋɡə/. Native speakers of Arabic pronounce the Arabic combination ن and ج (if they pronounce ج as [g]) as [ŋg], that is, always with a voiced velar plosive following [ŋ]. Thus they pronounce words like /zɑŋɡa'bi:l/ (*ginger*), /zɪŋɡr'ba:r/ (name of a town in Abjan governorate) and so have no problems in pronouncing English words like *hunger* and *finger*. But they do tend to pronounce the two letters *ng* as [ŋg] wherever these two letters occur in an English word. This, it must be pointed out here, does not cause any problem of unintelligibility whatsoever, even to native speakers of English.

Arabic speakers who have no [g] at all in their Arabic speech are confronted with a serious problem. Since they have a voiced palatal affricate and not a voiced velar plosive in their Arabic speech, the sound [ŋ] does not

²⁰We have not included [g] in our list of Arabic consonants in this dissertation since we have chosen to describe Classical Arabic for purposes of this research. But since many of the Yemeni learners of Arabic speak a colloquial variety of Arabic in which [g] occur and not [dʒ], this difference is listed in this chapter.

occur at all in the speech. Most of these replace the English [g] by their voiced palatal affricate and so the orthographic *n* which occurs before the affricate is automatically pronounced as [n]. It is not uncommon to hear *finger* pronounced ['fɪndʒaɛ] and *hunger* pronounced ['hʌndʒaɛ]. These people do face serious problems of unintelligibility as far as their English speech is concerned.

The English phoneme /r/ has a wide variety of allophones in native varieties of British English. It is pronounced variously as [r] (a voiced post-alveolar frictionless continuant in word-initial position), [r] (a voiced post-alveolar fricative in word-medial position preceded by /b/, /d/ and /g/), [r] (a voiceless post-alveolar fricative in word-medial position preceded by a heavily aspirated voiceless plosive) and [ɾ] (a voiced alveolar tap in the intervocalic position and when /r/ is preceded by /θ/). On the other hand, the phoneme /r/ in Arabic has just two allophones [ɾ] and [r], a tap and trill, both articulated as alveolar sounds. The tendency on the part of native speakers of Arabic when they speak English is to use the tap variety [ɾ] wherever /r/ occurs in an English word. We must hasten to add here, however, that their use of [ɾ] wherever /r/ occurs in English does not render their English speech unintelligible at all.

6.3 Phonological Differences

In English [p] and [b] belong to two different phonemes because the two sounds contrast with each other in innumerable minimal pairs like *pin* – *bin*, *pull* – *bull*, etc. On the other hand, in Arabic, the two sounds are in complementary distribution. [p] occurs only word-medially when the following sound is voiceless. /sabt/ = [sapt̪] (Saturday), /ʔabkar/ = [ʔapˤk aˤ] (proper noun) and /ħabs/ = [ħaps] (prison) can be cited as examples. The voiced plosive [b] occurs in all of the phonetic environments like word-initial (as in /bɪnt/ (girl) which is [bɪnt̪]), intervocalically (as in /ka:bi:r/ (big) which is [ka'bi:ɾ]), word-medially but in non-intervocalic position (as in /ʕamba/ (papaya) which is [ʕamba]) and word-finally (as in /kr'ta:b/ which is [kr'ta:b]). Native speakers of Arabic learning English as a foreign language have therefore the tendency to substitute [b] for [p] in their English speech when [p] occurs initially, medially (both intervocalic and non-intervocalic) and finally. It is not at all uncommon to hear *pill* pronounced [bɪl], *supper* pronounced [ʕabaˤ], *compose* pronounced [kam'bo:z] and *cap* pronounced [kæb] in English speech of native speakers of Arabic. This is a serious sound-

substitution because this phonemic substitution is bound to make the English Language in India www.languageinindia.com 353

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speech of native speakers of Arabic totally unintelligible. This ought to be remedied.

The voiceless palato-alveolar sound [tʃ] occurs in English and it is a separate phoneme since it contrasts with [t], [ʃ] and [dʒ]. In fact, the series *chin*, *tin*, *shin* and *gin* establish the phonemic status of all the four sounds listed above. In Arabic, classical as well as colloquial, the voiceless affricate sound just does not exist, even as an allophone. The sound does not form part of the sound system of any variety of Arabic. The natural tendency on the part of native speakers of Arabic learning English as a foreign language is to substitute the [tʃ] sound by [ʃ], the fricative articulated in the same place and which does form part of the sound system of Arabic. Thus *chin* is [ʃɪn] in Arabic English, *cheat* is [ʃi:t] and *catch* is [kæʃ]. The three examples listed above (*chin* – *shin*, *cheat* – *sheet* and *catch* – *cash*) are minimal pairs establishing the contrast between [tʃ] and [ʃ]. Such minimal pair distinction is obliterated in Arabic English because of the total absence of the affricate [tʃ] from the sound system of Arabic. This, like the [p] – [b] substitution discussed above, is an example of a serious sound-substitution which ought to be remedied if Arabic English has to be intelligible.

In English the voiced alveolar nasal [n] and the voiced velar nasal [ŋ] belong to two separate phonemes because of the existence of minimal pairs

like *sin* and *sing*, *win* and *wing*, etc. In Arabic, on the other hand, the two sounds are allophones of the same phoneme, [ŋ] occurring only before [k]²¹ and [q], and [n] occurring elsewhere. So native speakers of Arabic learning English have no problem whatever in pronouncing words like *bank*, *uncle*, *hunger* and *finger* because these words fit neatly into their native Arabic phonological system. But they do have a problem while pronouncing words like *sing* and *singing*. They pronounce these words with a [ŋg]. But this pronunciation does not lead to unintelligibility. So a teacher of English need not bother too much about this substitution.

The voiced labio-dental fricative [v] occurring in English as a phoneme, distinct from its voiceless counterpart [f]. These are minimal pairs like *fat* and *vat*, establishing the phonemic status of [f] and [v]. In Arabic, both classical and colloquial, the voiced fricative [v] just does not occur. Many native speakers of Arabic, therefore, have the tendency to use [f] in place of [v] in whatever position in a word [v] occurs. Thus we hear [fa:st] in place of [va:st], [li:f] in place of [li:v], ['i:fən] in place of ['i:vən], etc. This, needless to say, is a serious sound-substitution since it results in minimal pair distinction being lost and therefore ought to be remedied.

²¹[ŋ] occurs also before [g] in colloquial varieties of Arabic in which [g] is used in places of the classical Arabic [ǧ].

The sounds [s] and [z] occur in both Arabic and English and in both the languages the minimal pairs like sip – zip (English) and [mɪsmaːɛ] (nail) and [mɪzmaːɛ] (flute) (Arabic). So Arabs learning of English have no problems in articulating the two alveolar fricative sounds. But the different phonetic realizations of the plural morpheme of regular nouns of English are a bit of a problem to Yemeni learners of English. They do pronounce *dogs* and *cabs* properly, may be because of the voiced plosives that end the singular forms of these words. But it is not uncommon to hear *sons*, *sums* and *bells* being pronounced as [sʌns], [sʌms] and [bels] respectively, with a voiceless alveolar fricative at the end. This substitution, no doubt, does not affect the intelligibility of Yemeni English, but one feels that the different phonological shapes of the plural morpheme ought to be taught to Arabic learners of English.

The voiced palato-alveolar fricative [ʒ] has phonemic status in English, though its frequency of occurrence is limited and is also restricted to the word-medial position. Because of its total absence from the phonological system of Arabic, Arabic speakers of English tend to replace it by [ʃ], its voiceless counterpart. Thus we hear words like *occasion*, *measure*, *leisure* and *pleasure* with a [ʃ] in them. This substitution does not affect the intelligibility of Arabic English and therefore need not cause serious concern to teachers of English to native speakers of Arabic.

The phoneme /r/ is a source of difficulty to many Arab learners of English. In Arabic, the phoneme /r/ has just two allophones, the tap [ɾ] and the trill [r]. In English, on the other hand, the trilled [r] does not occur at all (except in Scottish English, which is not our concern in this dissertation) and the tap [ɾ] occurs in English intervocalically and after [θ]. The other three allophones of /r/ ([r], the voiced palato-alveolar frictionless continuant, [r], the voiced post-alveolar fricative and [r], the voiceless post-alveolar fricative) just do not occur in Arabic therefore, Arabic speakers of English use the tap variety [ɾ] wherever /r/ occurs in English. Further, in English, /r/ is pronounced only when orthographic *r* or *rr* is followed by a vowel. Final orthographic *r* or *r + mute vowel* is never pronounced. Arabic speakers of English, since they are used to a spelling-pronunciation, tend to pronounce the letter *r* wherever it occurs in a word. Neither the use of [ɾ] wherever /r/ occurs in a word nor pronouncing /r/ wherever *r* is found in the spelling seems to affect the intelligibility of Arabic English.

In English, the phoneme /l/ has four allophones, the dental lateral [l], voiceless [l̥], clear [l] and dark [ɫ]. In Arabic, on the other hand, the dark [ɫ] occurs only in one word which is /ʔaɫɫah/ (God) and the clear [l] occurs in all the other words in which /l/ occurs. Therefore, Arab speakers of English

use the clear [l] wherever /l/ occurs in English. But this does not render Arabic English unintelligible.

The phoneme /w/ in English has a voiceless allophone when it occurs preceded by aspirated voiceless plosives or when it is followed by an orthographic *h*. This allophone does not occur in Arabic and so Arabic speakers of English use just the voiced allophone of the phoneme /w/.

The sound [t] and [d] occur in English as two separate phonemes with minimal pairs like *teem* [ti:m] and *deem* [di:m]. Arabic learners of English have no problems in articulating these two alveolar plosive sounds except perhaps that many Arabic speakers substitute the English alveolar plosives by the denti-alveolar plosives that occur in Arabic. But the different phonetic realizations of the past tense marker morphemes of regular verbs of English are a bit of a problem to Yemeni learners of English. It is not uncommon to them *cooked*, *pushed* and *attached* being pronounced as [kʊkd], [pʊʃd] and [ə'tæʃd] respectively, with a voiced alveolar fricative at the end. This substitution, no doubt, does not affect the intelligibility of Yemeni English, but one feels that the different phonological shapes of the past tense morpheme ought to be taught to Arabic learners of English.

Arabic permits consonants to occur both single and geminated (= doubled) between vowels in a word. The word /ʃæ a/ (the mark ّ is called

/ʃæ a/) itself is an example of the consonant / / occurring geminated. For example, the /l/ is single in the word *Ali* (proper noun) but it is geminated in the word /kʊlli:jæh/ (college). The / / is single in the word *Huda* (proper noun) but it is geminated in the word /ʃædda/. In English, on the other hand, consonants never occur geminated in the intervocalic position. Even if the letter appears twice in the written forms of words (like *pp* in *supper*, *bb* in *rubber*, *gg* in *beggar*, *mm* in *summer*, *nn* in *running*, *ll* in *pulley*, *cc* in *account*, etc.) the two letters represent a single sound in the pronunciation of the word. Within a word, between vowels, consonants in English always occur single. At word-boundaries, however, when one word ends in a certain consonant and the second word begins with the same consonant that ends the previous word, the consonant is pronounced long or doubled. For example, if someone advises someone else to rob somebody called *Badr*, he will say *Rob Badr*, with a doubled /b/ at the boundary between the two words. In the expression “Some mad person....”, the /m/ will be doubled in speech, but within a word the phenomenon of gemination or doubling never occurs in English. Since Arabic permits both single and doubled consonants intervocalically and since English orthography permits the same consonant letter to be written twice, the Arab tendency will be to pronounce a single *t* as /t/ and a doubled *tt* as /tt/.

6.4 Consonant Clusters in English and Arabic

English permits consonant clusters at the beginning and end of syllables, but in Arabic, consonant clusters can occur only at the end of syllable and that too, only clusters made up of just two consonants.

Initial consonant clusters in English can be made of either two or three consonants and final clusters can be made up of two, three or four consonants.

The following are some examples of clusters that occur in English:

/pr-/	/pres/	/str-/	/stri:t/
/-mp/	/læmp/	/-lp/	/help/
/-skt/	/a:skt/	/-kts/	/ækts/
/-ksts/	/teksts/	/-mpts/	/tempt/

Arabic, on the other hand, does not permit initial consonant clusters at all.

There can be just one word-initial consonant in any Arabic word. In the syllable-final position, Arabic permits consonant clusters, but these clusters can be made up of just two consonants. Given below are some of the final consonant clusters permissible in Arabic.

/-zq/	/rɪzq/ (fortune)
/-ldʒ/	/θaldʒ/ (snow)

/-rs/ / ærs/ (lesson)

/-fs/ /næfs/ (soul)

This difference between the English Arabic systems is likely to create problems of pronunciation to native speakers of Arabic learning English as a foreign language. It is likely that they break the cluster by inserting a vowel between the consonants forming the cluster. By doing this, they are increasing the number of syllables in a word by one (if /stri:t/ is pronounced /ɪstri:t/, the word has an extra syllable) and this is bound to affect the speech-rhythm of their English. Though Arabic does permit syllable-final consonant clusters, these clusters are made up of just two consonants, while English permits up to four consonants to cluster together at the end of a syllable. A thorough and exhaustive list of the Arabic consonant clusters will reveal the differences between the clusters that are permissible in English and those that are permissible in Arabic. For example, /ðz/ is cluster that occurs in English (as in *clothes* /kləʊðz/) but I do not think this cluster is a permissible one in Arabic, because most Arabic speakers pronounce the word *clothes* as /kləʊðɪz/. To cite another example, /ŋks/ is a permissible cluster in English, but since Arabic does not permit more than two consonants to form a cluster at the end of a syllable, most Arabic speakers pronounce the word *thanks* as /'θæŋkɪs/. It is likely that all clusters made up of three and four consonants at

the end of a syllable and those two-consonant clusters that occur in English but not in Arabic will present difficulties to native speakers of Arabic learning English.

6.5 Conclusion

We have made an elaborate list of the differences between the consonant systems of English and Arabic and we are now in a position to predict the problems in pronouncing individual consonants and cluster of consonants faced by Arabic learners of English. The remedial measures are in the hands of the teachers. Bearing in mind the dissimilarities between the two language systems, a teacher can prepare remedial drills to teach the problem sounds of English to native speakers of Arabic.

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