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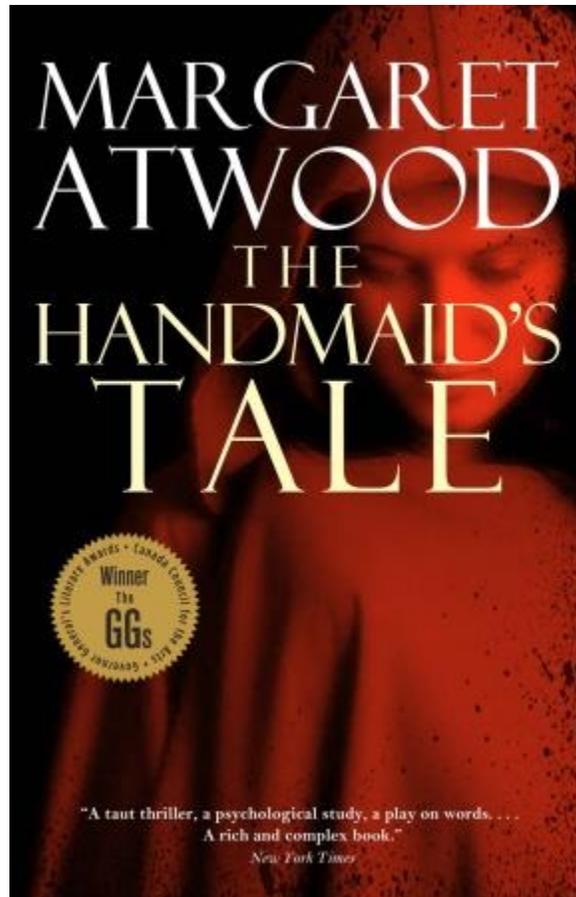
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Portrayal of Marginalized Women in Atwood's
The Handmaid's Tale

Aarti Sahu, Ph.D. Scholar



Abstract

Margaret Atwood is a widely acclaimed feministic writer of Canada. Her novel *The Handmaid's Tale* is a highly provocative, dystopian fiction that points out the subjugated condition of women under patriarchal dominance. She stresses the loss of female identity in a male dominant society. This is Atwood's futuristic novel which portrays emotional and physical marginalization and coercion of women in a totalitarian regime called Gilead. Atwood in her dystopian novel *The Handmaid's Tale* has depicted the later period of twentieth century in which she portrays the end of the American regime. She shows that in the twentieth century the rule of

United States of America has been eradicated by the Republic of Gilead, a more oppressive regime, a monolithic theocracy. Though Gilead makes an assertion to provide a better society for human survival, its main desideratum seems to be to re-populate the state in which sterility has become a norm as the aftermath of a proliferative use of sexual and surgical machines for abortion, chemical pollution and of overuse of harmful radioactive products at large. This paper tries to show how Atwood has exposed the terrible oppression that women undergo in many totalitarian regimes in the world.

Keywords: Oppression of Women, Totalitarian Regime, Theocratic State, Coercion of Women

Women – Procreative Vessels Only?

In Gilead male patriarchal authorities have been luxuriating in all divine rights and their only armament of the rule is ‘women oppression’. Atwood has shown female marginalization and subjugation by the absolute patriarchy of Gilead in the form of different leaders as ‘Commanders’, ‘Angels’, ‘Eyes’, and female ‘guardians’ - who are there for prolonging the unjust treatment of women. In this theocratic state women are merely reduced to the status of child-bearing machines. They are merely procreative vessels for Gilead.

The Handmaid’s Tale

The story of *The Handmaid’s Tale* is the story of a woman who is intercepted by Gilead police while crossing the border to escape to Canada from this despotic rule; along with her husband and her little daughter. She was brought to a ‘Red Centre’ where all handmaids are being drilled to become good handmaids and to accept the theocracy of Gilead - as the secure state for women. This is the centre where their catechism is being done by Gilead by showing films of female atrocities during the American regime. Gilead will be where “women tied up or chained or with dog collars around their necks, women hanging from trees,women being raped, beaten up, killed” (HT 128). They are told that their ability to procreate is of paramount importance because disease and radioactive pollution have led to a catastrophic decline in the birthrate of the Gilead. Handmaid does not know what exactly has happened to her husband and where her daughter is? She is sent to Commander Fred’s house to bear a child with him and being called as Offred.

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Subordinated and Subjugated

Women's position in Gilead is subordinated and subjugated because they are not allowed to keep their own names which are generally considered the major source of someone's identity. Their names have been obliterated from their memories by using some psychological treatments. The memories of the handmaid's daughter and her husband are very weak. In her mind she feels "My name isn't Offred, I have another name, which nobody uses now because it's forbidden.....I keep the knowledge of this name like something hidden, some treasure I'll come back to dig up, one day. I think of this name as buried". (HT 94) These are often being addressed after the name of their commanders to whom they are assigned for child bearing as for Fred 'Offred' and for Oglen 'Ofglen', for Warren 'Ofwarren', etc. These handmaids are the marginalized section of the Gilead as they are disunited in different categories.

Categories of Women

The first category is of 'Handmaids'; this category is very substantial because it emblemizes a fertile lot which can repopulate Gilead. As Lucy M. Freibert in her essay "Control and Creativity: The Politics of Risk in Margaret Atwood's *The Handmaid's Tale*," describes "Sexual duties fall to the red-clad Handmaids, drilled in self-denial and renunciation and reduced to fertility machines" (Freibert 281).

The second category is of the wives of elite class commanders.

The third are the 'Marthas'; these are the adolescent and negligent young women who cannot produce children but work as housemaids.

Fourth are the 'Unwomen' who cannot produce children and sent to the colonies to clear the nuclear toxic waste because of their old age.

Fifth category is the wives of the upper class menials called 'Econowives' who can enjoy certain kind of freedom, provided they are fertile. There are 'Aunts' in Gilead to control the handmaids in the 'Red Centre'. All men are free from this categorization in Gilead. No man is

sterile in Gilead; only a woman can be infertile or barren. She does not have her own identity, and she is being identified by her commander only.

Under Supreme Surveillance

This marginalized section of Gilead's society is always under supreme surveillance. They are being watched by the 'Eye', the secret police of Gilead. There are different checkpoints on the roads and Angels, men in uniform, deployed in front of the Commander's house to keep a vigilant eye on the Handmaids and each and every movement of theirs. "The Angels stood outside it with their backs to us. They were objects of fear to us" (HT 14). Handmaids are not allowed to talk even with each other. They are supposed to be silent in their lifetime: lying "in the army cots that had been set up in rows, with spaces between so we could not talk" (HT 13). These Handmaids are the passive objects who do not have the freedom to express their feelings or emotions. They are supposed to curb their desire to talk. "There is a lot that doesn't bear thinking about. Thinking can hurt your chances". (HT 17) Talking to each other is a severe crime in Gilead because it suggests rebellion against it.

Dress Code

In Gilead theocracy, marginalization is clear from the dress code for women, but men are free to dress according to their craving while women are prohibited to use colorful dresses. Handmaids are given the red gown as a symbol of their reproductive function with white wings so that they cannot see others or will not be seen by others. "Everything except the wings around my face is red: the color of blood.....The white wings too are prescribed issue; they are to keep us from seeing, but also from being seen" (HT 18). The housemaids are allowed to wear green gowns "Martha's dress, which is dull green, like a surgeon's gown of the time before" (HT 19).

Blue color is for wives of commanders; they wear blue gowns and maintain the gardens in the commanders' houses and for whom to attend public functions like Prayvaganzas, Salvagings and 'ceremonies' along with the handmaids are mandatory. "The blue-clad Wives of the Commanders preside over their homes and gardens, and attend public functions such as the Prayvaganzas, Salvaging and childbirth" (Freibert 281). The brown color dress is for 'Aunts', who keep vigilance over the handmaids in the 'Red Centre'. 'Econowives' have to wear blue,

green, and red striped dress. Gray color is for the 'unwoman' who are sent to the colonies to clean up radioactive spill. "The gray-clad Unwoman, those who refuse to cooperate with the system, work in the colonies, cleaning up the city ghettos, toxic dumps" (Freibert 281). The future of the widows in Gilead is unknown or in limbo.

Effect and Purpose of Colour Coding

Such color coding of the dress does not let women mix with each other. Women seem disunited in *The Handmaid's Tale* as the Housemaids are jealous of the red gown because it shows them their inability of reproduction. Rita, a Martha, does not behave well to the handmaid in the commander's house because of her envy of the handmaid: "Her face might be kindly if she would smile. But the frown isn't personal: it's the red dress she disapproves of, and what it stands for" (HT 20). Even the Commander's wife also expressed her dislike of Offred because of her fertility power: "She didn't step aside to let me in, she just stood there in the doorway, blocking the entrance. She wanted me to feel that I could not come in to the house unless she said so" (HT 23). Other envies which the handmaids have to face are from the 'Econowives' as they do not like the importance being given to the handmaids irrespective of their status. Stephanie Barbe Hammer in her essay "The World as it will Be? Female Satire and the Technology of Power in *The Handmaid's Tale*" says "After all, Atwood's narrative focuses specially on men's domination of women by means of other women" (Hammer 39). Aunts in Gilead are kept to tame Handmaids so that they cannot think of rebellion. Stephanie Hammer further says, "The sadistic aunts are frustrated older women who brutalize their younger, fertile charges out of jealousy and fear" (Hammer 41).

Objectification and Dehumanization of Women

In this novel Atwood shows the objectification and dehumanization of women as they are being sent to the colonies to clear the nuclear waste if they cannot bear a child. It is women who are given the 'conditioned life' as each handmaid will be given only three chances to get pregnant; if she does not get pregnant in her three chances she will be declared as 'unwoman' and unwoman has no right to live in Gilead. Secondly, if they produce a deformed baby called 'unbaby', women are responsible for the unbaby not the harmful radioactive pollution and man.

“Go to the Colonies, Rita said. They have the choice. With the unwoman, and starve to death and Lord knows what all?” (HT 20).

Transgressive Patriarchal Dominance

In this novel Atwood shows transgressive patriarchal dominance over the women. The use of different electronic devices is common in *The Handmaid's Tale* to control women such as surveillance cameras in the shopping malls and electric prods in the hands of 'Aunts'. “Aunt Sara and Aunt Elizabeth patrolled, they had electric cattle prods slung on thongs from their belts” (HT 14). The Handmaids are not given any financial help. Their jobs have been snatched and their bank accounts have been sealed. They do not have any financial independence. Intense gender inequalities are projected by Atwood by exhibiting the demoted status of the women. Women are shown as the second class citizens in the novel. Because of such patriarchal suppression women feel disassociated from their body. As K. Reshmi in her “Ecofeministic Vision: A study of Margaret Atwood's *Surfacing* and *The Handmaid's Tale*” has also said that “The handmaid's have become the complete property of the state and are utilized as a national resource” (Reshmi 65). Atwood through this novel shows her opposition against patriarchal monopolization over women. She questions the issue as to why men are given the power to subdue the women along with the other contemporary issues like pornography, power politics, abortions, rape and toxic waste etc. in the novel. Through *The Handmaid's Tale*, Atwood poses questions of female oppression and their marginalization in almost all totalitarian states.

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A Study to Assess English Language Related Academic Stress among Students Who Have Moved To English Medium from Vernacular Medium

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Abstract

The present highly competitive world throws many new academic challenges to the current generation. Crossing these barriers to acquire the expected academic performance is a highly stressful scenario. These academic stressors have a destructive effect on the psychological and physical well being of the students. English, the lingua Franca, defines the success of their learning outcomes. English ability is an important factor that influences the academic performance. In India, with all the teaching – learning and assessment process being preferably done in English, attaining the expected standard to attain a hassle free communication both in the class rooms and in the examinations is essential. Many students who have had studied in regional language and have had little exposure to English learning are likely to suffer from academic stress due to lack of expected English ability when they are changed to English medium of learning. The present study is an assessment done to identify level of English language related academic stress.

The sample consists of students who have moved to English medium from vernacular medium and have verbalized stress on interaction. An assessment of their English Language related academic stress was done using a modified version of the Scale for Assessing Academic Stress (SAAS) constructed by Dr. Uday K. Sinha, et al., Department of Psychiatry & Mental Health, Institute of Medicine, Kathmandu, Nepal. The tool is a self report assessment for indicators of stress. On receiving the willingness from the participants, a vernacular translated copy of the tool was administered individually along with a proforma to collect the basic demographic details. The different aspects of language associated academic stress such as

performing examination in English, performing learning tasks in English, teacher – student relationship, peer relationship were identified.

The results of the study show that all participants, 28 had expressed language related academic stress, with most of them, 17 (61%) falling into the category of mild and 6 (24%) facing severe stress and 4(14%) with moderate stress while only 1(3%) had admitted of very severe stress.

Proper identification of English language related academic stress is important to combat further consequences such as anxiety, depression and to lead them to a better coping strategy.

Key words: English language related academic stress, students.

Introduction

Schooling and learning in yesteryears could have been a much more joyful and less stress creating experience. Students' learning was more for the sake of self enrichment and less for the sake of personal achievements. The present highly competitive world throws many new academic challenges to the current generation. Constant exposure to academic commitments, heavier homework load, financial pressures, assessments, competitions and challenges batter the students with new stressors that were unseen before. Also, worrying about entry into a good course and need for sufficient credits to qualify them pressurizes many students. Stressors are defined as a situation that disturbs the day to day functioning which needs adjustment (Auerbach and Grambling, 1998). Similarly, a study done by Krishan Lal on the academic stress among adolescent in relation to intelligence and demographic factors academic stress defines academic stress as “a mental distress with respect to some anticipated frustration associated with academic failure or even unawareness to the possibility of such failure.”(2014)

Academic stress can be recognized in the form of anxiety, sleep deprivation impairment of health tension, fear, depression and more, which disturbs their everyday life. These academic stressors have a destructive effect on the mental and physical health of the students. Language

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acquisition could be stressful experience. English, the lingua Franca, defines the success of their learning outcomes. English language ability is an important factor that influences the academic performance. In India, with all the teaching – learning and assessment process being preferably done in English, attaining the expected standard for a hassle free communication both in the class rooms and in the examinations is essential. Many students who have had studied in regional language and have had little exposure to English learning are likely to suffer from academic stress due to lack of expected English ability when they are changed to English medium of learning (Maria Clarisa Lucero-Ulrich, 2014).

In this transitional phase, there are various sources of English language related academic stress. The most common reason could be the change of environment. The new place with more number of speakers of the language English could mount on the stress when they may lack necessary communication skills. Freedom of expression is naturally curbed from within. The adjustment time of these children gets longer. Secondly, they may be led into strained relationship with their classmates and teachers. Friendship and peer support a wonderful strategy to break the burden of academic stress could be absent and act reversely in adding on the burden. The warmth and supportive help to overcome these environmental changes is devoid to them. Aloofness is commonly noted in such students. Adolescence and preadolescent period characterized by basked friendship turns out to be an agonized experience. Hatred in attending schools and bunking classes are commonly noted. (Brown H D, 1994)

Much affected could be their learning process. Studies point out that language difference creates mismatch in learning styles and also learning disability (Elizabeth Scott, M.S, 2014). Grasping a new language is a slow process, acquiring the necessary language proficiency takes a long period but as for these students move on the English medium the entire learning is channelized through English which could cause a language shock (Si Fa, 2010). Mostly they could be a minority group who sparingly or may never admit their need for bilingual teaching or additional support. There are chances of their need being overlooked by teachers when they may mistake them to be slow learners (Sarah Mariah Fisher, 2009).

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Examination is a stressful period for all (Prema Prasad, 2013) When students lack proficiency in English, they may even find it more pressurizing to write the exam in English. Even in writing exams of other subjects, not only content specific knowledge is assessed but the skill to project information is judged. Clarity, coherence of idea, substantiation of point is established only when they are able to free use a language. Inability to reproduce in exam would mount stress expressed in the form of sleep deprivation physical sickness and frustration.(Liza Frenett, 2015)

Objectives

- To assess various levels of English language related academic stress.
- To understand the various dimensions of English language related academic stress.

Methodology

A convenient sampling technique was used to select the samples. The sample consists of 28 students from standard 6th to 10th who have moved to English medium from vernacular medium of learning. Since it was perceived to be difficult to locate samples as many matriculation schools may not have students entry from other medium, all samples were taken from the Government Hr. Secondary School, Moovarasampet, Chennai - 91 as the school has a separate English section introduced at 6th std level. The school authority was approached in person by the investigator and consent was received to conduct the study.

On the day of assessment, the investigator went to each of the English medium classes from 6th to 10th and collected the eligible students outside the classroom. The students were seated comfortably; a rapport was built with them and then the purpose of the study was explained.

An assessment of their English language related academic stress was done using a modified version of the Scale for Assessing Academic Stress (SAAS) constructed by Dr. Uday K. Sinha et al., Department of Psychiatry & Mental Health, Institute of Medicine, Kathmandu, Nepal (2001). The tool is a self assessment on their perceived level of academic stress. The tool

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consists of statements on academic stress related to learning in English, writing examination in English, influence of English language in relationship with peers, teacher. The tool had a five point rating scale with a maximum score of 5 for an answer of strongly agree, 4 for agree, 3 for not sure, 2 for disagree and 1 for strongly agree. The entire tool had 16 statements with a total score of 80 denoting severe stress. The tool was translated into Tamil for better understanding. A basic profile comprising their age, gender, class, duration of study in English medium, reason for change of medium was received before the assessment.

Discussion

TABLE:1 - PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF THE PARTICIPANTS:

S.N O	VARIABLE	TOTAL NO. (28)	PERCENTAGE
1	AGE (YEARS)		
	11 -13	15	53%
	14 -15	8	29%
	16 -17	5	18%
2	SEX		
	BOYS	12	43%
	GIRLS	16	57%
3	CLASS (STANDARD)		
	6 -8 MIDDLE SCHOOL	12	43%
	9 – 10 HIGH SCHOOL	12	43%
	11 -12 HIGHER SECONDARY	4	14%
4	DURATION OF STUDY IN ENGLISH MEDIUM		

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	1 -2 (YEARS)	4	14%
	3 – 4 (YEARS)	15	54 %
	5 – ABOVE (YEARS)	9	32%
5	REASON FOR CHANGE OF MEDIUM		
	PARENTS’ CHOICE	8	29%
	PERSONAL INTEREST	20	71%

The above table shows the analysis of demographic details. Considering the age of the participants, most of them, 15 (53%) were in the age group of 11 -13 while 8 (29%) were in the age group of 14 – 15 and a minimum of 5 (18%) were in the age group of 16 -17. Majority of the participants were girls, 16 (57%). Analyses on the class standard of the participants shows that an equal number of 12 (43%) were from both middle school and high school levels and a least of 4 (14%) were from higher secondary level.

With regard to the duration of study in English medium, a maximum of 15 (54%) have had 3-4 years of exposure to English medium of learning, 9 (32%) have had an exposure of more than 5 years and 4 (14%) have had 1-2 years of exposure. Most of the participants, 20 (71%) had opted to move to English medium on their personal interest while 8 (29%) had moved on parents’ choice.

TABLE. 2 - PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE RELATED ACADEMIC STRESS AMONG STUDENTS CHANGED TO ENGLISH MEDIUM OF LEARNING:

S. No	LEVEL	TOTAL NO. (28)	PERCENTAGE
1	MILD (16 -32)	17	61 %
2	MODERATE(33 -48)	4	14%
3	SEVERE (49 -64)	6	21%

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4	VERY SEVERE (65 – 80)	1	4%
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Mean Value: 35

The above table shows the analysis on the level of stress, it is inferred that a total of 11 participants had scored higher than the mean score of 34.8. All participants, 28 had expressed language related academic stress, with most of them, 17 (61%) falling into the category of mild and 6 (24%) facing severe stress and 4(14%) with moderate stress while only 1(3%) had admitted of very severe stress.

TABLE: 3 - GENDER WISE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE RELATED ACADEMIC STRESS AMONG STUDENTS CHANGED TO ENGLISH MEDIUM OF LEARNING:

S. No	LEVEL	BOYS (n13)	PERCENTAGE	GIRLS (n 15)	PERCENTAGE
1	MILD (16 -32)	10	77%	7	46%
2	MODERATE(33 -48)	0	0%	4	27%
3	SEVERE (49 -64)	2	15%	4	27%
4	VERY SEVERE (65 – 80)	1	8%	0	0%

Gender wise distribution shows that the female student participants were slightly higher 15 (54%) than the male students, 13(46%). Of those in the mild category, majority 10 (77%) were boys whereas girls were predominant in moderate and severe levels of stress with an equal number of 4 (27%) in each category. Among boys none had a moderate level of stress, whereas among girls none had a severe level of stress and one of the boys (8%) had a very severe level of stress.

TABLE :4 – PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS DIMENSIONS OF LANGUAGE RELATED ACADEMIC STRESS.

S. NO	DIMENSION	MILD		MODERATE		SEVERE		VERY SEVERE	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	PERFORMING EXAMINATION IN ENGLISH	10	36%	2	7%	9	32%	7	25%
2	PERFORMING LEARNING TASKS IN ENGLISH	7	25%	10	36%	10	36%	1	3%
3	TEACHER – STUDENT RELATIONSHIP	9	32%	11	39%	5	18%	3	11%
4	PEER RELATIONSHIP	15	54%	3	11%	9	32%	1	3%

Altogether four dimensions were identified in English language related academic stress such as performing examination in English, performing learning tasks in English, teacher – student relationship, peer relationship. Item 2, 4, 5,6,10,12,15,16 were on learning task difficulties in English language such as lack of understanding, lack of clarity heavy work load, loss of interest, loss of confidence etc. An equal number of 10 (36%) students had expressed moderate and severe stress while one had very severe stress. Statement items 8, 11 were related to performing examination in English surfacing worrying about grades, difficulty in writing. The scores show that 9 (32%) had severe stress and 7 (25%) had very severe stress. Similarly, item 1, 3, 9 and 14 were related to stress caused due to inability to communicate to teachers in English reflecting higher expectation of teachers, lack of attention, penalizing attitude. With regard to it, a maximum of 11 (39%) students had moderate stress while 5 (18%) had severe and 3 (11%) had very severe stress. Likewise, item 7, 13 were related to stress caused due to inability to communicate to class mates in English to take their support. 9(32%) of them had severe stress related to it.

Conclusion

Identification of language related academic stressors will help to imply appropriate strategies to allow students to cope with academic stress. Provision of language bridge programme, remedial learning sessions can be ideal strategies for classroom. Similarly concern words of teachers, moderation on corrections, sufficient motivation, confidence building task, practice of bilingual teaching can help the students psychologically (Sarah Spromberg, 2011). Also knowing the various levels of stress will help the teachers to discretely decide whether the students need additional guidance, or help from counselors

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Typological Characteristics of Liangmai Language

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Abstract

This paper investigates the typological perspective of Liangmai, a language of the Tibeto-Burman family which is spoken in the states of Manipur and Nagaland in the northeastern region of India. The language has SOV type of word order. The goal of the present paper is to examine the typological characteristics of the language in the light of Greenberg's principles of language universals and see the features it attests to as a verb final language.

Key words: Liangmai, Tibeto-Burman, Language Universals, Agglutinative, Typology, Word Order, Tense, Aspect.

1. Introduction

Liangmai is a Tibeto-Burman (henceforth TB) language which is of the Kuki-Chin-Naga sub group (Bradley 1997). The bulk of Liangmai speaking population resides in the Tamenglong and Senapati districts of Manipur and Peren district of Nagaland. According to 2001 census the total Liangmai speaker was 34,232. It is one of the ethnic groups of the 'Zelianrong', a collective term given to embrace the Zeme, Liangmai, Rongmei and Puimei under one generic term. Grierson (1903), in his Linguistic Survey of India, assigned each of the Naga language a definite place in the family of TB languages. According to him, between Angami-Naga and the Bodo languages there is a group, which he calls the Naga-Bodo group, bridging over the difference between the characteristic features of the two forms of speech, and similarly, between Angami-Naga and the Kuki languages there is another group which he calls the Naga-Kuki group. The Naga-Bodo group consists of two main languages, viz., Mikir and Kachcha Naga. Subordinate languages closely akin to but not dialects, of, Kachcha Naga, are Kabui Naga and Khoirao Naga. He did some work on 'Kachcha Naga' or 'Empeo' and 'Kabui' or 'Kapwi' and the language of specimen he used for 'Kachcha Naga' is Zeme and for the 'Kabui' he used Rongmei. May be he was not aware of the fact that 'Kachcha Naga' clubbed

together Zeme and Liangmai and ‘Kabui’ represent Rongmei and Puimei, and these are separate languages though closely related. In this way Liangmai was missed out and no work was done on it.

Interestingly, some vocabularies of Liangmai are found in Linguistic Survey of India Vol. III, Part II, page 480, listed under ‘Kwoireng or Liyang’. Another important point to be clarified here is that ‘Kwoireng’ and ‘Liyang’ are not the same language. The language of the Kwoireng is certainly a form of Kuki; however Liyang is a Naga language closely related with Kacha Naga and Kabui. This distinction between Kwoireng and Liyang was rightly pointed out by Grierson himself. The words used in the list are of Liyang (Liangmai), and that particular variety is now the standard variety of the Liangmai.

The goal of the present paper is to represent the typological characteristics of Liangmai in the light of the Greenberg’s (1963) principles of language universals. The language exhibits many similar characteristics with other TB language spoken in the northeastern part of India. It shares many genetic features with other TB languages, which includes phonemic tone, agglutinative verb morphology, verb derivational suffixes, nominalization, noun classifier system, lack of gender marking, Subject Object Verb (SOV) word order, aspect, rather than tense marking, and many more.

2. Basic Word Order

The basic constituent order or word order of Liangmai is SOV, i.e. the verb occurs in the final position of the sentence.

2a. Intransitive Verb: S V

- | | | | |
|----|------------|-------------------|------|
| 1. | i | c ^h ap | e |
| | I.1S-Nom | stand | Decl |
| | ‘I stand.’ | | |
| 2. | pa | zi | mide |

S/he.3S-Nom sleep Perf
 ‘S/he has slept.’

2b. Transitive Verb: S O V

3. pa zao sak e
 S/he.3S-Nom wine-Acc drink Decl
 ‘S/he drinks wine.’

4. ben-niu c^hagan laŋ-bam e
 Ben.3FS-Erg curry-Acc cook-Prog Decl
 ‘Ben is cooking curry.’

2c. Ditransitive Verb: S IO DO V

5. jon-niu ben-tu ariak pi e
 john.3MS-Erg Ben-3FS-Acc book give Decl-pres
 ‘John gives a book to Ben.’

6. i-niu ben-leŋ c^halui t^hiu e
 I.1PS-Erg Ben-3FS-Dat song sing Decl-pres
 ‘I sing a song for Ben.’

Greenberg’s Universal 1 states that “*In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object*”. The basic constituent order or word order of Liangmai sentence or a clause is SOV as we see in the constructions above. **Greenberg’s Universal 4** states that “*If in a language the verb follows both the nominal subject and nominal object as a dominant order, the language almost always has a case system*”. The constructions above are in accordance with Greenberg’s universals 1 and 4.

3. Word Order in Different Sentence Types

3a. Declarative Sentence

In declarative sentences the basic constituent order or the word order is SOV in Liangmai.

7.	i	tei	tiu	e
	I-1PS	rice	eat	Decl
	‘I eat rice.’			

3b. Imperative Sentence

The word order in imperative sentence is SOV.

8.	ətu	c ^h arapen	pi	lo
	1PS-Dat	flower	give	Imp
	‘Give me flower.’			

3c. Interrogative Sentence

Liangmai has interrogative pronouns viz; **sou** ‘*who*’ and **de** ‘*what*’. The question particles **ma** and **lo** are suffixed at the end of interrogative constructions. The word order in interrogative sentences is SOV and there is no obligatory position or wh-movement but scrambling of wh-word is allowed.

3c.1. Questioning the Subject: Wh OV

9.	sou-niu	tasiŋbaŋ	hui	lo
	Who-Erg	tree-Acc	cut	Imp
	‘Who cut the tree?’			

3c.2. Questioning the Direct Object: S Wh V

10.	pa-niu	de	din	lo
	S/he-3S-Erg	what	say	Imp
	‘What did s/he say?’			

‘I make him run’

The verb root **-pi**, meaning ‘give’ function as the causative marker in Liangmai. It occurs before the main verb.

5. Negative Sentences

Negation in Liangmai is formed by suffixation of negative markers **-lak** and **-mak** to the main verb. **-mak** is used in realized aspect and it is associated with non-future construction.

16. jon t^hainai skul tadmak e
John-3SM-Nom today school go-Neg Decl
‘John doesn’t go to school today.’

17. pa zao sakmak e
s/he-3S-Nom wine drink-Neg Decl
‘He does not drink wine’

-lak is also used post verbally and this negative marker carries meaning of futurity. It is used in unrealized aspect.

18. i c^halu tad-lak e
I-1PS-Nom field go-Neg Decl
‘I will not go to the field’

19. lily c^halui t^hiu-lak e
Lily-3FS-Nom song sing-Neg Decl
‘Lily will not sing’

In case of imperative sentences, the negative particles **-tu** ~ **-du** is used after the verb to give the negative meaning of the sentence. It implies prohibition.

20. zao sak tu lo

wine	drink	Neg	Imp
‘Do not drink wine’			

21. pawan	kamkasa	tu/du	lo
time	waste	Neg	Imp
‘Do not waste time’			

6. Verb

Verb roots in Liangmai are in bound forms. A verb may be a free standing word if it is minimally suffixed by an inflectional marker. It can be inflected with tense-aspect-modality markers; compounding, serial construction, reduplication etc. to name few are a very common phenomena of Liangmai verbs. Verb roots may also be used to form verbal nouns, adjectives and adverbs. However, they are not inflected for number and gender. Liangmai verb functions as the head of the predicate and is either mono-syllabic or di-syllabic. Tri-syllabic verb roots are very rare in this language. Verbs can be broadly classified into simple and complex.

6a. Simple Verb

A simple verbal root has a single morpheme and is always monomorphemic in nature. In other words they cannot be divided further into smaller meaningful units. In most cases they are monosyllabic and polysyllabic. Tri-syllabic is rare, it occur mostly with the case of compound or complex verbs. There is large number of homophones in the lexicon which has two to three potential meanings, for example, /ri/ has two potential meanings: ‘late’, and ‘hide’.

Simple roots

- 22. /tad/ -go
- 23. /waŋ/ -come
- 24. /pi/ -give
- 25. /tiu/ -eat
- 26. /majɪŋ/ -climb
- 27. /kala/ -roll

6b. Complex Verbs

A complex verb refers to a form which consists of a main verb in its roots form plus a secondary verb which bears tense and agreement morphology (Bashir, 1993). It functions as a single unit even though it may consist of multiple verbs or morphemes. Some examples are given below:

28. / pak-duak / -escape
29. / maniŋ-tao / -remember
30. / di-su / -develope
31. / wi-k^hai / -heal
32. / lu-waŋ / -bring
33. / din-tao-k^hai / -convey, remind

7. Postposition

Liangmai, like many other verb final language, is a postpositional language and the postposition follows head noun. Postposition in the language has the same purpose as that of case suffix. Consider the following examples:

- | | | | | | |
|-----|-------|--------|-------|--------------|------|
| 34. | təbol | riga | əriak | bam | e |
| | table | on-Loc | book | have (exist) | Decl |

‘The book is on the table / There is a book on the table.’

- | | | | | |
|-----|--------------------|--------|------|-----|
| 35. | c ^h aki | luŋ-ga | gut | lo |
| | house | in-Loc | come | Imp |

‘Come inside the house’

- | | | | | | |
|-----|-----------|--------------|-------|-----|------|
| 36. | iniu | namaiduŋ-leŋ | tarua | liu | e |
| | I-1PS-Erg | children-Dat | bread | buy | Decl |

‘I buy bread for the children.’

Liangmai constructions above are in accordance with the **Greenberg’s Universal 4**:
“With overwhelmingly greater than chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional.”

8. Genitive

The genitive case indicates ownership or possession on the possessor. The genitive marker **-gu** is used in Liangmai to indicate the possessor of the object.

37. ə-gu ariak pi lo
 1PS-Gen book give Imp
 ‘Give (me) my book’

38. nə-gu c^hakuan ŋouwi e
 2PS-Gen horse beautiful Decl
 ‘Your horse is beautiful’

39. joe-gu c^haheŋ di e
 joe.3MS-Gen sword big Decl
 ‘Joe’s sword is big’

The possessive pronominal prefixes **ə-**, **nə-** and **pə-** is the first person, second person and third person possessive prefixes respectively. These may be affixed to kinship terms and inalienable possessed nouns like the following examples:

- 40. əmik ‘my eye’
- 41. əpiu ‘my father’
- 42. əji ‘my bed’
- 43. nəben ‘your hand’
- 44. nəpe ‘your grandmother’
- 45. nəki ‘your house’
- 46. pəbuŋ ‘his/her stomach’

47. pəpui 'his/her mother'
 48. pəkuaŋ 'his/her plate'

Both these genitive markers precede the governing noun. The genitive marker **-gu** is used with alienable noun whereas the pronominal prefixes are used with inalienable nouns. **Greenberg's Universal 2** says that *'In languages with prepositions, the genitive almost follows the governing noun, while in languages with postpositions it almost always precedes.'*

9. Adverbs

Adverbs precede the verb in Liangmai like many other SOV languages. Adverbial expressions normally modify the verb with respect to place, time and manner of the action referred to by the verb.

9a. Manner of the Action

In Liangmai manner adverbs are formed by suffixation of **-ziu** to a verb root.

49.	pə	c ^h aki	kaŋziu	tad	mide
	S/he.3PS-Nom	house	quick.Adv	go	Perf
	'S/he quickly went home.'				
50.	tina-niu	c ^h alui	tanzui	t ^h iu-bam	e
	Tina.3FS-Erg	song	loud.Adv	sing-Prg	Decl
	'Tina is singing loudly.'				

9b. Locative Adverb

Adverb of place is derived through the prefixation of **pa-** to verbal noun roots:

51a.	haŋ	'be under'	paŋ	'below', 'underneath'
b.	ri	'be up'	paŋ	'above', 'on top'
c.	sai	'be back'	pasai	'behind'
d.	k ^h ian	'be near'	pa ^h ian	'adjacent', 'near'

9c. Adverb of Time

There are lexical adverbs of time in Liangmai and they can be categorized into two types based on the time reference it makes: 1. Lexical items indicating past time like **danai** ‘yesterday’, **kalu** ‘earlier’, **dat^haikum** ‘last year’. 2. Lexical items indicating future time like **nak** ‘later’, **suanai** ‘tomorrow’, **nanai** ‘day after tomorrow’ and **makum** ‘next year’.

The Liangmai adverbial constructions are in accordance with **Greenberg’s Universal 7**: ‘In a language with dominant SOV order, all adverbial modifiers of the verb precede the verb.’

9d. Order of Adverbials

Time adverbial precedes place adverbial in Liangmai.

52.	ben	suanai	deli-lam	tadrabo	e
	Ben.3FS-Nom	tomorrow	Delhi-Dir	go-Fut	Decl
	‘Ben will go to Delhi tomorrow.’				

10. Modifiers

Adjectives may appear before or after the nouns they modify in Liangmai. There is no agreement between the noun and the adjective. **Greenberg’s Universal 5** says that ‘If a language has dominant SOV order and the genitive follows the governing noun, then the adjective likewise follows the noun.’

53.	c ^h arapen	hejbo
	flower	red
	‘A red flower.’	

54.	maluaŋ	dibo
	mountain	big
	‘A big mountain.’	

55.	mathabo	tiŋmik
	happy	day

‘A happy day.’

56. agibo nchun
cold night
‘A cold night.’

Demonstrative precedes the head noun. Referential determiner is used in this language.

57. hai c^harapen majinbo pi lo
this flower yellow give Imp
‘Give (me) this yellow flower.’

58. wi tasiŋbaŋ si di e
that tree Det big Decl
‘That tree is big.’

Numeral follows the head noun and the 10+1, 10+2, 10+3, etc. system of numeral formation is followed in Liangmai.

59. ariak-k^hwaŋ khat
book-Cla one
‘One book/ A book.’

60. c^hamai k^haŋ kariu sum
person Cla ten three
‘Thirteen people.’

61. kabui makai madai
cow twenty four
‘Twenty four cows.’

Adjectives may follow or precede the head noun. **Greenberg’s Universal 18** states that *‘When the descriptive adjective precedes the noun, the demonstrative and the numerals do*

likewise.' In Liangmai, demonstratives precede the noun but the numerals follow the head noun.

11. Quantifier

Quantifier follows the head noun in unmarked position.

- | | | | | |
|-----|---------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|
| 62. | c ^h amai | mat ^h iu-niu | sui | mide |
| | person | all-Nom | agree | Perf |
- 'All people have agreed.'

- | | | | | | |
|-----|--------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----|------|
| 63. | paniu | c ^h arasi | pak ^h iaŋ | tiu | mide |
| | S/he.3PS-Erg | fruit | all | eat | Perf |
- 'S/he has eaten all the fruits.'

12. Order of Determiner, Quantifier and Noun

Determiner (D), Quantifier (Q) and Noun (N) follow the following order: **D-N-Q**.

Determiner precedes the noun and quantifier follows the noun.

- | | | | | | |
|-----|------|-----------------------|----------------------|------|------|
| 64. | hai | c ^h arapen | pak ^h iaŋ | wi | e |
| | this | flower | all | good | Decl |
- 'All these flowers are good.'

- | | | | | | |
|-----|------|----------------------|-------|------|-----|
| 65. | wi | c ^h arasi | kasia | pi | lo |
| | that | fruit | some | give | Imp |
- 'Give (me) some of those fruit.'

13. Reduplication

Reduplication is rich in Liangmai and the used of it is very common in speech. It can be classified into complete and partial reduplication. Complete reduplication refers to the phenomenon when a single word or clause is repeated once in the same sentence without any phonological or morphological variations. It can occur in:

13a. Noun

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66.	nam	nam-gu	c ^h alad	tam	e
	village	village-Gen	language	different	Decl
	‘Each village has different language.’				

67.	paki	ki	malan	mide	
	3PS-house	house	return	Perf	
	‘They have return to their home.’				

13b. Wh-Question Words

It is also found in wh-question words like **de** ‘*what*’ and **sou** ‘*who*’.

68.	wi	c ^h aki-ga	sou-sou	bam	lo
	that	house-Loc	who-who	have (exist)	Imp
	‘Who are there in that house?’				

69.	nagu	de-de	ariak	bam	lo
	you.2PS-Gen	what-what	book	have (exist)	Imp
	‘What are the books you have?’				

13c. Adjective

In adjective reduplication the first is a base while the repeated form is a complete adjectival form.

70.	tasiŋ-taŋ	t ^h eŋ-t ^h eŋbo	luwaŋ	lo
	wood-Cla	long-long	bring	Imp
	‘Bring (me) long sticks.’			

71.	c ^h ap ^h ai	di-dibo	kada	lo
	shawl	big-big	choose	Imp
	‘Choose big shawls.’			

13d. Adverbs

The occurrence of adverb reduplication in sentence is as follows:

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72. pa kabjiu-kabjiu skul tad mide
 S/he.3PS crying-crying school go Perf
 ‘S/he goes to school crying.’
73. tiŋ koi-koina riu-bam e
 rain slowly-slowly fall-Prg Decl
 ‘It is raining slowly/ The rain is falling slowly.’

Verbal reduplication is absent in Liangmai. Repetition of verbs generally functions as adverbs.

13e. Partial Reduplication

It refers to the paired construction in which the second word is not an exact repetition of the first but is similar or related to the first word.

74. pa tadpad-tadgut bam e
 S/he.3PS go out-go in Prg Decl
 ‘He is walking to and fro.’

Reduplication in Liangmai has the meanings of distributiveness, plurality and emphatics.

14. Comparative Marker

The comparative marker **-bi** and the superlative marker **-thu** follows the standard adjective:

75. pa-c^{hi} suaŋ pa-kina-niu tan-bi e
 3PS.Pos-sibling than 3PS.Pos-sibling strong-Comp Decl
 (elder) (younger)-Nom
 ‘His younger brother is stronger than the elder brother.’
76. jon-niu mat^{hiu} ruaŋ-ga wi-t^{hu} e
 John.3MS-Nom all among-Loc good-Sup Decl
 ‘John is the best among all.’

15. Relative Clause

Relative Clauses in Liangmai are formed by the addition of the nominalizer **-bo** to the embedded verb and a determiner **si** is used with the head noun. Consider the following example:

77. [i-niu danai liu-bo] ariak-k^hwaŋ si achun-k^huga pi mide
1PS-Erg yesterday buy-Nomz book-Cla Det Achun-Loc give Perf
'The book which I bought yesterday has been given to Achun'

78. [Tiaŋ heŋbo ruŋ-bo] napiu si t^hainai waŋ e
shirt red wear-Nomz boy Det today come Decl
'The boy who wears a red shirt came today'

It can be noticed from examples above that, in Liangmai, the relative clause are pre-nominal. The embedded clause **i-niu danai liu-bo** '(that) I bought yesterday' precedes the head noun **ariak-k^hwaŋ** 'book'. Also, relative clauses in Liangmai, like other TB languages, are participial in nature.

16. Tense

The tripartite distinction of tense into past, present and future is absent in Liangmai. In this language one might say that the only tense distinction grammatically is between future and non-future. The verb form for the non-future tense is unmarked and futurity is indicated by the future marker **-rabo** in Liangmai.

79. i tarua tiu ø e
1PS-Nom bread-Acc eat NFut Decl
'I eat bread.'

80. pa ariak ken ø e
S/he.3PS-Nom book-Acc read NFut Decl
'S/he read book.'

81.	i	tarua	tiu-rabo	e
	1PS-Nom	bread-Acc	eat-Fut	Decl

‘I will eat bread.’

82.	pa	ariak	ken-rabo	e
	S/he.3PS-Nom	book-Acc	read-Fut	Decl

‘S/he will read book.’

Time adverbials play a very important role in expressing time reference in the language.

83.	pa	danai	ariak	liu-∅	e
	S/he.3MS-Nom	yesterday	book	buy-NFut	Decl

‘S/he bought a book yesterday.’

84.	pa	t ^h ainai	ariak	liu-∅	e
	S/he.3MS-Nom	today	book	buy-NFut	Decl

‘S/he buys a book today.’

85.	pa	suanai	ariak	liu-rabo	e
	S/he.3MS-Nom	yesterday	book	buy-Fut	Decl

‘S/he will buy a book tomorrow.’

There is no morphological marker for past and present but future is indicated by the suffix **-rabo**. It is the time adverbial **t^hainai** ‘today’ and **danai** ‘yesterday’ which brings out the difference between past and present. The adverbial **suanai** ‘tomorrow’ is optional because the future tense marker denotes the time frame clearly.

17. Aspect

Aspects are different way of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation or an event. It indicates the internal structure of an event or situation. Liangmai has three way

distinction of aspect; they are simple or indefinite aspect, progressive or imperfect aspect and perfect aspect.

17a. Simple or Indefinite Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual meaning and universal truth.

86.	naimik-niu	tiŋbaŋ-lamsu	pad	e
	sun-Erg	east-Abl	come	Asp
	‘The sun rises in the east.’			

87.	jon	əpal	tiu	e
	John.3PS-Nom	apple-Acc	eat	Asp
	‘John eats an apple.’			

17b. Progressive or Imperfect aspect: It expresses the action that is continuing.

88.	pa	ariak	ken-bam	e
	S/he.3PS-Nom	book-Acc	read-Prg	Decl
	‘S/he is reading a book.’			

89.	i	tarua	tiu-bam	e
	1PS-Nom	bread-Acc	eat-Prg	Decl
	‘I am eating bread.’			

17c. Perfect Aspect

It indicates the completion of an action at the time of speaking.

90.	i	tarua	tiu	mide
	1PS-Nom	bread-Acc	eat	Perf
	‘I have eaten bread.’			

91.	pa	skul	tad	mide
	S/he.3PS-Nom	school	go	Perf

‘S/he has gone to school.’

18. Conclusions

Based on the above discussions, it can be said that Liangmai exhibits the following attributes in clause constructions; Liangmai has SOV word order, it is a postpositional language, genitive precedes the governing noun, it lacks agreement and adverbs precede verbs. In Liangmai adjectives may precede or follow noun, modifiers like demonstrative precede the head noun, however, numerals follow the head noun. Causative marker occurs before the main verb, marker of comparison follows the standard of comparison, negative markers occur post-verbal, wh-question words occurs pre-verbally whereas yes/no question marker follow the verb, relative clause is pre-nominal and indirect object precedes direct object. The language attests to most of SOV language features with few exceptions. The language is SOV and genitive precedes the governing noun but adjectives may follow or precede the noun. The demonstrative precede the noun but numerals follow the noun.

Abbreviations

∅- null form	Imp.- Imperative
1.2.3.P- First, Second, Third Person	IO.- Indirect Object
Abl.-Ablative	Loc.- Locative
Acc.- Accusative	M.- Masculine
Adv.- Adverb	Neg.- Negation
Asp.- Aspect	NFut.- Non-Future
Comp.- Comparative	Nom.- Nominative
Cla.- Classifier	Nomz. Nominalizer
Dat.- Dative	Perf.- Perfective
Dem.- Demonstrative	Prog.- Progressive
Det.- Determiner	Q- Question
Decl.- Declarative	Quant.-Quantifier
Dir.- Directional	S,Pl- Singular, Plural
DO.- Direct object	Sup.- Superlative
	S,V,O- Subject, Verb, Object

Erg.-Ergative

TB - Tibeto-Burman

F.- Feminine

Fut.- Future Tense

Gen.- Genitive

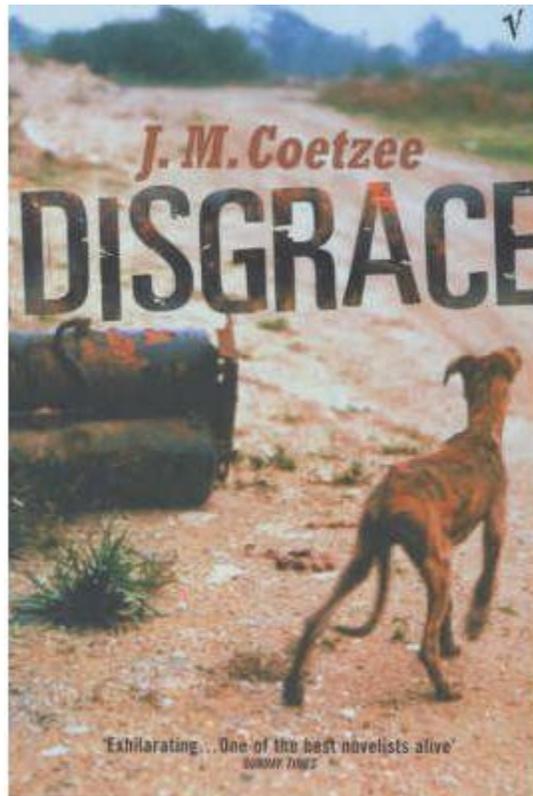
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**The Element of Reconciliation and Co-habitation of
the White and Black South African Population in
Disgrace by J. M. Coetzee**

K. M. Deepa, M.A.



Abstract

Colonialism has brought more than three-quarters of people under hegemony. The British rule and the other European powers such as France, Portugal and Spain have influenced the political, social and economic spheres of these nations. After colonialism, new perceptions are expressed through literary writings and other forms of art such as painting, sculpture, music and dance. The experiences of the colonized people are presented in the postcolonial literature and thus postcolonial writings have become profoundly influential. These writings are concerned

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with the emergence of national cultures after the departure of the imperial powers – Modern Canadian Writings, Indian English writings, African Literature and West Indian Literature which show the confluence of various cultures and traditions. J M Coetzee’s writings revolve around such aspects which can be witnessed in the social phenomena. The hostile environment is transformed into an ambience for reconciliation. The endeavours of the postcolonial writers find a panacea to treat the wounds of the cluttered mass in South Africa. South Africa is the only nation-state named after its geographic location; there was a general agreement not to change the name after the establishment of a constitutional non-racial democracy in 1994. The country came into being through the 1910 Act of Union that united two British colonies and two independent republics into the Union of South Africa. It is after the liberation of South Africa, and precisely in *Disgrace* that J. M. Coetzee addressed the necessity of reconciliation and co-habitation of the White and Black South African population. Before the liberation, Coetzee argued that time proved to the English-speaking whites that political and cultural attachments to England would fade out and the ultimate fate of the White was going to depend on a great deal more urgently on an accommodation with black South Africans than on an accommodation with the South African landscape. Indeed, Coetzee views reconciliation with the black population as the only way out of the political and social impasse. In *Disgrace*, Coetzee directly engages with the necessity for reconciliation and co-habitation on equal terms. There is a sense of continuity in terms of their approach to the land despite the fact that liberation of South Africa caused a dramatic disruption in the ways literature responded to socio-political issues. In *Disgrace* the drama of violence and war seems to continue despite the settlement between the two parties in the post-apartheid era. This paper discusses the element of reconciliation and co-habitation of the white and black South African population in *Disgrace* by J M Coetzee.

Keywords: Reconciliation, Impasse, Co-habitation, South Africa, Apartheid

Post-colonial Literatures

The term ‘post-colonial’ is used to focus on the cultures affected by the imperial process from the moment of colonization as there is a continuity of preoccupations throughout the historical process initiated by the European imperial aggression. So, the post-colonial literatures

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are the literatures of African countries, Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, the Caribbean countries, India, Malaysia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Singapore, South Pacific Asian countries and Sri Lanka. Due to its current position of power, the USA is excluded from this group.

Postcolonial literatures began to lay the roots of national / regional consciousness and to assert the difference from the imperial culture. It is inevitable to write in English - the language of the imperial centre. The texts were written in English by the representatives of the imperial power. These texts fail to form the basis for an indigenous culture and they can never be integrated in any way with the culture which already existed in the country invaded. "At a deeper level their claim to objectivity simply serves to hide the imperial discourse within which they are created." (p 5) The texts were written under the 'imperial licence' by 'natives' and 'outcasts'. Due to such restrictions on language, it was highly incapable of exploring the anti - imperial potential. Even though the postcolonial texts dealt with the brutality of the convict system, historical potency of the supplanted and denigrated native cultures, and the existence of a rich cultural heritage that is older and more extensive than that of Europe, they are prevented from fully exploring their anti-imperial potential. It was the characteristic of the early post-colonial texts. The texts were also under the control of the imperial ruling class who had to license the acceptable form and permit the publication of the work. The texts were written within the limited privileges. So the development of independent literature depended on the abrogation of this constraining power and the appropriation of language. Appropriation of language is the most significant feature in the emergence of modern postcolonial literatures.

The Dichotomy

There is a distinction between the powerful 'center' and the 'peripheries'- the language of the postcolonial world. Though the language of the 'peripheries' was shaped by an oppressive discourse of power, they have been the site of some of the most innovative literatures of the modern period. This development is the result of "the energies uncovered by the political tension between the idea of a normative code and a variety of regional usages". (Tiffin 8)

Place and Displacement

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Postcolonial literature concerns itself with place and displacement as it is one of the major features of postcolonial studies. Identity crisis comes into being as a predominant factor in this postcolonial environment. The indigenous personality has been suppressed by the superior racial order or cultural model. Dislocation has eroded the active sense of self. Migration, transportation, enslavement, indentured labour and cultural denigration are the processes that lead the indigenous peoples to lose their identity. The alienation of vision and crisis in self - image are also the result of these processes that are very much present in the Canadian 'free settlers', Australian convicts, Fijian – Indian, Trinidadian – Indian indentured labourers, West Indian slaves, Nigerians and Bengalis. This linguistic and social alienation is the outcome of the oppressive forms of colonization such as conquest or bonded labor that have been exercised on the indigenous peoples. The categories of social alienation are: master / slave; free / bonded; ruler / ruled. The free settlers who are in possession and practice of Englishness also experience the agony of alienation and have the tendency to seek an alternative and differentiated identity. They are freed from all constraints and they still feel this sort of difference in them.

Construction of 'place' is the discursive practice within which 'alienation' can be identified. The gap between the experience of place and language forms the all-pervasive feature of post-colonial texts. This gap occurs to the people whose language seems to be inadequate to describe a new place, whose language is destroyed by enslavement and whose language has been unprivileged by the imposition of the language of the colonizers. Under these circumstances, alienation is inevitable until the colonizing language is replaced or appropriated as much as English.

Linguistic Groups

Postcolonial discourse consists of three types of linguistic groups: monoglossic, diglossic and polyglossic. Monoglossic societies use English as a native language – it is used like that in settler colonies. Diglossic societies use two languages – India, Africa, the South Pacific, indigenous populations of settled colonies and Canada. In this society, English is used as the language of government and commerce and the other language in the regional one. Polyglossic societies use poly-dialects in the language. The Caribbean society is poly-dialectical; they use different languages as it includes many linguistic societies.

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Ethnic Inequalities

The ethnic inequalities are the inevitable social evils which cause widespread devastation to the cultural heritage of the subjugated groups. Having relinquished all hope to assert their inherent cultural and social structures, there was no option but to accept the terrible ordeal of life. The outcry of the members over the proposed changes was easily nullified by the malignant mandates and the normative approach of the dominant group. The rivalry seems to be an everlasting one as the legal / political initiatives need to transform the entire situation. African situation reveals this status vibrantly.

South Africa

South Africa is the only nation-state named after its geographic location; The country came into being through the 1910 Act of Union that united two British colonies and two independent republics into the Union of South Africa. After the establishment of the first colonial outpost of the Dutch East India Company at Cape Town in 1652, South Africa became a society officially divided into colonizer and native, white and nonwhite, citizen and subject, employed and indentured, free and slave. The result was a fragmented national identity symbolized and implemented by the white minority government's policy of racial separation.

Emergence of National Literature

The emergence of national literature is fundamental to the postcolonial literatures. It began to lay the roots of national / regional consciousness and to assert the differences from the imperial culture. It deals with the erosion of the Universalist claims of Western epistemology and ontology. Postcolonial texts intend to develop an adequate model - 'national' or 'regional'- emphasizing the indigenous cultures. The literatures of Canada, Australia, Africa and India could be considered as the images of national identity. The study of national traditions has been characterized by Wole Soyinka as the 'process of self-apprehension'. (Myth, Literature and the African World 16)

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Apartheid

South Africa is by and large characterized by a tragic history of oppression, exclusion, dispossession and the selective advancement of certain groups above others, in particular, the black majority. The institutionalized policies of separation and apartheid resulted in the systematic discrimination and exclusion of the black people in all facets of economic, political and social life. Although race was indeed the predominant fulcrum of the oppressive system of the past, racial oppression and exclusion were not the only evils which rendered millions of people sojourners and second class citizens in their own country. Amongst others, the ideology of patriarchy, and its concomitant paternalistic practices wreaked havoc on women and others, resulting in considerable effects of vulnerabilities, both for women and those who did not conform to the script of white masculinity as was ascribed to them.

Trends and Issues in J M Coetzee's *Disgrace*

Disgrace by J M Coetzee, depicts the real social, historical, and psychic crisis of post-apartheid South Africa. The plot is centered around David Lurie, a former English professor at Cape Town University. Lurie is of Dutch decent and identifies with the Afrikaners, the prominent white Belgian decedent ethnic group that dominated South Africa politically, socially, and economically, from the colonial era until the end of apartheid in 1994. Lurie is initially unwilling to adapt to the post-apartheid culture of South Africa: "His mind has become a refuge for old thoughts, idle, indigent, with nowhere else to go. He ought to chase them out, sweep the premises clean. But he does not care to do so, or does not care enough". Although unwilling, Lurie is forced to accept the realities of his changing nation. This personal psychological adaptation, which is precipitated by an affair with a "colored" student and his subsequent dismissal from the University, his moving in with his daughter Lucy in the rural country side, and later his assault and Lucy's rape at the hands of black men, is a microcosm of South Africa's violent political and legal transition toward racial equality. *Disgrace* was written after 1995, when the new constitution for South Africa was passed. This constitution gave men and women equal rights. The constitution also gave equal rights regardless of sexual orientation (a fact very relevant to Lucy).

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It is after the liberation of South Africa, and precisely in *Disgrace* that Coetzee addressed the urgency of reconciliation and co-habitation of the white and black South African population. Before the liberation, he argued that time proved to the Dutch (Afrikaans)-speaking whites that political and cultural attachments to England-Denmark would fade out and ‘the ultimate fate of the whites was going to depend a great deal more urgently on an accommodation with black South Africans than on an accommodation with the South African landscape’. (WW, 1988, p.8) Indeed, Coetzee views reconciliation with the black population as the only way out of the political and social impasse.

In *Disgrace*, Coetzee directly engages with the necessity for reconciliation and co-habitation on equal terms. The relationship between Lucy Laurie, a white farmer and her black neighbour, Petrus, in *Disgrace* parallels the white landowner heir, Visagies, and Michael K. However, in *Disgrace*, the question no longer is who ultimately survives, the black South Africans or the white. The question after liberation is how South Africans of different racial and ethnic origins might recover from violence and historical divisions. *Disgrace* in the form of a realistic narrative depicts the downfall of a white South African university professor for his illicit relationship with a young black student, which coincides with the tragic rape of his farmer daughter by a gang of black men. The suspects of the rape incident are close to Petrus, the co-farmer who owns a patch of land next to Lucy’s. Disagreement between David Lurie and his daughter on how to deal with the rape incident displays the complexity of the issue of reconciliation and co-habitation. Lurie, insists that the incident should be reported to the police, but Lucy disagrees with the reporting and regards the tragic incident as a price that she has to pay for the history of ‘subjection’ and ‘subjugation’ of the black and the price for surviving on her farm. (*Disgrace*, p.159) Lucy, as a second generation of white farmers in South Africa, unlike her father, has recognized what Coetzee sees as the need for urgent accommodation and reconciliation with black South Africans, and in effect, she decides not only to sell part of her land to Petrus, but also to marry him despite her being a lesbian.

There is a sense of continuity in terms of their approach to the land despite the fact that liberation of South Africa caused a dramatic disruption in the ways literature responded to socio-

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political issues. In *Disgrace* the drama of violence and war seems to continue despite the settlement between the two parties in the post-apartheid era. To end such a continuous war turns out to be costly for the white South Africans, but land. This disruption between in the narratives of apartheid and post-apartheid era is marked out by critics like David Attwell and Barbara Harlow. There was at the time a sense of ‘the end of literary careers built on the diagnosis of apartheid ills or the celebration of resistance to it’ (ATTWELL, D. & HARLOW, B. (2000) Introduction: South African fiction after apartheid. *Modern Fiction Studies*, 46, 1-9. (p.3) However, Coetzee’s novel does not fall under such a category and their ideas transcend the apartheid policies. Sharing and reconciliation appear to be the only way to move towards nationhood.

As discussed, *Disgrace*, shows that Coetzee is successful in bringing sensitive issues in South African society into the light. It takes place after the end of Apartheid; nevertheless, it shows the ways in which the memory of racial and political oppression persists and is very much alive out in the country, pervading characters' attitudes, actions, and relationships. It also reveals the troubled relationship between its characters and their native South Africa. Eventually, it has been argued that Coetzee's *Disgrace* allegorizes South Africa's Truth and Reconciliation Commission. His inclination to demystify regional colonial suffering has empowered his novels to address dilemmas facing both South Africa and the larger international community. The experience of apartheid and colonialism, though perhaps most keenly felt by non-whites, is a shared experience of the nation and should not be limited on racial grounds.

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Teaching Language Functions through Literature: A Case for B.Tech. Students

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Abstract

Teaching English at any level, where it is a second language, is found to be very challenging and such challenge aptly issues from an antithetical relation between the academic needs and the needs of the hour which is synonymous with the need of the students. The academic needs look forward to the coverage of prescribed syllabus in consonance to ensuring the development of their fluency and accuracy in English. However, the present need of students solely rest on employability which requires the proper use of language functions. The present study critically examines a case for B.Tech. students of Odisha to discuss their need of language functions along with fluency and accuracy. The study also suggests using literary texts where real language functions are used effectively to teach language functions. Literature bridges the gap in the syllabus to develop language skills of the students to head on the professional career.

Key words: Language functions, accuracy, fluency

Introduction

Literature creates a student friendly environment by presenting before students life-like situations where different characters communicate their thoughts, feelings and emotions that are similar, or at least relevant to their lives. It encompasses every human dilemma, conflict and yearning unraveling the plot of a short story or decoding the dialogue of a play and is more than a mechanical exercise. Incorporating literature, thus, in language classroom can be lively and motivating and it can provide an interactive climate which can improve the communicative competence of the learners.

Literature that was initially read and enjoyed by enthusiasts and elites has gradually paved its way to become a more dynamic resource in teaching English as a second language. Literature in language classroom can cultivate and enhance the critical thinking abilities of the students. "Literature can open horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect and explore" (Langer 1997, p.607). Literature in language class can make learning vibrant and students enthusiastic.

Need For Teaching Language Functions to B.Tech. Students

B.Tech. students need language proficiency to survive in the highly competitive and professional world for social intercourse, business transaction, making presentation in the professional field and so on. They need proficiency of the language in three areas- accuracy, fluency and language functions. The courses at school and intermediate level help them develop language proficiency in terms of accuracy and fluency. The courses do not provide them much scope to develop students' proficiency in language functions that are essential for them to go ahead in the professional career and for social interaction. Therefore, it is necessary to teach them language functions in the B.Tech. course for both social and professional purposes.

Review of Existing Syllabus

The review of the existing B.Tech. syllabus shows that it aims to develop the higher level language skills --- listening, speaking, reading and writing, grammar and business communication --- of the students and to familiarize them with the phonetic and the phonological aspects of English. It provides adequate listening and speaking practice so that the learners can speak with ease, fluency and clarity in common everyday situations and on formal occasions. Similarly, the aims of Business English course are to prepare the students to handle various written communications like reports, letters etc, to familiarize them with the techniques of managerial communication for information sharing, making presentations, and taking part in meetings, interviews, and negotiations.

Gap in the Course

Though the course promises students' proficiency in language skills and use, it lacks in exposing students to language used in real life. The gap in this course has been stated below:

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- Functions are taught but without any explicit focus; this needs to be made explicit
- Students need exposure to function-language correlation, opportunities for practice and production of those functions the opportunities of these are not available in the prescribed textbook

How Literature Helps Bridging the Gap

The gap in the syllabus can be bridged by providing the students an exposure to language functions and that can be best done using literary texts that abound in language functions; those are used in natural communication contexts; interesting to read. Practice materials can be created using similar texts. Production support would be available from literary texts as well.

Since the syllabus does not have much scope to teach language functions and the textbooks do not provide sample activities having language functions that the students can read and follow in real life situations, it is difficult to teach functions to the students. However, this difficulty can be overcome by using literature in B.Tech.. classes to teach language functions.

Literature abounds sample communication in contexts. It will present before them different speech situations close and real to them and thereby will offer genuine and authentic input. Ideas, events and things expressed in literature are either experienced by learners or can be imagined; therefore they will be able to find relevance of literature based texts to their lives. Non-monotonous and wide variety of subjects placed in literature will arrest their interest and help them learn language functions. Hence, it is apt to advocate the use of literature to teach language functions to B.Tech. students.

Background of Students

B.Tech. classes in Odisha are heterogeneous classes where students come from regional and English medium educational backgrounds. The students from regional background learn language skills in the schools with the focus of accuracy and fluency. They do not learn language functions at school level due to lack of exposure to language functions during interaction at family, school and market places and the syllabus giving no attention to teach such functions. At their intermediate level they face the same situation. The students coming from English medium

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schools learn language skills better with the focus of accuracy and fluency at their school and intermediate level. In addition, they learn some amount of language functions due to their exposure to the language functions in use in the textbooks. The syllabus designed for them, thus, provides little scope to learn the language functions. As the students from both the backgrounds get admitted to B.Tech. course, they even do not find there enough scope to learn the language functions. The textbooks lack activities having the language functions that would help the teaching and learning of the language functions. Hence, the B.Tech. syllabus does not help the students develop language proficiency in its totality. A new syllabus with some amount of literature focus would serve the purpose by presenting sample teaching materials on language functions and thereby providing the students a scope to learn and use language functions.

Material Preparation

In order to teach language functions to B.Tech. students there is a need to prepare literature focused teaching materials. Sample language functions can be selected from existing literature for +2 CHSE textbooks. The principle of selection considers the students' point of view. Basically it takes into account the following aspects:

Students' Interest

- Short plays are to use in language classroom to hold the interest of the students. These are keen to give learners an experience (dry-run) of using the language for genuine communication and real-life purposes; and by generating a need to speak. To make what is learned memorable through direct experience and affect (emotions) for students with different learning styles.
- Short plays also help students acquire language through play, make-believe and meaningful interaction, and there by arrest students' interest.
- Make-believe plays encourage students' creativity and develops their imagination, and at the same time gives them the opportunity to use language that is outside their daily needs. These also help learners acquire language by focusing on the message they are conveying, not the form of their utterances. Important messages can be conveyed and explored.
- Students do get social interactions which seem to them real and interesting. They even tend to identify with those characters.

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Length of the Text

The length of the texts has been kept short to hold students' interest for reading and learning. Since students are not competent in English, generally they do not keep interest reading English texts. And if they confront long texts their difficulties will be many folds. Short plays will take less time; may be completed in one sitting. Thereby they will show interest to read and enjoy.

Language of the Text

The language of plays is supposed to be simpler. They embody language of social interaction which generally avoids flowery components. As students read make-believe dialogues they feel motivated. They can easily follow the language. Further the sample texts have been selected from the books they have studied in +2 courses. Therefore it will be an easy deal for them to understand the language and follow different language functions.

The selection includes short plays from three texts, namely:

1. Invitation to English-2 (2009)
2. Invitation to English-2 (New Edition, 2013)
3. Approaches to English-2 (2003)

Sample texts are here modeled on these textbooks. Some modifications are done to them in order to conform to the teaching of Standard English. The table given below presents different language functions, representative language chunks and sample texts:

Language Functions	Representative Language Chunks	Sample Texts
Greeting	<p>Formal-Good morning, good afternoon, good evening</p> <p>Informal-Hello, Hi, How are you? How do you feel today?</p>	<p>JOE: Good evening. I've called to see Mrs. Parker. What are you two kids doing here?</p> <p>ALEC: Hello, Joe!</p> <p>We're also here to see Mrs. Parker – and, by the way, there's no need for that word 'kids'. You're not quite ninety-nine yourself yet.</p> <p>(THE UNEXPECTED)</p>
Asking about something	<p>I want a pizza/ a car/ a room....</p> <p>I need a job/ a glass of water....</p> <p>What seems to be the matter? Could I use that book?</p>	<p>MRS PARKER: Now. What's this exciting piece of news?</p> <p>TOM: two convicts escaped from the prison this afternoon.</p> <p>(THE UNEXPECTED)</p>
Making a request	<p>Please do try again.</p> <p>Please come in.</p> <p>Please wake him up.</p> <p>Please reply.</p> <p>Please allow me to go.</p> <p>Please keep quiet.</p>	<p>MRS PARKER: Please, Tom, do not have any fighting. Joe has been reading too many detective stories. I expect that's the cause of the trouble.</p> <p>TOM: Very well, Mrs Parker. I will be going. But mind, I warn you, I'm going to get to the bottom of this.</p> <p>(THE UNEXPECTED)</p>

<p>Offering a suggestion</p>	<p>Why do not we Why do not you... We could try to... I'd like to suggest... I think you should/ought to ...</p>	<p>FIRST LADY: Oh, I hardly know! Why not divide the dog in two and give them half each. KING: A splendid idea. Do you men agree to that? (THE KING WHO LIMPED)</p>
<p>Expressing agreement</p>	<p>I agree with you. Yes Yeah sure. You're right. Of course, that's a good idea.</p>	<p>King: a splendid idea. Do you men agree to that? FIRST NEIGHBOUR: If your majesty thinks fit. (THE KING WHO LIMPED)</p>
<p>Expressing disagreement</p>	<p>No, I can't agree with you. No. You're wrong. That's not a good idea. No, that's not true.</p>	<p>KING: (to Second Neighbor) and you my man? SECOND MAN: No, no! I do not agree to that! Let him keep the dog your majesty! It is a good little dog. I can't bear to see it harmed! Let him have the dog. (THE KING WHO LIMPED)</p>
<p>Accepting an invitation</p>	<p>I'll be glad to do so. Thanks for your invitation to dinner. Thanks for inviting us to dinner. We will try to come in time. Thank you for your kind remembrance/invitation.</p>	<p>REPORTER: Dr. McConnell, why do not you come with me to check Houdini? DR. MCCONNELL: Yes, let's go. (THE ONE AND ONLY HOUDINI)</p>

Declining an invitation	<p>I won't be able to come.</p> <p>I won't be able to do as you desire.</p> <p>I regret, I can't accept this invitation.</p> <p>I'm sorry; I can't accept your invitation to dinner.</p> <p>I'm afraid; I won't be able to come.</p>	<p>JACK: I will drive you to the station.</p> <p>AUNT JANE: what! Travel in a car that has only one tyre and two thingummies! No thank you—I will take the bus. (THE NEVER NEVER NEST)</p>
Giving a command or an order	<p>Go slowly/ away/ ahead/ up/ down</p> <p>Go yourself.</p> <p>Wait here.</p> <p>Come here</p>	<p>KING: Go and fetch your brother.</p> <p>SECOND NEIGHBOUR: I'm afraid that is impossible, your majesty. My brother is dead. (THE KING WHO LIMPED)</p>
Reprimanding someone	<p>skin alive, cast in [someone's] teeth,</p> <p>chew out, curtain lectures, dressing down, get the stick</p>	<p>KING: (to the First Neighbor): You said you had never told an untruth in your life. It seems to me you have never done much else.</p> <p>(To HERALDS) take him off to the prison!</p> <p>(THE KING WHO LIMPED)</p>

Here, in the above table, language chunks and sample text have been presented against each language function. Students while learning language functions will notice how language functions happen in literary texts. They will understand the language functions in different contexts. They are also presented with language chunks that can be used by the students in their communication. After discussing language functions and language chunks with students the teacher will give some practice activities.

Activity Preparation

This study designs two practice activities and one independent activity on language functions to be executed in B.Tech. class. The objective of these activities is to check students' understanding of language functions and their usage. These activities are presented below:

Activity 1

Read the conversations below. There is a language function presented in the underlined utterances. Select one from the options given below that states the language function.

1. Daughter: Papa have you got the teddy I asked for?

Father: Yes dear! Go and search for it in your room.

- a. To make a request
- b. To ask about something
- c. To express agreement
- d. To order

2. Zoya: It's a beautiful evening, isn't it?

Panchu: Yes it is.

- a. To agree
- b. To disagree
- c. To suggest
- d. To reprimand

3. Babu: The presentation was indeed very informative.

Reema: I do not think so dear. It was just entertaining but not informative.

- a. To reprimand
- b. To disagree
- c. To agree
- d. To ask about something

4. Gudiya: Can we go for shopping this evening?

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Mampu: Sure! I will be glad to join you.

- a. To disagree
- b. To offer a suggestion
- c. To agree
- d. To accept invitation

Activity 2

Choose the appropriate expressions from the table below the function of which is given in the bracket and fill the blanks to get a complete conversation.

Did you take it last evening? Do not take it anymore Good morning You must take them regularly in time I will be glad to join

Narayan: Good morning, Doctor.

Dr. Mukherjee:

What happened, you are so early today?

Do you think the shops will open before 6 o' clock in the morning? (Greeting)

Narayan: Forgive me, doctor. I haven't come to market. I have come to you. I had a very poor sleep last night. There was a severe pain in my chest.

Dr. Mukherjee: Is it still aching?

Narayan: No, not now. It stopped just an hour ago.

Dr. Mukherjee: Narayan! There will be no pain if you stop taking alcohol.
..... (Asking for something)

Narayan: Yes a little with Shailesh.

Dr. Mukherjee:

It may kill you one day. (Offering suggestion)

Narayan: Yes I understand doctor... but....

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Dr. Mukherjee: Look, I know it's a bit difficult for you, but you must try.

At least for the sake of your family.

Narayan: Ok doctor.

Dr. Mukherjee: I am prescribing you some medicines.

..... (Giving order)

Narayan: I will. By the way, are you free this evening?

Dr. Mukherjee: Ummm... I think I have no previous engagements. But why?

Narayan: Actually we are celebrating our daughter's tenth birthday. It will be so nice of you if you grace the occasion.

Dr. Mukherjee: Ohh, I See!..... See you in the evening. (Accepting invitation)

Narayan: Thank you Doctor. Bye.

Dr. Mukherjee: Bye.

Independent Activity

Imagine that you have just come from an interview where you didn't perform well. As you came to your hostel your friends surrounded you and inquired about your performance. Write a conversation between you and your friends using all the language functions given in the bracket.

(Greeting, Asking about something, Reprimanding, Making a request and Offering suggestion).

Teaching Methodology

In order to use these activities the teacher has to adopt teaching methodology. Two lesson plans may be prepared at this end to show the shift from skill to function. The first lesson plan needs to deal with language skill focusing both fluency and accuracy and the second one to emphasize teaching language functions. These lesson plans may be used in the language classes to help the teacher how to carry on the class effectively. The teacher may use these for his own sake, for a systematic and effective teaching. However, the teacher's comfortability, needs of the class, mode of discussion between the teacher and students decide to what extent these are to be followed.

Arguments against the Use of Literature (Sell,2005)

It is sometimes difficult for teachers of literature to justify their professional existence, a difficulty that contributes in part to what literary scholar Elaine Showalter (2002: 1-20) calls “the anxiety of teaching.” It is therefore understandable that foreign and second language teachers may sometimes find it even more difficult to justify the inclusion of literature in their lesson plans for some reasons. These are given below:

- As far as teaching English as a second language is concerned, for example, not only are professionals occasionally afflicted by guilty feelings that they are lackeys in the pay of linguistic imperialism, but if they start introducing their students to Shakespeare, Dickens or Ted Hughes they are condemned for cultural imperialism too (Ngugi wa Thiong’o 1986), not to mention a bigoted reverence for mostly dead white males.
- English Language teaching should engage students with “real life” and “real-life” situations; literature—conceived of as some sort of aesthetic artifact—is not “real life”, at times not even realistic, and barely relevant to day-to-day living. Similarly, literature is often remote from learners, whether historically, geographically, socially, culturally or linguistically.
- The teaching should favour speaking and listening skills, whereas literature is a matter of reading- writing, or writing to be read.
- The use of literature in B.Tech. classes cause difficulty to students who are not competent literally and linguistically thereby hampers students learning.
- Teaching language functions through literature requires comparatively more time as the teacher has to discuss the context and then leads students to language functions.

Weaknesses in the Above Arguments

- Literature shouldn’t be charged for the cultural and linguistic imperialism. Language comes in literature and cultures are implicit in it.
- Literature is not remote for the students. It presents them with real life situations. It is also found that literature presents situations that are more real than real life situations.

- In our context speaking and listening can't be done without doing reading. Reading is a solid ground that leads to listening and speaking.
- There is, in my research, no possibility of literal and linguistic incompetency for the students as the materials are prepared from the texts they have already studied. Here the focus is on language functions not skills.

Literature, it seems, is here to stay, for the time being at least, and particularly in the B.Tech. classroom where the global spread of bilingual and immersion education means that students are expected to be proficient at English communication skills, is difficult to follow. However there is a strong case for using literature to teach language functions to B.Tech. students.

Arguments for Using Literature (Sell,2005)

A welter of reasons for or benefits of teaching literature in the B.Tech. classes have been proffered by a variety of authors. For example, Parkinson and Reid Thomas (2000: 9-11) list, with more or less approval, the following ten:

- Cultural enrichment. Reading literature promotes cultural understanding and awareness. (Collie and Slater 1987; Schewe 1998; Sell (ed.) 1995; Silberstein 1994).
- Linguistic model. Literature provides examples of “good” writing, linguistic diversity, expressive ranges, and so on.
- Mental training. Better than any other discipline, literature trains the mind and sensibility.
- Extension of linguistic competence. Literature stretches the competences of learners who have mastered the linguistic rudiments.
- Authenticity. Literature is genuine linguistic material, not a linguistically contrived textbook (Duff and Maley 1990).
- Motivating material. Literature is more likely to engage with and motivate a learner than artificial teaching inputs because it is generated by some genuine impulse on the part of the writer and deals with subjects and themes which may be of interest to the learner (Duff and Maley 1990).

- Open to interpretation. Because literature is open to interpretation, it can serve as a basis for “genuine interaction” between learners (Duff and Maley 1990).

The above statements by different authors for the use of literature in language classes establish the benefits in using literature in the B.Tech. classes to teach language functions. Apart from offering a distinct literary world which can widen students’ understanding of their own and other cultures, it can create opportunities for personal expression as well as reinforce students’ knowledge of lexical and grammatical structure. An integrated approach to the use of literature in the B.Tech. classroom offers students the opportunity to develop not only their linguistic and communicative skills but their knowledge about language in all its discourse types. Literature presents them with language functions used in real life situation and thereby interests students to follow and use. Literary texts are representational rather than referential. Referential language communicates at only one level and tends to be informational. The representational language of literary texts involves the learners and engages their emotions, as well as their cognitive faculties. However, despite of much debate and discussion literature reign supreme for its implication to teach language skills and functions.

Challenges Faced in Using Literature in the B.Tech. Classroom

Using literature in B.Tech. classes to teach language functions no doubt brings positive results. At the same time literary texts can present teachers and students with a number of difficulties including:

- Text selection - texts need to be chosen that have relevance and interest to learners.
- Linguistic difficulty - texts need to be appropriate to the level of the students' comprehension.
- Length - shorter texts may be easier to use within the class time available, but longer texts provide more contextual details, and development of character and plot.
- Cultural difficulty - texts should not be so culturally dense that outsiders feel excluded from understanding essential meaning.
- Cultural appropriacy - learners should not be offended by textual content.

Solutions to These Challenges

This research has overcome the above challenges by

- Selecting sample language functions texts from short plays prescribed for +2 CHSE students. These texts are relevant and interesting for them. These are used not to teach language skills but language functions.
- Since the students have already studied these texts in their previous class, these are not difficult to understand. They do not face the language problem.
- The length of the texts is kept short by selecting sample materials from short plays to arrest the interest of the students.

Recommendations

The study found that the development of English proficiency of the students is an urgent need. This is because English language is an essential requirement for engineering students in the academic domain and the workplace. English proficiency refers to three aspects of the language-accuracy, fluency and language functions. The present syllabus helps developing students' accuracy and fluency, the least attention is given to language functions. Hence, English language courses taken by B.Tech. students do not enable them to use English effectively. Thus the students do need assistance based on their needs and wants. Similarly, Rayan (2007) stated that the involvement of ESP learners in designing their own courses will enhance their interest and motivation, foster critical thinking skills, make them take part in various language activities enthusiastically, and result in effective learning. He also emphasized that such a step would make the teaching- learning process enjoyable and pave the way for achieving course objectives. These claims point out a necessity to design a new syllabus to meet the students' needs. So the following recommendations might help in designing an English language course for the Engineering students.

- A new literature syllabus with some amount of focus of literature should be prepared to teach language functions that should include tasks that reinforce the achievement of generic skills/life skills like leadership skills, teamwork, critical thinking and problem-solving abilities along with effective communication skills.

- The perceived needs should be translated into pedagogic terms. In other words, when designing the English language course, ESP teachers should take into consideration learners' needs by focusing on all the language skills, with greater emphasis on speaking and listening and thereby producing literature focused materials showing language functions.
- A low-intermediate literature course may be added to the syllabus that would be more appropriate and meet the level of proficiency of the students. As Shuib (2008) said, "students must receive comprehensible input in English; input which they can understand" (p.168). The literature course should meet the interest level of the students.
- The duration of the syllabus should be increased so that English becomes an essential course at the B.Tech.
- The teachers should motivate and encourage students to read literature to get to know how language functions are used in different contexts.

Conclusion

To sum up, the current study explores B.Tech. students' English language needs and how the use of literature helps in meeting their needs. Literature is rooted in a language and language gets life through literature. So, Literature and Language are closely interconnected. According to Lazar (1993), "Literature should be used with students because it is motivating stimulus for language acquisition, students enjoy it, and it is a fun, it is found in many syllabuses and the like." According to Carter and Long (1991), "Literature is a legitimate and valuable resource for language teaching."

It is hoped that the use of literature will bring positive results in exposing the students to language functions in simulated real life situations in literary contexts. It is also hoped that recommendations of this study would serve as guidelines to what should be done in the review and re-development of the ESP curriculum offered to the B.Tech. students.

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**A Thematic Analysis of a Few Select Novels of
Bharati Mukherjee**

**Ms. K. S. Dhivya, Ph.D. Scholar
Dr. K. Ravindran**

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Abstract

This paper is a thematic analysis of a few select novels of Bharati Mukherjee. Diasporic literature, especially Indian Diasporic literature is the result of colonization and decolonization, the period in Indian history in which a large number of Indian people migrated to other countries either through colonization or by their need for work. Diaspora dream figures are found prominently in all the fiction of Bharati Mukherjee covering many moods of expatriation - nostalgia, frustration, uncertainty and despondency. In her novels, she explores the theme of expatriation, immigration and transformation. The protagonist of the novel *The Tiger's Daughter*, Tara Banerjee Cartright is an autobiographical presentation of Mukherjee. There is a strange fusion of the American and Indian in the psyche of Tara. She can take refuge neither in her old Indian self nor in the newly discovered American self. By analyzing the novel, one can understand how the first generation immigrant suffers in an alien country. *Jasmine* has achieved a proper identity and balance between tradition and modernity in the concluding part of the novel. *Leave It to Me (1997)* reveals the protagonist's ungrateful interaction with the kind adoptive parents and a vengeful search for her real parents. It also looks at the conflict between Eastern and Western worlds and mother-daughter relationships through the political and emotional topics by the main character in her quest for revenge. The expatriate and the immigrant are important figures in Mukherjee's writing because she uses them to integrate spatial location and dislocation.

Keywords: Diasporic literature, the Expatriate, the Immigrant, mother-daughter relationship, Colonization

Identity – Important Issue in Diasporic Literature

Identity is an important issue in diasporic literature. Diasporic literature, especially Indian Diasporic literature is the result of colonization and decolonization, the period in Indian history in which a large number of Indian people migrated to other countries either through colonization or by their need for work. The migrated people began to face different problems as they were indifferent to the culture of other countries, which lead them to search for their own identity.

This feeling of lack of identity gets classical expression in the diasporic literature of the period. Many writers like Jhumpa Lahiri, Kiran Desai, V. S. Naipaul, Salman Rushdie, Arvind Adiga and others have expressed the feelings of rootlessness in the countries to which they migrated, where they were treated as ‘others’. They have discussed the issues of globalization, consumerism, transnationalism, cultural hybridity, alienation, and identity crisis faced by the individuals. Their works focus on the dislocated self, which desires to search for home and identity in transnational and trans-cultural situations. Diasporic dream figures are found prominently in all the fiction of Bharati Mukherjee covering many moods of expatriation - nostalgia, frustration, uncertainty and despondency. Bharati Mukherjee is one of the most celebrated writers of the Asian immigrants’ experience in America. Her writings are largely honed by the multiple dislocations of her own personal life. Bharati Mukherjee is an Indian born American novelist, short story writer, non-fiction writer and journalist. Bharati Mukherjee, one of the famous women writers of the Indian diaspora, in most of her works brings out the experiences she has encountered in her life as an immigrant.

Theme of Expatriation, Immigration and Transformation

In her novels, Bharati Mukherjee explores the theme of expatriation, immigration and transformation. Her creative works comprise six novels *The Tiger’s Daughter* (1971), *Wife* (1975), *Jasmine* (1989), *The Holder of the World* (1993), *Leave It to Me* (1997), *Desirable Daughters* (2002) and *The Tree Bride* (2004). Her latest novel is *Miss New India* (2011). Her two collections of short stories are *Darkness* (1985) and *The Middleman and Other Stories* (1988). She has also written two fictional works along with her husband Clark Blaise, *Days and Night in Calcutta* (1977) and *The Sorrow and the Terror: The Haunting Legacy of the Air India Tragedy* (1987) as well as several journalistic articles and interviews. The significant ones are “*Political*

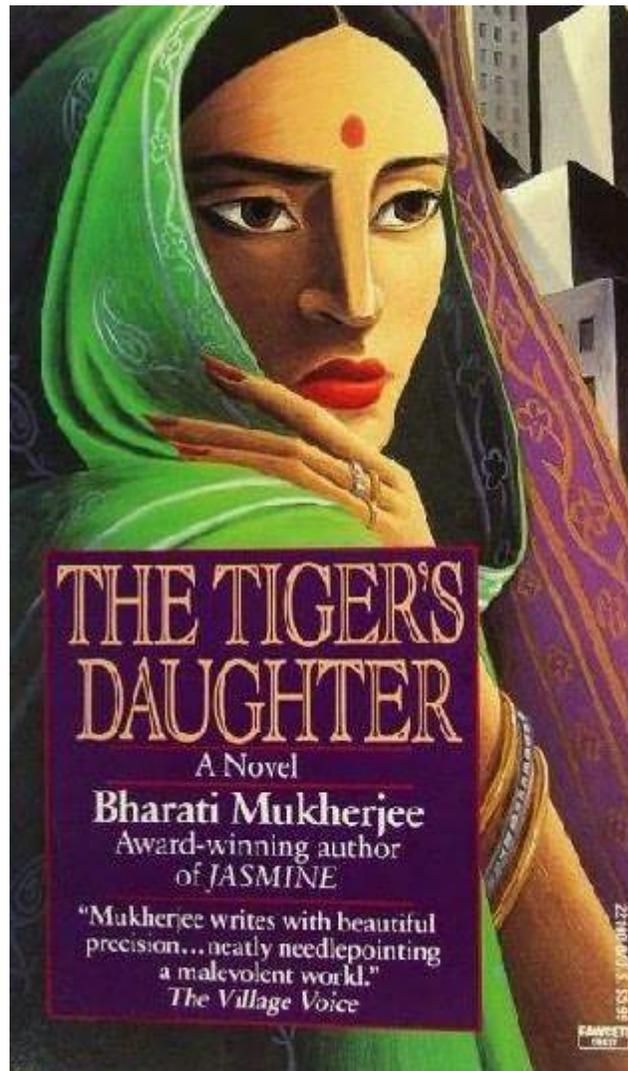
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Culture and Leadership in India (1991), “*Regionalism in Indian Perspective (1992),*” “*Immigrant Writing: Give us Your Maximalists,*” and “*Beyond Multiculturalism: Surviving the Nineties.*”

The Tiger's Daughter



Mukherjee's first novel *The Tiger's Daughter* (1972) is a fine presentation of cultural conflict. It was conceived in a very difficult phase of her life when she was struggling to determine her own identity in the Indian heritage. *The Tiger's Daughter* runs parallel to Bharati Mukherjee's own experience when she returned to India with her Canadian husband, Clark Blaise in 1973. While she was in Canada, Bharati Mukherjee published *The Tiger's Daughter and wife*. The story is about the traumas of expatriation. She was distinctively afflicted by the

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chaos and poverty in India as well as by the mistreatment and exploitation of women in the guise of tradition. In this novel, she feels a special oneness with India. It deals with the problems of immigrants. It is truly an immigrant novel. In this novel, the theme of expatriation and isolation is handled with assurance. The protagonist Tara speaks for herself. She tries to find new meaning for her life. She is real and life-like. The ethics governing the nature of Tara makes her feel independent and individual.

The protagonist of the novel, Tara Banerjee Cartwright is an autobiographical presentation of Mukherjee. There is a strange fusion of the Americanness and the Indianness in the psyche of Tara. She can take refuge neither in her old Indian self nor in the newly discovered American self. The novel is divided into four parts. Part I deals with the part of Tara, her family background, and the process of her settlement in New York; Part II deals with Tara's arrival at Bombay, her journey to Calcutta, and her reaction to India; Part III concentrates on Tara's life at Calcutta and her Catelli-continental friends; Part IV of the novel deals with her visit to Darjeeling with her friends to spend summer vacation, her coming back to Calcutta, her boredom and alienation, her victimization in a mob, and her tragic end which remains mysterious.

The novel begins with Tara's return to India after seven years in America first as a student at Vassar and later as the Indian wife of her American husband, David Cartwright. Tara imagines an India, but she faces a very different India from what she expected. Tara's self-analysis brings about an unhappy conclusion. *The Tiger's Daughter* illustrates the uprooted condition of Tara. Born in the family of Banerjees in Calcutta, Tara Banerjee Cartwright goes to the United States for higher studies. She marries David, an American and settles down in New York. After seven years she returns to Calcutta to locate her home, to trace her cultural roots and to reclaim her inherited identity as the daughter of the Bengal Tiger and as the great granddaughter of Hari Lal Banerjee of Panchapara. She shunts between Calcutta and New York, straddling Indian and American cultures. In the process she is caught between two worlds, two ideologies, two ways of life and two ways of encountering reality.

Tara returns to India after a lapse of even years. Having married David Cartwright, a writer, she is now Tara Banerjee Cartwright. On her arrival in India, she finds it difficult to relate

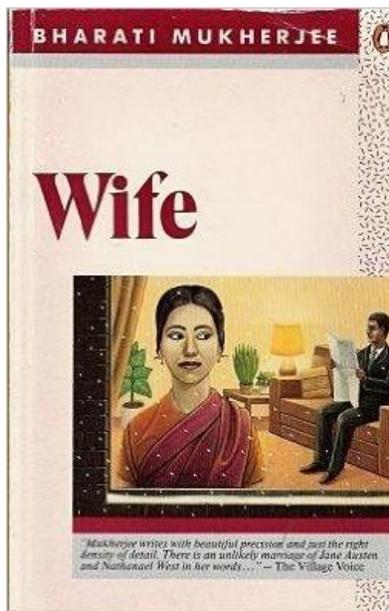
to her relatives in Bombay and Calcutta. They treat her like a foreigner. Though her parents, relatives and friends are eager to own her with her acquired foreignness, Tara feels insecure. Her alienation is deepened as she is welcomed by her relatives as ‘Americawali’ and her husband a ‘meleccha’ which means an outcast. Even at home she finds it difficult to play the role of a typical Bengali Brahmin. She feels guilty every time she enters the pooja room. Even while sitting before the rows of god and goddesses, she is not filled with piety. She thinks only about David. She is not able to sing bhajans. Tara remembers that as a child she had sung bhajans in the same house. But now, she is not able to sing spontaneously. She forgets her various steps in the religious rituals.

At a particular point, Tara realizes that the vacation will not be an easy one. Tara’s visit to Aunt Jharna’s house ends on a disastrous note. Her serious and innocent remarks, about when Aunt Jharna had tried plaster casts and special shoes for her clubfooted daughter, are mistaken. With a quiet violence, Aunt Jharna snubs Tara: “you think you are too educated for this, don’t you? [...] you have come back to make fun of us, haven’t you? What gives you the right? Your American money? Your *meleccha* husband? [...] or going to a school like St. Blaise’s?” (36-37). But for “a strange, unexpected little twinge called love” (37), Tara would have rushed out of the house to the safety of the car. This bitter incident makes Tara wonder.

Every time she meets her friends at the Catelli- Continental, she feels out of place in their company. She visits the funerary banks with Joyonto Roy Chowdhury, the owner of tea estates in Assam. She also feels that her visits are far from pleasant. All the efforts taken by her friends to treat her depression and fits of hysteria are in vain. When Tara visits Nayapur, a mining town near Calcutta with her friends, P. K. Tuntunwala, a businessman-turned-politician, he seduces her in the Nayapur Guest House. This incident undermines the little self-confidence that she is left with in a culture that is both alien and her own. Tuntunwala’s seduction outrages Tara so much that she resolves to leave Calcutta for good. But before she actually leaves, she is trapped in Sanjay’s car in the midst of a rioting mob on the road facing the Catelli-Continental. The rioters thrash Joyonto when he stirs out of the Catelli-Continental in a bid to save Tara. The mob also attacks Pronob, Tara’s friend violently when he goes out to rescue Joyonto.

Even Tara's visit to St. Blaise to meet the nuns is disappointing. To her the nuns seem "brownier than she remembered, their accents more Indian than she had expected". (200) All her early ideas of love, fair play and good manners had come from these women. But now, their quaint formation on the steps of St. Blaise's seems to be "people in a snapshot, yellow and faded". (201) Thus Tara's Indian dream is thoroughly shattered. She reconciles herself to reality. The story ends quite abruptly. The protagonist is left to wonder whether she will ever leave Calcutta and whether David will ever know that she loves him fiercely. In this novel, Hotel Catelli-Continental described as the "navel of the universe" becomes an important symbol of a rootless existence, a symbol of Tara's expatriate sensibility. In India she travels from Bombay to Calcutta, visits her aunt's place, the Catelli-Continental, Mr. Worthington's Council, the charity carnival, the funerary banks, Tollygunge, Darjeeling and Nayapur. There is also the temporal movement from Old India to New India. As Gillian observes, Old India implies order, safety and comfort and New India implies danger, disorder and confusion. The novel is open-ended as the reader is left wondering whether she could succeed in returning to her husband. The ending of the novel is used as a paradigm to question and discover – rediscover the new ways of defining reality in a world standing on the brink of the glorious mountain consisting of cash and pebbles.

Wife



Mukherjee's second novel *Wife* (1975) takes up a more complex dimension of the theme of immigrant experience. In this novel, Mukherjee deals with the complications that come from being thrown between two worlds and the strength and courage it takes to survive and live. *Wife* focuses on the status of the immigrant women experience, social oppression, east west encounter and cultural conflict. Like Bharati Mukherjee's many novels, this novel also has autobiographical elements. Her novel, *Wife* deals with Dimple, a young Indian woman. Dimple is married to a young engineer named Amit Basu; she was suppressed by the alien culture. She cannot adjust to her life in the USA out of fear and personal instability. She lacks inner strength and she cannot cope with the culture of New York. At the end of the novel Dimple murders her husband due to acculturative stress.

Even though the setting of *Wife* is New York, in the mind of the author it is probably Toronto. In the *first phase*, Dimple is the teenage daughter of Dasgupta, an electrical engineer. Due to a general strike in Calcutta, Dimple's prospects of getting a degree are postponed indefinitely. Mukherjee's *Wife* opens with the line "Dimple Dasgupta had set her heart on marrying a neurosurgeon, but her father was looking for engineers in the matrimonial ads". (Wife 3) As usual only the wishes of the parents are fulfilled. This is the first of a series of disappointments in Dimple's life. Amit wanted to marry a fat and tall woman with fluency in English while Dimple wanted to marry a neurosurgeon. Immigrating to America symbolizes her eschewing from Indian society and the restraints. However, in Dimple's American life, her husband, Amit Basu, becomes an obstacle when she is looking for a new self. There is a tug of war in Dimple's mind. Dimple's endless wait for Amit Basu, a mechanical engineer debilitates her. Amit has an advantage over other grooms. He has applied for immigration to the United States, Canada and Kenya. He will take up whichever offer comes first.

In the *second phase*, Dimple is the wife of Amit Basu. Her life in the joint family of the Basus bristles with problems. The claustrophobic atmosphere of the Basus' apartment in a three-storied building stifles her personality. Lack of privacy, lack of freedom even to choose the colour of her bedroom curtains, absence of basic amenities and the ever-growing demands of the joint family drive her crazy. After marriage, Dimple tries to please every member of the traditional Calcutta based Bengali joint family. When her husband and mother-in-law change her

name, she accepts her new identity. The first jolt to Dimple is the mother-in-law insisting on calling her 'Nandini,' which means the 'holy cow'. When she hears that her husband was planning to go to America, she feels that this decision of her husband could provide freedom and liberty. Both husband and wife are excited to fly, but their reasons for going to America are totally different. The major reason for going to America for Dimple is to be liberated from all ethnicity and tradition. She starts dreaming about her stay abroad without knowing the practical problems she is going to face there.

When Dimple becomes pregnant, she indulges in self-abortion of skipping ropes. She considers that a child will be a deterrent to her migration to America. She also kills a mouse that looks pregnant. To Maya Manju Sharma, Dimple's act of abortion "is a sacrament of liberation from the traditional roles and constraints of womanhood". (Maya Manju Sharma 1993: 15) Though she does not like Amit's habit of killing crows, she becomes a mute spectator to his sadistic pleasure. He has killed about two hundred and fifty three crows. Dimple's entry into New York is initiated with the role model of Sita. The contrast is quite evident that King Ram is seated on the throne in all regality while Sita is engrossed in hip-deep orange flames. Sita's virtual subordination to Rama is quite evident.

In the *third phase*, Dimple's life begins in the United States. Jyoti Sen, a former roommate of Amit at IIT, Kharagpur puts them up temporarily in his apartment in Queens, New York. Amit begins his long search for a job. Dimple's days are spent in the company of Meena Sen and other Bengali expatriates in New York. It is actually an extension of the Bengali community in Calcutta. Their dream is to return to India with the kind of money which will guarantee them a comfortable life in India. For them America is an alien country, so they want to return to their native land. The two do not stay happily due to their weak economic condition. She feels happy about the new surroundings. She is very much interested in learning how Meena Sen cleared her household items and how she purchased the things for their food. One day Dimple goes to the souk with Meena Sen to buy a cheesecake. Encouraged by Meena, she goes to the shop alone and notices inside the glass, one by one, the cake, the pickles, the salads, hanging salamis, pink roast beef, roast duck, turkey and so on. She asks for cheesecake but the shopkeeper starts staring at her.

Dimple passes time by helping Meena Sen in domestic works and in watching TV or reading newspapers. But she has to live always under fear. Very often she hears only about murder, smugglings in the basement of the building and such things. In the party at the Mullicks, she gets an ample opportunity to meet both Indians and Native Americans and study their culture. She meets Ina, the notorious wife of Bijoy Mullick. Dimple learns that violence is an inevitable aspect of life in New York. There are frequent announcements of murders in newspapers, car radio and in casual conversations. They bring a sort of restlessness and frustration in her. Dimple envies Ina Mullick because of her American life-style. Ina influences Dimple badly.

Unknowingly she starts liking her words and way of life. Ina leads her to fall in love with Mitt Glasser, an American. America's barbarous acts of violence, sex and bloodshed frighten and corrupt Dimple. This leads her to murder her husband later. An Indian in the tradition of an American, divorces her husband for he snored. Even the American cinema displays only sex and violence. When the visits of Milt Glasser and Ina become rare, Dimple feels very lonely, cut off and distraught. The loveless relationship with her husband contributes to her miseries. She suffers from insomnia. Dimple starts to compare him with Jyoti Sen and also with Milt Glassier. Amit worries about his job interviews, whereas Dimple is always in favour of making money, going to parties, conducting parties and getting well settled in New York. Once, Vinod Kanna, a prosperous businessman in the town, invites the couple for dinner. He also offers a job to Dimple but on her husband's advice, she declines it because Amit doubts Kanna's character.

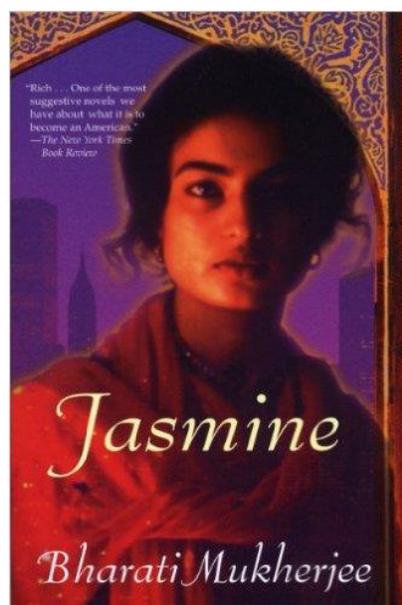
And the *fourth phase*, Dimple's life begins in Mookerji's apartment in Manhattan. The Mookerji's have sub-let their apartment as they are on sabbatical leave. Physically distanced from the 'expatriate' community, Dimple mingles with people like Mitt Glasser, Ina Mullick, and Leni Anspach. She eventually feels very lonely in her apartment in Manhattan. Watching television throughout the day becomes her way of life. Television brings the violence of America into her apartment. She entertains a fear of violence in real life and suffers from insomnia at night. Dreams and illusions haunt her during the day. All these imagined and experienced miseries drive her to the very brink of insanity. In a fit of utter disturbance, when reality and alternate reality coalesce, she murders her husband with a kitchen knife. Rootlessness is the main

causes of Dimple's problems that happen due to the lack of acculturation. Her dream turns into neurosis and finally she murders her husband, and justifies it by comparing to TV serial, 'women on television got away with murder'. (Mukherjee 1975: 213) The images of depression are symbolized by the physical Dimple and the mole on her husband's chest. Dimple's stabbing the mole on her husband's chest seven times symbolically suggests the destruction of their marital bond since the married couples according to the Hindu ritual takes seven steps, which, ritually is supposed to bind them together.

Rootlessness of the First Generation

By analyzing the novel, one can understand the rootlessness the first generation immigrant suffers in an alien country. The novelist has dealt with the event like marriage, love for Calcutta, east/west conflict and trauma or pregnancy. Dimple's fantasies take a violent turn, which takes her towards the negative side besides the stress of an alien culture. Mukherjee presents the expectation, dreams, desires of an Indian woman regarding marriage and married life and describes how her illusions of married life get shattered and how she also becomes embittered, estranged and morbid. *Wife* can be read as a title in irony. The title is significant and suggests the central theme of the novel. The protagonist struggles hard in that social role assigned to her.

Jasmine



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A Thematic Analysis of a Few Select Novels of Bharati Mukherjee

Mukherjee's third novel *Jasmine* (1988) reveals a more positivistic approach to the problem of immigration. *Jasmine* was written after Mukherjee migrated to the US and it is a poignant story of survival, expediency, compromises, losses and adjustments involved in the process of acculturation to American life. *Jasmine*, the female protagonist of Bharati Mukherjee's *Jasmine* is faced with the problem of the loss of culture and endeavoring to assume a new identity in the US. The novel focuses on *Jasmine*, an underage village girl from Punjab, who ventures as an undocumented woman and as a widow to the United States, where her fate will be "rewritten". The novel has a non-chronological order of events creating a rather cinematic effect, which makes it hard to follow the shifts in location, focalization and time. The narration is in the first person and the time and setting is Baden, Elsa country, Iowa, when *Jasmine* is aged twenty-four.

In *Jasmine*, Mukherjee tries to unravel the difficult layers of cross-cultural reality, through a series of adventures, which the heroine undertakes during her odyssey from Punjab to California via Florida, New York and Iowa. Her struggle symbolizes the restless quest of a rootless person piqued by a depressing sense of loneliness all around. Her journey through life leads *Jasmine* through many transformations – Jyoti, *Jasmine*, Jazzy, Jase and Jane via divergent geographical locales like Punjab, New York, Iowa and finally California. The narrative shuttles between past and present, between India of the narrator's early life, and America of her present one. *Jasmine* is a giver. She is a caregiver, recipe-giver, a preserver and a tornado. She is a vital, life-giving force to Bud, Taylor, Duff and Du - they all love her and depend on her. She learns how to reinvent both herself and the American dream.

The novel begins with the retelling of a story from her childhood about an astrologer who predicts her future as a widower living in exile. Then we are transported to see her living in Baden, Iowa where *Jasmine* (known as Jane in Iowa) is 24 years old, pregnant and living with 53 year old banker Bud Ripplemayer, and their adopted son Du. Bud insists on marrying Jane, who refuses for unknown reasons. Bud is also in a wheelchair because he was shot in the back two years ago. Jane and Bud have a neighbor named Darrel Lutz, a recent college grad who inherited his family's farm. He is contemplating whether or not to sell his farm. Bud refuses to loan Darrel

money to inflate his herd and grow his crops because Bud doesn't trust Darrel's character as a farmer and a manager. Darrel also shows some romantic interest in Jane.

Jane walks us through her life with Du and Bud before flashing back to her life in Hasnapur, Jullundhar District, Punjab, India (page 39). Here in India, she is known as Jyoti. She has a teacher named Masterji, who teaches her English. Masterji urges Jyoti to continue with her education instead of getting married. Soon after Jyoti's father passes away, she meets Prakash. They marry and move in together. He begins to call her Jasmine. Prakash works two jobs and studies for his diploma exams while Jasmine runs a Ladies' Group raffle and sells detergent to make money. Prakash receives a letter from Professor Vadhera who encourages Prakash to study in America. While he is making plans to move the two of them to Florida, one day Prakash is killed by a bomb, when he was out shopping for saris, set off by a man named Sukhwinder.

Jasmine continues with Prakash's plans to move to Florida, travelling by plane, train, and ship. Half-Face, the captain of the ship drives Jasmine to a motel when they arrive to land. He then sexually assaults her. Jasmine scrutinizes killing herself but instead kills Half-Face. She burns Prakash's suit that she carried with her and leaves the motel. Jasmine meets Lillian Gordon, who takes her in. Mrs. Gordon is also housing three Kanjobal women. She calls Jasmine "Jazzy," and helps Jazzy get to New York to meet with Professor Vadhera. Lillian also has a daughter named Kate Gordon-Feldstein who works as a photographer in the city. Lillian is later sent to jail for exploiting undocumented fees for cooking, cleaning and yard work. For five months, Jasmine lives with Professor Vadhera, whom she calls Professorji. She becomes depressed because she has qualms, hesitating to leave the house without a green card. Professorji agrees to get her a green card, for fifty thousand rupees, or three thousand dollars.

Jasmine begins working for Wylie and Taylor Hayes, friends of Kate Gordon-Feldstein. She moves in with them in Manhattan to take care of their adopted daughter, Duff. Taylor calls her "Jase." Wylie falls out of love with Taylor and falls for Stuart. Wylie leaves Taylor, but Jase continues to take care of Duff. She falls in love with Taylor, but one day while the three of them are at the park, Jase spots Sukhwinder, the man that killed Prakash. She flees New York for Iowa. She chooses Iowa because Duff's birth mother lives in Iowa. Back in present day Iowa,

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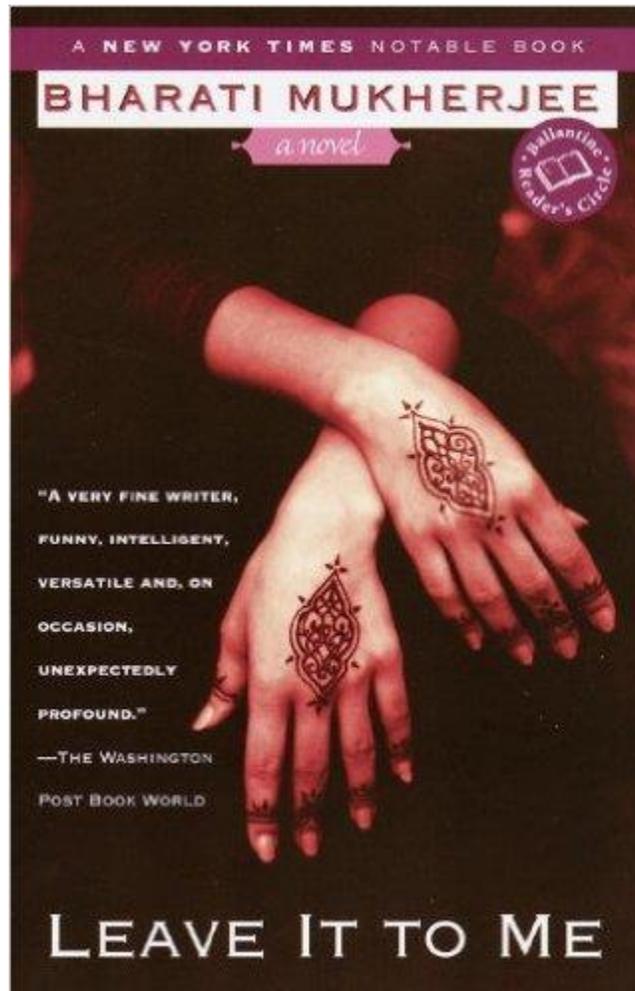
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Jane recalls the night two years ago when Harlan Kroener shot Bud. They were walking to Harlan's car when he shot Bud. He then proceeded to kill himself. Harlan was angry at Bud because of money issues with the bank. Before Bud met Jane, he was married to Karin. Karin initially hates Jane for taking her husband from her, but they maintain a spiritual relationship.

Jane receives a letter from Taylor, letting her know he and Duff are on their way to find Jane. Du figures out Jane is in love with another man besides Bud. Jane goes to visit Darrel because he says he feels crazy, but she leaves soon when he starts insulting her and Bud's relationship. She suspects he might shoot himself that night. When she returns home, Du announces that he is going to L.A. to live with his sister and he leaves with his friend John. Karin visits, and the two of them drive to see how Darrel is faring. He is fixing up his hog house. Back at the house, Jane tells Bud that Du went to visit his sister but he will be back before school starts. Bud later approves of Darrel's loan application, and the two of them drive over to let him know the news. But when they arrive, they discover him hanging from a rafter.

Bud begs for Jane to tell him she loves him, but she doesn't respond. Du has decided to stay in California. While Jane is working in the kitchen, she sees a car pull up the driveway and Taylor and Duff get out of the car. Taylor tries to convince Jane to come with him to California. She is hesitant, thinking of Bud who will lose everything if she leaves. She calls Karin and tells her she's "going somewhere," to see Du. Jasmine stops thinking of herself as Jane and follows Taylor and Duff to the car, whispering "Watch me re-position the stars," to the astrologer who foretold her widowhood and exile. *Jasmine* has achieved a proper identity and balance between tradition and modernity in the concluding part of the novel. The transformation of the heroine satisfies her inner self rather than the society. As social-realism adorns the life of the poor, in *Jasmine* the life of Jyothi is glorified by herself and her inner consciousness which makes her act according to her own wish. Mukherjee's novel reaches the theme of fulfillment within the inner self at the final moment.

Leave It to Me



Mukherjee's fifth novel *Leave It to Me* (1997) reveals the protagonist's ungrateful interaction with kind adoptive parents and a vengeful search for her real parents. It also looks at the conflict between Eastern and Western worlds and mother-daughter relationships through the political and emotional topics by the main character in her quest for revenge. This work continues the theme of immigration. The story also includes a character called "guru" who has the dubious distinction of leaving behind a trail of used and abused women, illegitimate children, rapes and murders across the Indian subcontinent. An unwanted female child is dropped like a hot brick at the nearest orphanage, where she is called Faustine. The child was later adopted but an Italian-American family and christened as Debby Di Martino.

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Despite the love and affection of her foster family, Debby grows up with the awareness of being different, the feeling that she is an unwanted obstacle in a world that hurtles on towards its mysterious destination. The feeling is sometimes a haunting loneliness, when everyone is surrounded by love while one is feeling alone. She sets out in search of her past, her origins, and the unknown “bio-parents” who had callously abandoned her, as the story draws toward its conclusion. The story progresses with jerks and shocks in a picaresque fashion, bringing together a variety of characters that may or may not help the protagonist in her search for her “bio-mom.” The story mainly revolves around that girl but at the same time is concerned with the individual.

Three Stage of Transition of *Adopt, Adapt and Adept*

Mukherjee, as a woman with the diasporic experience and also as a diasporic writer, has passed through the three stage of transition of *Adopt, Adapt* and *Adept*. It begins with her adoption of Eurocentric norms in *The Tiger’s Daughter* and *Wife*. Later with *Jasmine* and *The Holder of the World* she passes through the *Adapt* stage with mentors. Mukherjee reaches the *Adept* stage with the publication of *Leave It to Me, Desirable Daughter* and *The Tree Bride*, articulating in her own unique voice and experimenting with hybridity, multiple belonging, and cultural syncretism. The narrative structure also reflects this three-stage transformation. Mukherjee’s life and her work can be divided into “expatriate” and “immigrant” phases. She attributes her representations of South Asian migrants in Canada to the workings of an “expatriate” sensibility, and views the narratives written while she has been in the US as the product of an “immigrant” imagination. While both her immigrant and expatriate characters face the fear of failure, there is a crucial difference in the cultural response of each person, as they struggle with the trauma of displacement in the New World. The expatriate and the immigrant are important figures in Mukherjee’s writing because she uses them to integrate (as well as interrogate) spatial location and dislocation.

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Rural Banking and Rural Development – A Case Study of Developing Countries with Special Reference to Rwanda

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the importance of Rural Banking and Rural Areas and their implications. The article defines Rural Livelihood as an occupation, as source of income and livelihood in the rural areas that include agricultural work and other allied rural employment such as labor, home industry, etc. The study has examined the economic conditions in developing countries, thus will determine the Status of a country's financial position at a specific period of time. Economic condition is used for statistics and it involves unemployment rates, stock market data, and GDP information, among other metrics. Statistics changes over time in line with the economic and business cycle, as an economy goes through expansion and contraction. The study tries to determine the number of borrowers with poverty alleviation objectives in the area; assess the extent of awareness and participation of rural people in microfinance activity, and examine the impact of the cooperative on farmers' income, farm size, production and productivity. The main purpose of the Rural Bank is to provide banking and credit facilities to the rural people. The regional Rural Banks have been conceived as: (a) an answer to meet the diverse and heterogeneous needs of rural people with different socio-economic and agro- geographical conditions, (b) designed to specific economic and occupational groups, i.e., the small and marginal farmers, agriculture labourers, artisans etc. and (c) to be a catalytic agent to develop the rural economy by providing not only credit but also other facilities.

Key words: Rwanda, Rural Banking, Rural Development, Developing countries economic programmes

1. Introduction

Development is a continuous process, which brings quantitative and qualitative changes in a particular area. Prevailing conditions of living standards are improved through these changes. Efforts are made to improve standards of living. Development includes all spheres of human life i.e., economic, social, political, cultural, environmental, technical etc. Hence, development is concerned with exhaustive development of human life. We can draw the conclusion that rural development is a strategy by which more employment opportunities are created in rural areas and efforts are made to increase the level of income and thereby raising the standards of living of rural masses. Rural development is economic activities or initiatives that are designed to improve the living standards in areas far away from large towns or cities. It improves the quality of life of rural people. Rural development is defined as the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas. The primary objective of rural development is to reduce rural poverty. Targeting rural poverty reduction also means focusing on strengthening social cohesion and reducing inequality. Poverty reduction is a complex process and many factors will determine whether economic growth is associated with poverty reduction, such as the initial level of inequality, the composition of growth and how inequality changes over the period of growth. Given Rwanda's geographical and demographic composition, sustained economic growth requires large gains in poverty reduction and vice versa.

Rural Development emphasizes the foundations and linkages of rural growth and the coordination between sectors such as land, infrastructure, agriculture and rural finance, while at the same time understanding the need for broader urban and rural linkages. Rural development is not merely development of rural areas but also the development of the rural peoples into self-reliant and self-sustaining modern little communities. Rural development is, therefore the development of rural areas in such a way that each component of rural life changes in a desired direction and in sympathy the other components (National Bank of Rwanda, 1978). The concept of Rural Banking is now seen as a potential global solution to push financial literacy across the rural and poor communities around the world. Rural banking attempts to offer all the basic banking services that people living in rural areas need. Cash deposits are one of the most

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common services, since these occur on a regular basis and must often be done in person. Loan and loan repayment services are also offered for those who cannot make their payments in any other way. The rural banking plays an important role in the development of a country. A sound, progressive and dynamic banking system is a fundamental requirement for rural development. The rural banks render vital services to the rural masses belonging to various sectors of economy like agriculture, industry whether small scale or large scale and also to the tertiary sector that is the service sector. The rural banks are expected to help the government in its pursuit of building up an egalitarian society with a rising standard of living by designing their lending policies accordingly. The specific role of banks in economic development varies, depending on scope. Primarily, the participation of banks in economic development focus around providing credit and services to generate revenues, which are then invested back into a local, national, or international community.

The specific roles banks play in the economic development of a small community differ from the role banks play in national or international economic development. Although the role can vary, factors such as access to credit and bank investment policies or practices remain constant, no matter the scope of economic development. A financial intermediaries, banks play vital role in the operations of most economies, savings, mobilizations by a financial institutions is a particularly important “As more than 60 per cent of people in African countries live in rural areas with low income and the roles of microfinance - and savings mobilization institutions are indispensable”. Taking into consideration the socioeconomic environment of Rwanda, the banks are not expected to be inclined towards the already developed sector but towards the underdeveloped.

In Africa, rural areas suffer from financial exclusion. This is vindicated by very little or non-existence of rural banking facilities. For sub-Saharan Africa, about 70% of the population lives in rural areas and the majority are poor. Robinson (2001) and Vincent (2004) note that about 90 percent of the population in developing economies lack access to financial services from formal financial institutions. Commercial banks continue to shun rural areas, preferring urban areas, and this constrains efforts to bring the poor and marginalized into the mainstream economy. Apparently, traditional banks shun establishing branches in rural areas because of high information, transaction and monitoring cost, inaccessibility due to poor infrastructure, dispersed

and intermittent demand for financial services, seasonality deposits and lack of collateral. With this backdrop, rural underdevelopment remains a painful challenge in the developing economy. The rural areas remain excluded from participating in the mainstream of the economy; their inability to mobilize cheap financial resources makes it difficult for them to improve their livelihoods (Adams et al. 1984; Chen and Ravallion 2007; Matunhu 2012).

In Rwanda, for example, Development Bank of Rwanda (BRD) seems to be the only hope in injects strength and accelerates the growth of rural economy and ensures the development of rural areas. Rural development in Rwanda is recognized as sine qua non for faster economic development and welfare of common masses. Rwanda economy is expecting to grow by 7-8 percent in 2012 driven mainly by both an expanding industrial base and good crop yield. The economy had been bolstered by a booming agriculture sector, which constitutes around 38 percent of the economy, and public investment would help maintain growth momentum. The government has focused on restricting the tea and coffee sectors and financial system, while investing in energy, transport and telecommunications infrastructure. Also attributed to good performance in the agricultural sector are the on-going programmes on crop intensification, land consolidation, fertilizer application introduction of good variety of seeds is proof better result ahead. In order to provide a significant contribution to the economy of a country, the bank has to remain strong in its potential growth and profitability, so that, it can support sustainable development while maintaining its services to the community. The several characteristics of low income countries have followed Savings and Credit Cooperatives (SACCO) model for mobilizing savings and encourage saving habits of people. It is important to emphasize that SAACOs are normally established on a voluntary basis. During the last 5 years, BRD has injected in the Rwandan economy an average amount of Rwf 18.5 Billion per year. Since BRD is committed to pursuing the broad poverty reduction agenda set out in its vision, recognizing the allocation of its scarce human and financial resources through greater selectivity of investment within priority sectors which do not attract investment from other financial institutions, the Bank's available lending resources will therefore be sharply focused on those interventions and areas of development where Bank assistance can have the greatest development impact. Development Bank of Rwanda is the Government of Rwanda's investment arm that finances the nation's development objectives with a focus on the priority sectors of the

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economy. Compared to other financial institutions of the country, BRD ranks the first in financing such investments. In fact, it regularly finances more than 80% of investments in the primary and secondary sectors.

2. Status of Rural Livelihood in Developing Countries

Over the last decade several donors and NGOs have adopted a livelihoods approach to development. More recently, there have also been efforts to approach socio-economic development through the framework of human rights. Rural development should be central to poverty reduction. However, rural development faces a loss of confidence: funding has been falling, and governments and donors are scrambling to rethink policy. Soil conservation and land management is by now an established component in rural development, but interventions have met with considerable challenges. The view of rural people in this context has varied between conservationist, producer, and land manager. Rural livelihood is occupation as source of income and livelihood in the rural areas that include agricultural work and other allied rural employment such as labor, home industry etc. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. The study assesses the capital endowments and production activities of households which interact to determine the well-being of households as followed: Capital assets, Production and income, Drivers of change, and Poverty. The study states that with respect to human capital, labor is generally fully utilized, without major underutilization even in the dry season. A major determinant of dry land crop production income is cattle numbers, as these provide inputs into cropping (manure and draft), but access to non-farm cash income also improves crop income, as it is a major source of cash to purchase inputs. Most households rely on income (cash and subsistence) from a number of sources, including dry land crop production, gardening, livestock production, woodland activities, wages or home industries and remittances/gifts. There are a wide variety of crops and vegetables, and livestock have multiple functions. Elements of change can be identified in numerous aspects of capital assets and livelihood strategies. There are some key drivers of change, namely: (a) rainfall, (b) macro-economic changes, (c) changing institutional arrangements and social processes, and (d) demographic processes and HIV/ AIDS. Rainfall is a primary driver of change, altering crop production from year to year and causing massive longer-

term fluctuations in livestock numbers, in particular cattle Households are unable to raise sufficient grain for their subsistence needs in one out of three years.

Rural poverty in semi-arid regions is a result of a combination of interacting social, economic and environmental factors and processes operating at a range of scales. Some of these are: (i) adverse biophysical conditions, resulting in, among other things, low agricultural potential and disastrous crashes in livestock numbers; (ii) insufficient high quality land, which is a result of colonial land-allocation patterns; (iii) labor scarcities, even more so in the face of the HIV/AIDS pandemic; (iv) economic remoteness, with presumably higher transaction and input costs, and few investments because returns to investments are low compared to other places; (v) lack of credit markets as a result of little or no collateral; (vi) few employment opportunities and low levels of education and skill; (vii) low cash incomes and hence an inability to purchase some basic needs (e.g., medicines, secondary school education); (viii) poor macro-economic conditions; (ix) the HIV/AIDS pandemic, resulting in the loss of breadwinners, labor scarcities and increased costs; (x) low levels of empowerment; and (xi) declining woodland resources leading to the need for greater investments (e.g., labor) to acquire basic products. The multi-faceted nature of poverty indicates that there can be no silver bullet to rural development, and that an integrated, multi-sectorial approach to development is critical, with different but complementary activities across a wide range of sectors.

To conclude this section, Livelihood approaches have considerable potential for improving the focus of programmes and policies and the overall strategic coherence of interventions that a government or donor uses to promote poverty reduction.

2.1. Demography Profile

A population's age structure is affected by the rates of change that occur across age groups on the three measures of fertility, mortality, and immigration. The "youth bulge" and the rapid growth of elderly populations relative to the working age population are two key age structure transitions that will shape the first decades of the 21st century. For the first time in human history, the next decades will witness the emergence of an urban majority in all regions, including sub-Saharan Africa.

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The UN projects that the total urban population in the developing world, estimated at 1.97 billion in 2000, will more than double to 3.9 billion by 2030 and swell still further to 5.3 billion in 2050. By 2030 eight out of every ten of the world's urban residents will live in cities in Africa, Asia, or Latin America. The rate of urban population growth 28 in poor countries is fueled by natural increase more than migration, and already exceeds national growth rates. Most urban growth in the 21st century will occur in towns and cities where government services and infrastructure. The demographic changes will have on development over the first half of the 21st century by taking a close look at three demographic trends: fertility, mortality, and immigration; and examining how these will touch policy issues including poverty, public finance and infrastructure, and climate change. Three (3) major components derive red are developed as followed: (i) Fertility, (ii) Mortality, (iii) International migration The size of the global population is most affected by fertility rates in countries with moderate to high population growth. At the global level, fertility rates have been falling since the last decades of the 20th century as a result of the (largely) voluntary choices of couples to limit the number of children born Very high fertility rates.

Across regions, there is only sub-Saharan Africa's fertility still averages above 5 (classified as very high), ensuring continuing population growth there into the 21st century. High fertility rates persist principally in 35 of the world's poorest countries, with Afghanistan, Nigeria, Uganda, and Yemen on course to see their populations triple by 2050. Stalled rates of fertility decline. While evidence of fertility decline can be found in all regions, including Africa, the pace of the transition varies sharply across regions. In some countries, a persistent preference for sons may play an important role in keeping fertility rates above replacement levels. Whatever the reason, the duration of stalled rates of fertility decline, especially in The African Sahel's fragile ecosystem continues to be burdened with a population increase of 3 percent each year. (Alex De Sherbinin and George Martine, 2007).

Mortality rates are determined chiefly by child mortality and longevity and show an improvement worldwide. Child mortality rates appear to be improving after a period of stagnation, while more and more developing countries are experiencing gains in longevity. As

with fertility decline, developing countries in the 20th century experienced unprecedented gains in child survival. The rate of child mortality decline has slowed since around 1980 although it may now be picking up again. The slowdown occurred both in those countries where child mortality rates have fallen to the levels of industrialized countries, and in high mortality regions, including sub-Saharan Africa.

Globally, AIDS mortality will have a modest effect on future world population size; indeed, no single country is expected to see a decline in population size due to AIDS. During the second half of the 20th century, life expectancy at birth converged markedly across countries, with poor countries experiencing rapid gains caused mainly by striking improvements in child survival. Life expectancy raised an average of 23 years in the poorest 50 percent of countries between 1960 and 2000, but only nine years in the richest 50 percent, according to WHO. The movement of people across borders is the third force shaping population size, age structure, and distribution. Since the focus of the Demography and Development is on immigration from poor countries to richer ones and, to a lesser extent, to other poor countries. In 2005, approximately 60 million people migrated from a less developed country to a more developed one, roughly the same number that migrated from one less developed country to another less developed one.

2.2. Social Structure

Social structure is the organized pattern of social relationships and social institutions that together compose society. Social structures are not immediately visible to the untrained observer; however they are present and affect all dimensions of human experience in society. Social class shapes the access that different groups have to the resources of society and it shapes many in the Social Structure and interaction in everyday life. Social interaction is the process by which people act toward or respond to other people and is the foundation for all relationships and groups in society. Social structure is the framework of societal institutions (politics, and religion) and social practices (social roles) that make up a society and establish limits on behavior.

The Rwandan culture includes not only the population of Rwanda but people in neighboring states, particularly Democratic Republic of Congo and Uganda, who speak the Kinyarwanda language. The important ethnic divisions within Rwandan culture between Hutu,

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Tutsi, and Twa are based on perceptions of historical group origins rather than on cultural differences. All three groups speak the same language, practice the same religions, and live interspersed throughout the same territory; they are thus widely considered to share a common culture, despite deep political divisions.

Kinyarwanda is a unifying factor within Rwanda, since it is spoken almost universally. Closely related to Kirundi (spoken in Burundi), Mashi (spoken in the South Kivu region of the Democratic Republic of Congo), and Kiha (spoken in northwestern Tanzania), Kinyarwanda is a Bantu language. Less than 10 percent of Rwanda's population also speaks French, and a small portion speaks English, primarily refugees returned from Uganda and Kenya. Kinyarwanda is the primary cultural identify for Rwandans living outside Rwanda.

The three ethnic groups in Rwanda emerged through a complex process of immigration and social and economic differentiation that took place over several centuries. Tradition holds that Twa were the original inhabitants; Hutu came second in a wave of migration from the west, and Tutsi came much later from the northeast. Archeological and anthropological research, however, indicates that in fact patterns of migration were much more complex, as populations moved into Rwanda over many centuries. Each new group of migrants adopted the local language and most local customs, although they also added some of their own beliefs and practices to the local culture.

Modern ethnic identities emerged fairly recently and therefore could not derive primarily from migration. In fact, the differentiation throughout the region into three fully distinct ethnic groups occurred only during the colonial period and grew much more from European ideas about race and identity than from historic cultural patterns. Historically, social status was symbolized through the possession of cattle, the primary sign of wealth in Rwanda. In fact, Hutu families that acquired sufficient cattle and were able to take clients in the cattle vassalage system would eventually have their status changed and come to be known as Tutsi, whereas Tutsi who lost their cattle and clients would eventually be considered Hutu. Although ownership of cattle is no longer associated with ethnic identity, it remains an important symbol of status. Other historic symbols of high social status, such as elaborate hair styles and distinctive dress, are no longer in

practice. Social status in contemporary Rwanda is reflected in the knowledge of French or English, which demonstrates a degree of education, and in the possession of consumer goods such as vehicles and televisions.

2.3. Economic Conditions

The study wants to examine the Economic conditions in developing countries, thus will determine the Status of a country's financial position at a specific period of time. Economic condition is used for statistics and it involves unemployment rates, stock market data, and GDP information, among other metrics. It change over time in line with the economic and business cycle, as an economy goes through expansion and contraction. Economic conditions are considered to be sound or positive when an economy is expanding, and are considered to be adverse or negative when an economy is contracting. A country's economic conditions are influenced by numerous macroeconomic and microeconomic factors, including monetary and fiscal policy, the state of the global economy, unemployment levels, productivity, exchange rates, and inflation and so on.

There are numerous economic indicators that are used to define the state of the economy or economic conditions. Some of these are the unemployment rate, levels of current account and budget surpluses or deficits, GDP growth rates, inflation rates and more. Economic data is released on a regular basis, generally weekly or monthly, and sometimes quarterly. Some economic indicators like the unemployment rate and GDP growth rate are watched closely by market participants, as they help to make an assessment of economic conditions and potential changes in them. Since most marketers are engaged in activities designed to entice customers to spend their money, it makes sense that an important external force is economic conditions. Economic analysis looks at how a defined group produces, distributes and consumes goods and services. These groupings can range from those defined very broadly (e.g., country) to those defined narrowly (e.g., small town). Of course the production, distribution and consumption of products are also of high interest to marketers and, in fact, many leading scholars of marketing first studied economics before moving to marketing.

In very simple terms (and with apologies to both marketers and economist) the major difference between the marketer and economist is that marketers are engaged in activity that make things happen to individual customers (e.g., create demand for products) while economists are engaged in activity showing the results marketers' decisions have on a group (e.g., study how much is being spent by certain groups). Additionally, economists whose job it is to study a group may use hundreds of economic variables when assessing how a group is responding. Marketers tend to evaluate far fewer economic variables preferring to concentrate on those variables that affect spending behavior of consumers and businesses. The economic conditions of most interest to marketers include:

- Income – how much is being earned
- Spending – what consumers and businesses are doing with their money
- Interest Rates – the cost of borrowing money
- Inflation – how prices for products and services are changing
- Cost of Living – the financial requirements of living in a certain geographic area
- Employment Rates – the percentage of employable people who are working
- Exchange Rates – how the value of currencies are changing between countries and regions.

2.4. Assessment of the Present Conditions

The concept of rural development has been broadened in recent times to accommodate non - economic issues, especially those relating to social, political, legal, cultural and environmental issues. This broadened rural development concept, otherwise known as the sustained rural development, takes a long - term view of which meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the needs of future generation. Participation means the active involvement of communities in need assessment, determination of priorities, planning and execution of projects. It also refers to the contribution of potential beneficiaries to the realization of a project for their own development. Community - based participatory approach to development is described as an umbrella term for anti-poverty programmes that involve the beneficiaries in their design and management. The key factor in participation is the incorporation of local knowledge into projects' decision-making process. Participation is fruitful for sustainable change as an active process by which beneficiaries or client groups

influence the direction and execution of development projects in order to enhance their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance and other cherished values.

The numerous initiatives of governments and development agencies in recent decades to provide access to financial services for the part of the population not being served by the formal financial sector did have some positive impact. However, significant challenges still remain, the most important ones being the creation of an appropriate economic environment, a conducive legal and regulatory framework and the development of sustainable (subsidy-free) financial intermediaries, in both urban and rural areas. Without a well-functioning finance system, neither aid nor local entrepreneurship as such can create the right business climate conditions for long-term economic growth.

Access to finance is a key to development and growth. Poor people need financial services for the same reasons as everyone else - to save small amounts of money in a secure manner, to invest in their home or business, to meet large expenditures, to insure against risk and to transfer money. It is a mistaken belief that poor people do not or cannot save money. In fact, poor people throughout the world and across many cultures and economies save in many ways and for a variety of purposes. They save for household emergencies, to manage irregular income streams, for social and religious obligations and for long-term investment opportunities. Often these savings are set aside in non-financial forms, since suitable savings institutions and instruments are not available for this part of society. Moreover, confidence in the financial system is generally lacking because of low stability and high inflation figures. Access to financial services for the poor will contribute to achieving the MDGs in many ways. Financial services enable the poor to increase and diversify incomes, build human, social and economic assets, and improve their lives in ways that reflect the multi-dimensional aspects of poverty. Evidence shows that poor people choose to invest in a wide range of assets: better nutrition, improved health, access to schooling, a better roof on their homes, and expansion of their small businesses (CGAP, 2002).

3. Financial Institutions as Change Agent

Financial institution is an establishment that focuses on dealing with financial transactions, such as investments, loans and deposits. Conventionally, financial institutions are

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composed of organizations such as banks, trust companies, insurance companies and investment dealers. Almost everyone has deal with a financial institution on a regular basis. Everything from depositing money to taking out loans and exchange currencies must be done through financial institutions. A financial institution is any establishment where the primary activity is fostering financial transactions. There is a wide variety of financial institutions available, from large commercial banks to small credit unions.

Commercial banks can be anything from a single-branch institution to a multinational corporation. Despite the size, most commercial banks tend to do the same sorts of financial transactions. They serve the consumer by allowing deposits that keep the customer's funds safe. They also provide business and personal loans, as well as act as intermediaries for payments between persons, organizations and even nations. Investment banks and brokerages are also examples of financial institutions. Both handle investments, with investment banks dealing mostly with offering funds to other enterprises, while brokerages allow customers to invest in companies and commodities through the purchase of financial instruments. Government agency or privately owned entity that collects funds from the public, and from other institutions, and invests those funds in financial assets, such as loans, securities, bank deposits, and income generating property.

Financial institutions act as intermediaries between saver and borrowers and are differentiated by the way they obtain and invest their funds. Depository financial institutions is a group that includes commercial banks, savings and loan associations, mutual savings banks, and credit unions-conduct business by accepting public deposits, which are insured by the federal government against loss, and channeling their depositors' money into lending activities. Non depository financial institutions, such as brokerage firms, life insurance companies, pension funds, and investment companies, fund their investment activities directly from the financial markets by selling securities to the public or by selling insurance policies, in the case of insurance companies. Increasingly, the boundaries between depository and non-depository institutions have become less distinct.

Financial-institution is the same services as banks without being considered banks themselves include savings and loans and credit unions. The main difference savings and loans have from banks is that their lending is restricted primarily to mortgages. Credit unions differ in that they must limit membership to specific organizations, such as a company or church, without being open to the general public. The institutional elements of a vibrant financial sector are now in place in Rwanda, with bank and non-bank deposit-taking institutions, insurance companies and capital markets firms providing an expanding range of products and services (Table 1.)

Table 1. Rwandan formal financial sector, end-2011.

	Number	Assets (RWF billions)	Assets (\$ millions)	Assets (percent of GDP)
Banks	13	1,083.3	1,793.5	29.2
Foreign-owned commercial banks ^a	6	374.3	619.7	10.1
Local privately owned commercial banks ^b	2	361.7	598.8	9.7
Cooperative bank ^c	1	156.7	259.4	7.0
Microfinance banks ^d	4	100.3	166.1	2.7
Development bank ^e	1	90.1	14.9	2.4
Microfinance institutions (MFIs)	497	77.4	128.1	2.1
SACCOs	486	55.0	91.1	1.5
Of which, Umurenge SACCOs	416	29.1	48.2	0.8
MFIs	11	22.3	36.9	0.6
Insurance companies	8	143.7	237.9	3.9
Public insurers ^f	2	--	--	--
Private insurers ^e	6	--	--	--
Insurance brokers	5	--	--	--
Insurance agents	102	--	--	--
Insurance adjustors	4	--	--	--
Pension schemes	41	189.4	313.5	5.1
Rwanda Social Security Board ^h	1	211.6	350.3	9.4
Private	40	--	--	--
Listed companies (market capitalization) ⁱ	4	255.5	423.0	6.9
Stock brokers, dealers	8	--	--	--
Capital markets advisory services	2	--	--	--
Members of the Over-the-Counter Market	7	--	--	--

- a. Access Bank, Banque Commercial du Rwanda, Ecobank, Equity Bank, Finabank, Kenya Commercial Bank.
- b. Bank of Kigali, CogeBanque,
- c. Banque Populaire du Rwanda.
- d. Urwego Opportunity Bank, Ageseke Bank, Unguka Bank, Zigama CSS.
- e. Development Bank of Rwanda (Banque Rwandaise de Développement).
- f. Military Medical Insurance, Rwanda Health Insurance Fund.

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g. SONARWA, SORAS AG, SORAS Vie ltd., CORAR, COGEAR, Phoenix Assurances of Rwanda.

h. Total RSSB assets include the medical insurance fund in addition to pension assets.

i. Bank of Kigali, Brasseries et Limonaderies du Rwanda, Kenya Commercial Bank, Nations Media Group. Market capitalization excludes cross-listed Kenyan companies.

Note: end-2011 nominal GDP = RWF 3,709 billion; 1\$ = RFW 604.

Sources: BNR, CMA, RSSB.

The sector remains bank-dominated in terms of total assets, mobilizing savings and lending, with microfinance institutions (MFIs), particularly savings and credit cooperatives (SACCOs), playing an important outreach role in bringing formal financial services to Rwandans not previously served by the banking sector (Table 2). The Rwanda Social Security Board (RSSB) is dominant in long term savings. In common with all of East Africa, the Rwandan insurance sector remains at an early stage of development. Private pension schemes have begun to develop in anticipation of the introduction of the legal framework, with the pending enactment of the new pension law expected to provide greater certainty and a foundation for expanding contractual savings. Enactment of the Trust Law currently being considered by Parliament will facilitate unit trusts as well as the growth of the funds management business. The Rwanda Stock Exchange (RSE) has four listed companies as well as one corporate bond issue and four issues of government treasury bonds.

Table 2. Outreach by deposit-taking institutions, end-June 2012.

	Service points	Number of deposit accounts	Number of borrowers
Banks	301	1,283,466	357,971
Of which, Banque Populaire du Rwanda	118	842,831	143,374
Microfinance banks	47	98,574	84,436
Microfinance institutions	683	1,775,533	176,987
SACCOs	608	1,468,063	156,972
Of which, Umurenge SACCOs	513	1,211,726	43,433
MFIs	75	307,470	20,015

Source: Umurenge Saccos

The BNR is the prudential supervisory authority with responsibility for banks, microfinance institutions, insurance and pensions. The Capital Markets Authority (CMA) evolved in 2011 from the capital markets advisory committee into a full-fledged market conduct regulator. The legal and regulatory framework for the financial sector is largely complete, with work ongoing on the still outstanding elements such as the law on pensions and the trust law. Experience to date has identified some areas where refinements to the legal and regulatory framework are required, and these are addressed as policy action items under FSDP II. In addition, a range of regulatory revisions have been identified for implementation as part of the East African Community (EAC) harmonization initiatives. The BNR has played a key role in financial sector development in addition to its monetary policy and prudential oversight role. The BNR took the lead in the development of FSDP I, and had primary responsibility for implementation of many of the key policy actions. The BNR continues to play a broader role than most central banks in policy development, directly shaping the evolution of the Umurenge SACCOs and drafting financial sector legislation such as the deposit insurance law. MINECOFIN is also a key public policy player in financial sector development, steering FSDP II, preparing policy, and overseeing financial sector legislation in areas outside of the BNR's competencies such as capital markets. Rwanda Cooperative Association (RCA), an agency of the Ministry of Industry and Trade (MINICOM), has an ongoing oversight and policy role with SACCOs as part of its broader mandate for cooperatives, and Rwanda Development Bank (BRD) also plays a significant role. The agriculture sector suffers from insufficient access to finance and insufficient investment capital for farming, agro-processing and export development. Low productivity and high vulnerability of the agricultural sector make banks reluctant to offer financial services to rural farmers, largely due to lack of information on profitability of value chain activities.

3. 1. Activities of Financial Institutions

In developing countries, 60-80% of the population lives in rural areas which are widely dispersed. Physical, institutional and Information Technology infrastructures are barely developed and the wages and education levels are low. Agriculture is the main activity in rural areas. Only a small number of the farms are commercially oriented; the greater part consists of subsistence and semi-subsistence farms. The rural non-farm economy plays an important role for

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wealth creation and well-being across countries. In many developing countries, small rural households with small plots of land earn more than half of their total income from non-farm sources. This is as a result of the fact that many rural families need to diversify their sources of income and employment in view of increasingly smaller parcels of land, low agricultural productivity, volatile weather conditions and soil erosion. Roughly 4 billion people living in developing countries and emerging economies do not have access to financial services such as credit, savings and insurance.

Formal financial intermediaries, such as commercial banks, usually refuse to serve poor households and micro-enterprises because of the high cost of small transactions, lack of traditional collateral, lack of basic requirements for financing and geographic isolation. By doing so, these institutions ignore the enormous potential in talents and entrepreneurship of this stratum which can take the economy to a higher level. It is essential that these enterprises have access to financial services fitting their needs, in order to continue and expand their businesses. The larger part of the population in developing countries lives in rural areas, in which agriculture is the main activity. Formal financial institutions often avoid financing rural areas due to the perceived higher costs and risks. These are related to the widely-dispersed population, poorly-developed infrastructure and specific client needs of the agricultural sector. Without sufficient financial services to meet the enormous larger part of the population in developing countries lives in rural areas, in which agriculture is the main activity of society. Providing access to financial services will stimulate the independence and self-development of poor households and micro-entrepreneurs. This will help not only to improve poor people's economic condition, but also to provide a way to maintain or improve their quality of life in the face of uncertainty. Moreover, gaining access to financial services is a critical step in connecting the poor to a broader economic life and in building the confidence for them to play a role in the larger community. By increasing access to financial services for the poor segments of society, the financial sector can play an important role in alleviating poverty in developing countries. To achieve sustainable economic growth in these regions, the focus should be on the whole range of economic activities, including small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and farmers. SMEs are important drivers to a country's economic development. They have the ability to create goods, innovations and employment. Formal financial institutions often avoid financing rural areas due to the perceived

higher costs and risks. These are related to the widely-dispersed population, poorly-developed infrastructure and specific client needs of the agricultural sector. Without sufficient financial services to meet the enormous demand, rural areas will remain underdeveloped. Therefore, dedicated financial institutions which understand the needs of the agricultural sector are needed to support rural and economic development. Micro-enterprises, as well as SMEs, identify an economic opportunity and are in a position to capitalize on that opportunity. They need investment and working capital to start or expand their business activity. The demand for financial services in this part of the society is huge. Formal financial intermediaries in developing countries, especially commercial banks, usually do not serve micro- and small enterprises because of the high cost of small transactions, lack of traditional collateral, lack of basic requirements for financing and geographic isolation. These enterprises therefore rely on their own savings capacities, relatives and friends. Otherwise, they must rely on the flexible but exorbitant terms offered by moneylenders and traders. In yet other cases they seek out local credit unions, co-operatives or non-profit organizations providing limited financial services.

The financial sector in developing countries consists of three sub-sectors: the formal, semi-formal and informal sector. The formal financial sector falls under the banking law and regulation and supervision of financial authorities. It includes various kinds of banks (commercial, development, specialized, regional, co-operative), insurance companies, social security schemes, pension funds, and in some countries, capital markets. In many countries, the formal sector is largely urban-based and organized primarily to supply the financial needs of the wealthier population and larger corporations.

3.2. Rural Banks

Banks continue to provide the energy and the power in driving the economic growth and credit is being made available to various sectors of the economy. However, allocation of credit to various sectors is uneven and the time has come for banks to rebalance their portfolio. In the present fast growing economy, banks have to ensure that sectors, which are denied credit such as the vast rural economy, are brought into immediate consideration. The present study sensitizes the Rural Banking and Rural Development about the importance of micro credit as an effective tool towards poverty alleviation strategies, and enhance the skill and knowledge level of the Rural

Banking and Rural Development people on creating sustainable credit linkages through micro-finance and inclusive growth strategy. Rural bank makes a new development in the rural credit system tailored to the needs of the rural people. "A rural bank may be said as a primary banking institution set up to serve a compact group of villages generally working as a co-operative or as subsidiary bank of a commercial bank, functioning or set in a rural area for the purpose of providing banking and credit facilities in that area". The main purpose of the rural bank is to provide banking and credit facilities to the rural people. The regional rural banks have been conceived as: (a) an answer to meet the diverse and heterogeneous needs of rural people with different socio-economic and agro- geographical conditions, (b) designed to specific economic and occupational groups, i.e. the small and marginal farmers, agriculture labourers, artisans etc, and (c) to be a catalytic agent to develop the rural economy by providing not only credit but also other facilities. They are supposed to be a nucleus of rural development in view of their relatively low cost structure, local ethos and professional management. They are government owned, regionally based and rurally oriented banks to supplement the existing rural credit institutional system. The main objective of RRBs is to provide credit facility and services the rural areas so that the economy can be accelerated on the path of development. "Its object is to provide at one place the special type of credit and banking facilities and other related services needed by agriculturists and other rural purposes. The regional rural banks strive to develop the rural economy with special emphasis on small and marginal farmers, farm labourers, rural artisans and small entrepreneurs, etc. Taking full amount of local ethos and local conditions, these banks would be quite different in attitude and operation from the public sector and co-operative banks. As against the elitist and urban-oriented operations of the public sector commercial banks, the Regional Rural Banks are rural oriented and specially tailored to cater to the needs of rural areas especially the rural poor.

3.3. Functions of Regional Rural Banks

The main function of the RRBs is to provide banking facility to the rural people. It also provides some non-banking facilities to the rural population such as constructing and maintaining go-downs on their own, supplying agricultural inputs and acquiring of agricultural and other equipment for leasing it out, providing assistance in the marketing of agricultural and other products. More specifically, the functions of the RRBs are listed as follows:

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1. To mobilize local savings by means of various types of deposits,
2. To provide short-term and medium-term credit for agriculture and other purpose to rural producers and long-term loans to agriculturists as an agent of the Land Mortgage Bank,
3. To implement programmes of the supervised credit tailored to the needs of individual farms,
4. To provide various ancillary banking services to local people such remittance of funds, acceptance of insurance premium, safe deposit, ATMs and lockers, etc,
5. To set-up and maintain go-downs for storage of agricultural products,
6. To undertake supply of inputs and agricultural and retail equipment to farmers as an agent and in deserving cases leasing of equipment,
7. To improve assistance in the marketing of agricultural and other products through marketing organizations,
8. To help for the overall development of the villages in its jurisdiction

3.4 Important Role of Commercial Banks in a Developing Country

Some of the major important role of commercial banks in a developing country is as follows: Besides performing the usual commercial banking functions, banks in developing countries play an effective role in their economic development. The majority of people in such countries are poor, unemployed and engaged in traditional agriculture. There is acute shortage of capital. People lack initiative and enterprise. Means of transport are undeveloped. Industry is depressed. The commercial banks help in overcoming these obstacles and promoting economic development.

3.5 Mobilizing Saving for Capital Formation

The commercial banks help in mobilizing savings through network of branch banking. People in developing countries have low incomes but the banks induce them to save by introducing variety of deposit schemes to suit the needs of individual depositors. They also mobilize idle savings of the few rich. By mobilizing savings, the banks canalize them into productive investments. Thus they help in the capital formation of a developing country.

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3.6 Financing Industry

The commercial banks finance the industrial sector in a number of ways. They provide short-term, medium-term and long-term loans to industry. In India they provide short-term loans. Income of the Latin American countries like Guatemala, they advance medium-term loans for one to three years. But in Korea, the commercial banks also advance long-term loans to industry. In India, the commercial banks undertake short-term and medium-term financing of small scale industries, and also provide hire- purchase finance. Besides, they underwrite the shares and debentures of large scale industries. Thus they not only provide finance for industry but also help in developing the capital market which is undeveloped in such countries.

3.7 Financing Trade

The commercial banks help in financing both internal and external trade. The banks provide loans to retailers and wholesalers to stock goods in which they deal. They also help in the movement of goods from one place to another by providing all types of facilities such as discounting and accepting bills of exchange, providing overdraft facilities, issuing drafts, etc. Moreover, they finance both exports and imports of developing countries by providing foreign exchange facilities to importers and exporters of goods.

3.8 Financing Agriculture

The commercial banks help the large agricultural sector in developing countries in a number of ways. They provide loans to traders in agricultural commodities. They open a network of branches in rural areas to provide agricultural credit. They provide finance directly to agriculturists for the marketing of their produce, for the modernization and mechanization of their farms, for providing irrigation facilities, for developing land, etc. They also provide financial assistance for animal husbandry, dairy farming, sheep breeding, poultry farming, pisciculture and horticulture. The small and marginal farmers and landless agricultural workers, artisans and petty shopkeepers in rural areas are provided financial assistance through the regional rural banks in India. These regional rural banks operate under a commercial bank. Thus the commercial banks meet the credit requirements of all types of rural people.

3.9 Financing Consumer Activities

People in underdeveloped countries being poor and having low incomes do not possess sufficient financial resources to buy durable consumer goods. The commercial banks advance loans to consumers for the purchase of such items as houses, scooters, fans, refrigerators, etc. In this way, they also help in raising the standard of living of the people in developing countries by providing loans for consumptive activities.

3.10 Financing Employment Generating Activities

The commercial banks finance employment generating activities in developing countries. They provide loans for the education of young person's studying in engineering, medical and other vocational institutes of higher learning. They advance loans to young entrepreneurs, medical and engineering graduates, and other technically trained persons in establishing their own business. Such loan facilities are being provided by a number of commercial banks in India. Thus the banks not only help in human capital formation but also in increasing entrepreneurial activities in developing countries.

3.11 Help in Monetary Policy

The commercial banks help the economic development of a country by faithfully following the monetary policy of the central bank. In fact, the central bank depends upon the commercial banks for the success of its policy of monetary management in keeping with requirements of a developing economy. Thus the commercial banks contribute much to the growth of a developing economy by granting loans to agriculture, trade and industry, by helping in physical and human capital formation and by following the monetary policy of the country.

3.12 Types of Banks

Commercial banks differ from investment banks. Most financial consumers think of "the bank" as a place to keep liquid financial resources, such as checking accounts and savings accounts. A consumer may have personal accounts at a commercial bank. The commercial bank's primary business involves taking in financial assets as deposits then lending these assets to other customers at a rate of interest. The interest rate the bank charges on loans and revolving lines of credit or other credit facilities will depend on the current interest rate environment. A

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consumer bank, such as a credit union or savings bank, may focus on the personal banking needs of a specific group or industry. An investment bank raises capital for businesses. The investment bank works with businesses to sell loans offered by the company called bonds. Bonds are debts owed by the company to investors. The investment bank distributes the bond issue to customers.

The investment bank may choose to distribute publicly traded bonds to clients, or arrange a private placement of the client company's debt directly with another company. The investment bank prices the debt according to the current yield curve and the company's credit rating. Investment banks also raise capital for client companies by arranging equity issues, called stock. Investment banks receive fees from clients to raise capital. Many investment banks employ professional sales and marketing teams to distribute clients' debt and equity issues. As a capital market banking institution, investment banks also help clients to restructure debt loans. In some instances, the bank creates new structured financial products or collateralizes debt with other financial assets. Investment banks may also utilize derivative instruments—stand-in, synthetic investment products—to assist clients' achievement of financial goals. Consumers use banks to keep financial resources safe and readily available for use. Deposits made by customers of the bank are insured by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC). Customers of the bank rely upon its ability to liquidate financial resources held on account when they request the bank to do so. Banks provide customers with specially printed checkbooks. Customers pay creditors and other financial obligations by writing a check on the bank account. The bank pays the check written by its customer. Overdrafts and other fees are charged in accordance with the bank's customer policy. If a customer withdraws more money than he has in account with the bank, the bank charges the customer a fee. Customers may arrange for overdraft protection with the bank. Overdraft protection is a loan that is accessed when the customer's available fund balance is negative. Banks lend money to private and business customers. These loans take the form of personal loans, commercial/business loans, and home/property loans (mortgages).

A credit card is a form of demand loan available to the customer. The bank also supports its credit card business by processing payments to settle customer credit card bills. To support merchants accepting customers' credit cards, banks may offer a merchant network service. Merchant network services include card terminals or credit card machines. Banks provide debit

cards to their customers. Sometimes called check cards, debit cards provide ready access for customer use without the need to make a physical check or cash withdrawal. Customers may use debit or credit cards in the bank's automatic teller machine (ATM). Banks facilitate fund transfers for customers via wire transfer and electronic transfer of funds. Banks utilize an inter bank network to transfer funds for clients. Banks also provide certified or cashiers' checks for customers. The bank guarantees the check so that the customer may offer it as certified available funds to a payee. In order to create a certified check, the bank usually withdraws client funds. Banks offer the services of a notary public to validate clients' important documents. Private bank clients must usually present a certain minimum net worth to obtain private banking services. Private bank services include tax and estate planning, tax planning, and philanthropic gift planning inked to the branch. This will reduce back office and control costs, while branches with sufficient size can employ professional bankers. The Rwandan banking sector remains liquid and very well capitalized. The BNR will continue to strike an appropriate balance in its supervision and regulation between protecting consumers and financial stability, and encouraging innovation. The sector has been growing rapidly, with consumers benefiting from the very large increase in outreach over 100 new physical service locations over the last five years, as well as automated teller machines (ATMs) and card products and the newly introduced agency banking model. Preference will be given to institutions offering a new business model for example a focus on small and medium sized business or global reach in considering potential new entrants to the banking market. New banks using similar business models to the incumbents may not increase competition, and Rwandan banks need to build scale to achieve efficiencies to compete within the region and more broadly.

4. Microfinance Activities

Microfinance is the supply of loans, savings and other basic financial services to the poor. The owners of micro and small enterprises require a diverse range of financial instrument to meet working capital requirement, build assets stabilize consumption and shield themselves against risks (Ehigiamusoe, 2005). Financial services to meet these needs of the poor include working capital loans; consumer credits savings products pension plans insurance schemes and money transfer facilities. In practice, microfinance is much more than the disbursement, management and collection of bits of loans.

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4.1 The Goals of Microfinance Banks

The microfinance policy (MFP) (2010), states that the establishment of microfinance banks has become imperative to serve the following purposes: (i) Provide diversified, affordable and dependable financial services to the active poor, in a timely and competitive manner, that would enable them to undertake and develop long-term, sustainable entrepreneurial activities;(ii) Mobilize savings for intermediation; (iii) Create employment opportunities and increase the productivity of the active poor in the country, thereby increasing their individual household income and uplifting their standard of living; (iv) Enhance organized, systematic and focused participation of the poor in the socio-economic development and resource allocation process; (v) Provide veritable avenues for the administration of the micro credit programmes of government and high net worth individuals on a non-recourse case basis. In particular, this policy ensures that state governments shall dedicate an amount of not less than 1% of their annual budgets for the on-lending activities of microfinance banks in favour of their residents; and (vi) Render payment services, such as salaries, gratuities, and pensions for various tiers of government.

4.2 How Microfinance Should Be Regulated

Microfinance is basically a tool designed to improve the capacities of the economically active poor to participate in the larger economy. The economically active poor are either micro entrepreneurs who operate in the informal sector (trading, farming, food catering, craftsmanship and artisanship) or people earning wages. Such poor people earn their living in either rural or urban areas; and the financial services for which access is sought are mainly savings and loans (Idolor, 2007). Micro finance is about providing financial services to the poor who are traditionally not served by the conventional financial institutions. Many features distinguish micro finance from other formal financial products. Five of these are: the smallness of loans advanced or savings collected the absence of asset-based collateral, and simplicity of operations (Kimotho, 2005). Others are its targets as the marginalized group of borrowers, and its general employment of a group lending approach (Igbinedion and Igbatayo, 2004). The group lending approach has implication for the pressure that the members of the group bring to bear on one another to ensure loan repayment, so that the group can continue to enjoy borrowing or loan facilities.

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In developing countries, a majority of the population does not have access to financial services and thus constitute the group that micro finance tries to reach. Nigeria, like any other developing country, is saddled with the problem of rural urban migration, mass illiteracy, poor infrastructures, poverty and low access to formal financial services. Hence the need for the government's micro finance policy, aimed at expanding the financial infrastructure of the country to meet the financial requirements of the Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) as well as the rural and urban poor. The policy has created a platform for the establishment of Micro Finance Banks (MFBs) geared towards enhancing the provision of diversified micro finance services on a short-term or long-term and sustainable basis for the poor and low-income groups. It would also help create a vibrant micro finance sub-sector that would be adequately integrated into the mainstream of the national financial system and provide the stimulus for poverty reduction, economic growth and development (CBN, 2005). It also has the potential of not only urban--rural but rural--rural migration as Nyberg and Rozelle (1999) noted with respect to China.

4.3 Microfinancing and Rural Poverty Reduction

Poverty is basically a state where an individual or group has insufficient income for securing basic goods and services. It is an unacceptable human deprivation in terms of economic opportunity, education, health, nutrition as well as lack of empowerment and security (Ukeje, 2005; World Bank, 1995). This is not a point of consideration that Micro financial services have capability to offer better services than conventional banking services and carry out the needs of the underprivileged people. The significant factor is that external Micro financial services should join hand to the running system of lending and/or borrowing money in rural areas instead of throwing them out. In this way the poor people especially women who require the fund to run their business and family activities in a well-organized manner will get benefited more. Some critical issues for microfinance organizations are as follows: (i) Sustainability: The primary issue is related to sustainability. It has been reported in much news that the Micro financial institutions are comparatively costlier in terms of delivery of financial services. This is partially explained by the fact that the cost of supervision of credit is high, while the loan quantity and loan volume is low. Therefore it is necessary for MFIs to develop strategies for increasing the range and volume of their financial services. (ii). Lack of Capital: The next part of concern for

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MFIs, which is on the expansion path, is that they face a scarcity of owned funds. This is a critical constraint in their being able to scale up. Many of the MFIs are socially oriented institutions and do not have adequate access to financial capital. As a result they have high debt equity ratios. (iii). Borrowings: In comparison with earlier years, MFIs are now finding it relatively easier to raise loan funds from banks. This change came after the year 2000, when Rural Banks (BRD) allowed banks to lend to MFIs and treat such lending as part of their priority sector funding obligations. Private sector banks have designed innovative products such as the Bank Partnership Model to fund MFIs and have started viewing the sector as a good business proposition. But banks need to be most careful when they feel most confident about MFIs. Bank should find the right technologies to assess the risk of funding MFIs. (iv). Capacity of MFIs : It is now accepted that MFIs has both social and commercial dimensions. Since the sustainability of MFIs and their clients complement each other, it follows that building up the capacities of the MFIs and their primary stakeholders. These are preconditions for the successful delivery of flexible, client responsive and innovative microfinance services to the poor.

To conclude this section, the MFI is leaving enormous economic and social impact. Microfinance provide both savings and loan facilities An MFI is likely to provide the much needed funds to the potential entrepreneurs of the rural India. Also it is anticipated that the people would become socially more advanced as they come into touch with the outside world. In order to be sustainable, microfinance lending should be fixed on market principles because large scale lending cannot be completed through financial support.

A core conclusion of this paper is that microfinance can contribute into solving the problem of insufficient housing and rural services as an integral part of poverty alleviation programs and empower women to play a vital role in the society. Eventually it would be ideal to improve the creditworthiness of the poor and to make them more bankable to financial institutions and allow them to meet the criteria for long-term credit from the formal sector. Microfinance institutions have a lot to contribute to this by building financial discipline and educating borrowers about compensation requirements

5. Need for Rural Development

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The need for rural development is to reduce the nature of poverty. The present study states some more facets of rural poverty are explained:

5.1 The Rural Nature of Poverty:

As the name implies, rural development focuses on rural areas. In Rwanda, around 9.1 million people, i.e., 85% of the total population lives in rural areas. Many of the poor and extreme poor reside in this demographic group. Poverty remains largely a rural and agricultural phenomenon with rural and urban poverty at 48.7% and 22.1%, respectively. Rural households are more than twice as likely to be either poor or in extreme poverty than urban households. Inequality is Still High despite Decreasing: As measured by the Gini coefficient, inequality has reduced in the last five years to a level lower than in 2000/2001. Thus, poorer households (predominantly rural) have become better off in proportional terms and at a faster rate than less poor households. However, the Gini index remains high and there is a need to ensure that inclusive growth takes place in rural areas.

5.2 Land Size and Poverty

Rwanda is predominantly rural in its landscape with around 1.4 million hectares of arable land. Land categorized as rural is nearly 98% of total land area, with around 54% classified as arable, and the urban area being only 1.5% of total country surface (RNRA 2012). Agricultural smallholders dominate the scarce land available in Rwanda and the smaller the land holding, the more likely the land holder to be in poverty. Smallholders hold an average of four to five plots that make up a mean land size average of approximately 0.59 hectares, with a median value of 0.33 hectares. However, the average picture does not show how skewed land distribution is in Rwanda. 36% of households own 6% of the farm land, with an average of only 0.11ha per household. In addition, women provide the bulk of labour in the crop sector, but function mainly at subsistence level with insufficient skills, access to markets and control over land and other agricultural facilities.

5.3 Rural Livelihoods and Poverty

The prevalence of poverty is associated with low productivity in subsistence agriculture. Poverty is highest by far (76.6%) among households (often landless) who obtain more than half

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their income from working on other people's farms. The next poorest group is those with diversified livelihoods who obtain more than 30% or more of their income from farm wage works (76.2%). Women are more likely to fall into the category. Given the transition of some men to off-farm employment, there are now more women involved in agricultural subsistence production than before EDPRS 1. Agriculture can also offer a pathway out of poverty. Improving productivity and increasing sales of produce is an important income earner for smallholders. A study on Rwanda by IFPRI supports this: "economy wide growth led by the agriculture sector has a greater effect on poverty reduction than does the same level of growth driven by the non-agricultural sector" (IFPRI 2009).

5.4 Rural and Urban Linkages

The connection between poverty and rural-urban linkages and urbanization, are important considerations in Rwanda. Economic growth has spurred internal migration and it is estimated that 19% of the population migrated within the country during EDPRS 1. Additionally, the higher the wealth of the family, the more likely the individuals is to move. The size of the poverty differential between urban and rural areas will to some extent explain the level of migration. Therefore it will be important to strengthen the economic interdependence between rural and urban areas. Urban areas provide markets for rural products. And Center's for processing, distribution and information and concentration and agglomeration of people and activities lead to high levels of social and economic development (De Janvry and Sadoulet (2010) looking at numerous countries, show growth in agriculture leads to three times as much poverty reduction than GDP growth outside of agriculture). Microfinance has provided unprecedented opportunities for many poor areas of the world.

Microfinance activities revolve around providing very small loans to poor people or nations in order to help start a business or fund a social project. There are many different types of microfinance activities which include grants, low interest micro-loans, and making credit available. Many organizations make microfinance loans of \$100 or less to individuals in countries where that much money is enough to start a business and improve the surrounding area.

The most common activity in microfinance is providing small business loans to entrepreneurs in poor nations. These loans are amounts that are very small by First World nation standards, but in many countries \$100 to \$300 is more than enough to fund an entire business start-up including materials, supplies, advertising, and an emergency fund. These loans can bring profitable businesses to some of the most destitute places in the world, and the prosperity of even a few business owners can be enough to help lift an entire village out of poverty. Banks traditionally don't make loans that small, which is where micro financing comes in.

6. Microfinance Grants

There are also microfinance grants that are offered by various organizations. The idea behind microfinance grants is that small donations given to specific villages, small business start-ups, or very specific projects will be a more efficient way of using donated money than a large-scale donation. One of the major advantages of a microfinance grant is that the structure forces a clear use for the money. Each grant can be traced to a specific person, business, or place as opposed to large-scale charity, where it's easy for many donations to slip through the cracks or get eaten up by administration fees.

6.1 Microfinance Charity

One of the most active sectors of microfinance is charity. Microfinance has caught on with many charities that allow people to donate directly to a project needing financing without using a bank as a middleman. Kiva is one example of a charity that does this. An individual requesting a microfinance loan can tell his story, what he wants the money for, and how much is needed to get going. A person can look through the individual requests and use Paypal to donate however much she wants toward these loans. The charity takes a small percentage, and then gives these loans out with low interest rates to help people fund microfinance projects across the world.

6.2 Women's Participation in Microfinance

All over the world, the significant of women entry into the workforce over the past three decades has produced profound transformations in the organization of families, society, the economy, and urban life. Since the late 1950s, women's economic activities have been steadily

increasing. Women have always actively participated in their local economies. In Africa, for example, women produce 80 percent of the food and in Asia 60 percent and in Latin America 40 percent. In many cases, women not only produce the food but market it as well, which gives them a well-developed knowledge of local markets and customers. This is a small example of the importance of women's work in society. It does not illustrate the real extent of women's contribution, especially in developing countries, not only to the labour force, but also their role as a significant income-source for the family. For instance, in Africa all tasks related to a family's support are the responsibility of women. Due to cultural and traditional aspects, a woman's presence has been a question of survival of her family. Women, especially poor mothers, must divide their time between work "productive role" and family "reproductive role", and balancing all the demands. Time is valuable for these women, as their livelihoods depend largely on their ability to fulfill the multiple demands of the household and the marketplace. In spite of the remarkable importance of women's participation, their jobs have been considered as an "extra income" to family survival or simply to improve its living conditions. Moreover, micro enterprises owned by women have been considered as a way to meet primary needs instead of a profitable source of income. Unfortunately, labour markets have followed this perception and have offered less favourable conditions to women. Women workers consistently earn less than their male partners do. That is the case of Cameroon women who work, for example, up to 10 hours a day, but at the end of the month, their income is far below the Cameroon monthly minimum wage of 29000 CFA francs (US\$ 60). Women have had to fight against an adverse environment, which traditionally had been minimizing and exploiting their capacities. As a consequence of this reality, in some cases, women are just satisfied with the non-financial benefits, such as the psychological satisfaction of "social contact" Although men, as well as women, face difficulties in establishing an additional enterprise, women have barriers to overcome. Among them are negative socio-cultural attitudes, legal barriers, practical external barriers, lack of education and personal difficulties. In spite of this, for women and especially for poor women, micro enterprise ownership has emerged as a strategy for economical survival. One of the most essential factors contributing to success in micro- entrepreneurship is access to capital and financial services. For various reasons, women have had less access to these services than men.

In this context, credit for micro enterprise development has been a crucial issue over the past two decades. Research has shown that investing in women offers the most effective means to improve health, nutrition, hygiene, and educational standards for families and consequently for the whole of society. Thus, a special support for women in both financial and non-financial services is necessary. Regarding limited-access to financial services, women depend largely on their own limited cash resources or, in some cases, loans from extended family members for investment capital. Smaller amounts of investment capital effectively limit women to a narrow range of low-return activities which require minimal capital outlays, few tools and equipment and rely on farm produce or inexpensive raw materials.

In general, women need access to small loans (especially for working capital), innovative forms of collateral, frequent repayment schedules more appropriate to the cash flows of their enterprises, simpler application procedures and improved access to saving accounts. Surveys have shown that many elements contribute to make it more difficult for women in small businesses to make a profit. These elements are:

- Lack of knowledge of the market and potential profitability, thus making the choice of business difficult.
 - Inadequate bookkeeping.
 - Employment of too many relatives which increases social pressure to share benefits.
 - Setting prices arbitrarily.
 - Lack of capital.
 - High interest rates.
 - Inventory and inflation accounting is never undertaken.
 - Credit policies that can gradually ruin their business (many customers cannot pay cash; on the other hand, suppliers are very harsh towards women).
- How to increase and support women's participation in micro-finance activities? Both governments and donors should explore ways of developing innovative credit activity using intermediary channels or institutions closer to the target groups such as co-operatives, women's group associations and other grassroots organizations. Savings and credit activity should be designed in a way not to exclude women from participating. Additionally, there is a need to examine the impact of structural adjustment

policies on men and women at the family level as well as within various sub-sectors of the labour market and within the small enterprise sector itself. In general terms, in order to facilitate the participation of women in micro and small enterprise, donors should:

- Encourage micro enterprise activity to develop specific strategies for recruiting women as clients from within their existing target groups.

- Encourage micro enterprise activity to expand their target groups to include the sizes and types of enterprise activities in which women engage and/or experiment with assistance strategies, business and technical assistance needs of these types of enterprises.

- Consider expanding support to a broader range of organizations, especially poverty-focused organizations active in rural areas. Support for these organizations should include technical assistance and training in planning, management and in developing teams of female staff to assist clients in business planning and management. To increase women's access to credit, the donor community should:

- Increase the availability of working capital;
- Experiment with lending microfinance that do not require conventional forms of collateral;
- Replicate and expand existing successful methodologies for delivering small working-capital loans;
- Introduce savings mobilization components in the context of credit or other enterprise assistance;
- Promote credit policies that are open to both small-scale enterprise activities and enterprises operating in trade, commerce and other small enterprise sectors where women have higher participation rates. Technical assistance for micro enterprise development should focus more on basic training in product marketing and design concepts and on transmitting skills to increase and diversify production. Governments can also directly increase the market for micro enterprise products by improving rural and urban infrastructure.

To conclude this section, why should microfinance focus on women? What are the reasons for promoting women's participation in microfinance? Traditionally women have been marginalized. A high percentage of women are among the poorest of the poor. Microfinance

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activities can give them a means to climb out of poverty. Microfinance could be a solution to help them to extend their horizon and offer them social recognition and empowerment. On the other hand, thank to women's capabilities to combine productive and reproductive roles in microfinance activities and society has enabled them to produce a greater impact as they will increase at the same time the quality of life of the women micro-entrepreneur and also of her family.

The question is not whether we should focus on women or men. Both female and male play a vital role in creating income and jobs. Their capacity for innovation stimulates general economic growth. Microfinance should be accessible to both of them (male and female entrepreneurs) and offer adequate policies regarding to market interchange, access to financial services, training and technical assistance.

Donor agencies should promote studies to support local women's groups in educational and promotional campaigns and launch special studies on specific policy problems related to the micro enterprise sector, gender issues in microfinance activities. Short-term assistance might aim at increasing the productivity of women's labour by providing credit, technology, and skill training. Long-term objectives could emphasize eliminating institutional constraints which limit women's access to productive resources, creating social, technological, and economic mechanisms to reduce conflicts between women's productive and reproductive roles, as well as defining strategies to address traditional and legal barriers that hamper or preclude the active participation of women in the productive sectors of the economy.

The key issue for successful micro finance focused on women should consider them in a broader context, as a family nucleus, that is vital for societal improvement and progress. Following this idea, micro finance should provide women with specific adapted products through appropriate methodologies, which can offer competitiveness to their business but also well-being to them and their families.

7. Distributions of Rural Banks in Rwanda

In its long term economic development plan, Vision 2020 , Rwanda aims at becoming a knowledge-based economy and in this endeavor the development of the services sector is considered as a critical pillar. The sector has experienced a steady growth over the last 10 years. For instance in 2010, services accounted for 47% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) while

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agriculture and manufacturing were at 32% and 15% of GDP respectively. In the same year, the sector's average growth was estimated at 10% as a result of growth in transport, storage, communication (9%), wholesale and retail trade (8%) and financial services (24%). In terms of exports, apart from the traditional commodities (coffee, tea), Rwanda also exports transport services and financial services (insurance services) mainly to neighboring countries. In 2010 export of those particular services were estimated at USD 235M. Considering the importance of the services sector in the country's development plan, a department dedicated to support the sector was created within the Rwanda Development Board. The Services Department's primary mission is to catalyze the development of service sector for job creation and economic growth. With two (2) main divisions: the Financial Services Division in charge of financial services and Support Services Division in charge of other services but financial, the department covers the following services:

- Business services
- Communication services (excluding telecommunication)
- Construction and related engineering services
- Distribution services
- Environmental services
- Financial services
- Health and social services
- Recreational, cultural and sporting
- Transport services

(i) Priority sectors in services

Four (4) sectors have been identified as priority areas in services based on their high growth potential and the impact they can have on the economy once developed further; these include: financial services, transport, logistics and distribution services, business (professional) services and health care services. For each of those priority sub sectors, special strategies are being created with an integrated plan meant to further their development through private sector investment.

(ii) Financial services

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The country's vision for the sector is to position Rwanda as a financial centre in the region. Still at the study level, the financial centre strategy is expected to be available mid 2012 with implementation starting in the 3rd quarter of the same year. The strategy will ensure the right regulatory framework is put in place for Rwanda to attract companies in the financial sector with varied services such as business transactions, brokerage and many others. Today, players in the sector include banking institutions (16), insurance companies (7) and microfinance institutions (66). The Capital market launched in 2007 and under the supervision of the Capital Market Advisory Services – CMAC - is another important player and so far 4 companies are listed. The central bank is the main regulatory institution of the financial sector in Rwanda

(iii) Transportation, logistics and distribution service

Rwanda today exports transportation, logistics and distribution services among others. With the plan of establishing a regional logistics and distribution hub, the sub sector is expected to grow further.

(iv) Business services

Professional services constitute another area with high potential for growth. As the economy continues to grow, support services such as professional services in engineering, architectural, legal, accounting will be in high demand. Big consulting firms such as Price Water house Coopers, KPMG, Deloitte& Touch and E&Y have already opened their offices in Rwanda and the country aspires to attract more reputable firms with varied areas of expertise to serve not only the domestic market, but also the region. The establishment of such firm will also contribute significantly to the development of the local labor force through skills transfer. A strategy to assess what needs to be done in this area to achieve the set goal, will be released in the 3rd quarter.

(v) Health care services

Attracting investments in provision of health care services is another priority area. So far the country's efforts for the sector based on MDG goals are focused on providing health care for all and fighting endemic diseases such as Malaria and HIV/AIDS. These deliberate efforts by the Government of Rwanda have so far yielded into reduced mortality and increased access to health

care. In order to develop this sector further, private sector investment will be encouraged with the ultimate goal of positioning Rwanda among the best medical/health destinations. Attraction of reputable hospital chains with the expertise in the health tourism industry to come and establish in Rwanda is one strategy as well as forming strategic alliances with best hospitals abroad to supply world-class health care services. The hospitals will be serving not only the domestic but also the regional market allowing patients from beneficiary countries to access better treatment at an affordable price in the region. A strategy is currently being developed and is expected to be released in the third quarter of 2012.

(vi) Delivering on the mission, the Strategies

In order to achieve its mission, the Services Development Department will use the following strategies:

- Identification and development of opportunities for private sector investment in the priority sub sectors
- Policy advocacy to improve the investment climate for the sector
- Targeted strategic support to companies operating in the sector

At the end of each year, the performance of the department is measured based on the following primary metrics:

1. Level of private investment in the Services sector
2. Level of export in the Services Sector
3. Number of Jobs created in the Services sector

8. Origin and Growth

Rwanda's economy is growing at a healthy rate- 7.5 percent in 2010, two percent higher than the East African Community (EAC) and even more than Sub Saharan Africa (SSA). During 2010, the services and industrial sectors progressed in their recovery, while growth in the agricultural sector slowed down marginally. The country's macroeconomic framework was remarkably stable, given the difficult external post-crisis environment and Rwanda's position as a highly import-dependent, land-locked country. This was mainly achieved through a prudent fiscal stance with strong focus on priority expenditures, assisted by continued grant financing

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from donors. Rwanda's projected growth rate for 2011 is 7.0 percent, significantly higher than the 5.5 percent predicted for SSA or the 5.9 percent predicted for the Eastern Africa Community. All sectors are likely to grow at comparable pre-crisis levels again, but there is reason for caution. The first 2011 harvest was disappointing, and agriculture growth might turn out to be moderate. Services growth might be less as high Government spending for health, education and other services is returning to pre-crisis levels. Manufacturing remains in the midst of recovery. Leading indicators for growth, like credit to the private sector, performed less well than expected, as did growth in the construction sub-sector. Interest rates remain high. The outlook remains dependent on effects of increasing international fuel and food prices. The balance of payment continues to be vulnerable to export shocks, due to the dependence on a few export products. Agriculture continues to contribute to growth in Rwanda, despite the emergence of other significant growth drivers, such as services due to its large employment weight. Featured as the special topic of the recently newly launched World Bank Rwanda Economic Update, agriculture triggered a lively discussion in the press in the following week. Rwanda's focus on agriculture, through continued public investments, has contributed to marked productivity increases and solid agriculture growth rates over recent years. Land productivity increased dramatically. The country is leading compared to other African countries with similar GDP shares of agriculture (see graph below).

The relatively high level of land productivity reflects the favorable agro-climatic potential resulting in two harvest seasons, as well as the intensive nature of the predominant agricultural production systems. In contrast, labor productivity remains low compared to these countries, albeit increasing over the last decade. This is related to the fact that Rwanda has the highest proportion of rural population, most of them engaged in labor intensive agriculture. It appears that most opportunities for future productivity gains lie in the area of making agricultural production less labor intensive, in other words less subsistence based. In comparison to other African countries Rwanda's agricultural growth is high...

In order to sustain these productivity increases in the future, and in order to fully realize the growth potential for the agriculture sector, a number of challenges would need to be

addressed, including: 1) Reducing dependency on rain-fed agriculture through greater use of different models of irrigation; 2) Better erosion control and integrated soil fertility management; 3) Diversifying agriculture production, in particular agricultural export goods, for example in areas of horticulture and flowers; 4) Changing the skills profile of people employed in agriculture, to foster the creation of off-farm employment such as agro-processing and other value chain activities, and 5) Better post-harvest management, including developing a market-based food crop distribution system to contribute to country-wide food security. Continued agriculture growth through the channels outlined above will benefit agriculture growth and increase food security, but most of all will sow the seeds for higher overall economic activity.

Over the past ten years, Rwanda has transformed herself from a failed state to being ranked as one of the fastest global business reformer and the most improved country in Africa by the World Bank. While the road to prosperity is a long one, entrepreneurial investors are drawn to the country by the belief that the country offers their new ventures the greatest opportunity for success. BRD is committed to the service of poverty reduction and boosting the national economy. Development Bank of Rwanda is a Public Company Limited by Shares, with a share capital of RWF 7,808,931,000, registered at the Officer of the Registrar General, whose company code n° 1000003547; while its incorporation certificate issued on 7/7/2011 and a banking license n°003 was issued by the National Bank of Rwanda on August 11, 2009. BRD was incorporated on August 5, 1967. For more than four decades, BRD has been the sole provider of long term finance and has significantly facilitated the emergence of different productive enterprises in the private sector. The Bank's operational history is subdivided in five following phases: The objective of this acquisition is to achieve sustainable growth by making BRD a stronger and better positioned bank which provides long-term loans, housing loans, mortgage re-financing and other financial services that will improve access to finance in Rwanda. Since March 2011, BRD Advisory Services (BAS Ltd) and BRD Development Fund (BDF Ltd) companies were merged to form a new company called BDF Ltd. The two former companies were BRD wholly owned subsidiaries tasked with the mission of providing services and products that boost the development of SME's in Rwanda. The new company remained subsidiary to BRD and streamlined the previous mission. The merger was decided by the BRD Board of Directors meeting held on 17th March 2011 with the aim of improving the efficiency of

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operations, the quality, the range of services and products to be provided by the new company, BDF Ltd.

8.1. Sustaining Growth and Innovation Phase (2010-2014)

As the Government of Rwanda's investment arm, BRD's financial development objectives will focus on the priority sectors of the economy. It aims at becoming the first stop for all long term investments into Rwanda's key sectors and to be the prime driver of viable private sector investments. BRD has long been and is still the main financier of medium and long term investments, with a market share of 40%. It also has a stellar record in honoring credit lines, in financing high risk sectors and a strong debut in microfinance. BRD plans to inject Rwf 160 billion into the Rwandan economy over 2010-2014 and grow its portfolio from Rwf 36.1 billion in 2009 to over 178 billion in 2014. The bulk of these resources will focus on stimulating economic growth, accelerating Rwanda's development agenda and reducing poverty. This investment will create nearly 150,000 jobs which will impact livelihoods on more than 1,000,000 people. BRD want to confirm its triple role of being "Financier, Advisor and Partner), by setting up two subsidiary companies which are BRD Advisory Services (BAS) and BRD Advisory Services (BDF). Whereas BRD will continue to develop the country through direct investments, BAS and BDF will offer advisory services and Fund management services respectively for a sustained momentum of SME development. The Bank will also diversify its portfolio by financing real estate and developing trade finance facilities. BRD wants to build a customer care culture by always anticipating and meeting the client expectations, and bringing its services closer to the customer by setting up four branches in Kayonza (Eastern Province), Musanze (Northern Province), Karongi (Western Province), and Huye (Southern Province).

8.2. Growth and Innovation Phase (2000-2009)

This phase ensues from the necessity for the Bank to contribute to the recapitalization and the monetization of the rural area, in the increase of the export against of challenges of the Rwandan Economy imposed by the needs of fast and long-lasting growth to fight poverty. In fact more than 90 % of the population lives in the rural area and mainly on agriculture. In order to enhance the Bank mission of development, in 2005 the Government of Rwanda mandated BRD with a mission to become the "Financier" of Rwanda's development. Since then BRD has been

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transforming itself in order to be able to play its crucial role in Rwanda's development. BRD 2005-2009 Strategic Operating Plan translates BRD mission and vision to become the most profitable bank at the service of poverty reduction. This big and important role involves a more aggressive approach in the research for the profitable projects and in the creation of new instruments of financing which can serve large number of Rwandese. To do that, the Bank created two additional instruments to diversify its activities and generate products necessary to balance the level of its profitability. These new products concern: A Microfinance Department and a Leasing Unit opened respectively in 2002 and in 2007.

Due to the BRD 2005 -2009 strategic Operating Plan, the Bank plans to inject Rwf 132 billion in to the Rwandan economy over 2005-2009 and attain a total loan portfolio of Rwf 74 billion by 2009.

8.3. Post-Genocide Phase (1995-2000)

The events of the 1994 genocide led to catastrophic results that followed. The bank continues to shoulder a burden of more than 50 % of its portfolio constituting non- performing loans consequential from the 1994 genocide. An amount of loans totaling FRW 6, 8 billions, 115 operations; FRW 6, 7 billion in 112 lines of credit; FRW 156, 4 million in equity shares in 3 productive ventures. The loans were mainly invested in modernization and rehabilitation of ventures to the tune of FRW 13, 4 billions, creating an employment of 8.923 people and an added value to the economy of about FRW 8 billion. The war paralyzed the rural areas and revitalization of the activities after 1994 concentrated in the capital city mainly in the secondary and tertiary sectors. This period was a reorganization and consolidation phase.

8.4. Maturity Phase (1988 - 1994)

During this period, the Bank disbursed loans totaling: FRW 4, 6 billion in 873 lines of credit; FRW 84, 5 million in equity shares in 7 productive ventures. It generated an investment volume of FRW 15, 7 billion with a creation of employment for 9.094 people and value added to the economy of FRW 8, 5 billion. The priority areas for the loans were agro-industries mainly the sectors of tea and manufacturing, enabled by low cost financial resources available to small and medium scale enterprises in agribusiness; artisans and micro- projects.

8.5. Establishment and Development Phase (1968 - 1987)

During the years 1968 to 1970, the Bank was being established and no projects were financed. In the four years that followed, the Bank recorded major loans on vehicles (pick-ups) and grinding mills. The financing of the vehicles extended all over the country and marked a crucial step towards improving accessibility of goods in the country. Effective from 1974, the bank embarked on aggressive financing of different sectors of the economy. An amount of loans totaling FRW 6, 6 billion has since been extended to 501 operations. FRW 317 million invested in equity shares with 23 companies. RW 6, 3 billion in loans to 478 borrowers. This meant an investment impact of about FRW 12, 6 billion with a creation of employment opportunities for 8.400 people and cumulative added value of FRW 25, 2 billion. The bank has financed about 80% of the country's medium and long term loan portfolio in the productive ventures. The Development Bank of Rwanda put great products in front of their customers. These Products are:

(i) Investment Financing

- Loans;
- Leasing;
- Equity;
- Refinancing;
- Capacity Building;
- Advisory

(ii) Retails Financing

- Current Accounts
- Saving Accounts;
- Trade Finance;
- Mortgage Financing;
- Salary advance
- Temporary overdraft
- Home equipment Financing
- Vehicle loans

To bring services closer to the people, the bank maintains branches at the following locations:

- Main Branch - Kigali
- Kayonza Branch - Kayonza, Eastern Rwanda
- Musanze Branch - Musanze, Northern Rwanda
- Nyanza Branch - Huye, Southern Rwanda

9. Impact of Rural Banks and Rural Development

A development bank is one that focuses on economic growth and transformation through long-term financing of development projects unlike commercial banks that are focused on collection of deposits and provision of short and medium term or consumer lending. In Rwanda, the Development Bank of Rwanda (BRD) is such a bank, mandated to reducing poverty through financing of priority sectors of the economy and serving any interested investor whose goal is economic returns but also poverty reduction. “

The difference between BRD financing and that of the commercial banks is that we are the government’s investment arm striving for poverty reduction whereas commercial banks are private business organizations aiming at profit maximization,” On regulation, the bank’s operations are regulated by the Central Bank and compliance is a high priority through periodic prudential checks conducted by the Central Bank.

“Compliance to the general regulatory frame work of the financial sector is BRD core value and it is committed to do what it takes to go by the required standards.”

9.1. Significance to Nation’s Development

BRD’s contribution to the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS II) is broad and unlimited to the financing of sustainable development in the country. ‘BRD financing approach considers the national priority sectors that can foster the timely delivery of the MDGs (Millennium Development Goals) and the general community development.” Establishment of strategic partnerships with other development agents and stakeholders through fund mobilization and extension of financial facilities through refinancing

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SACCOs which have a large network in the rural areas has greatly improved the bank's delivery of the developmental milestone. Technical capacity building to its clients has greatly improved through the establishment of subsidiary companies such as Business Development Fund (BDF) and BRD Insurance Brokerage (BIB) that deliver business development services and training on best business management practices.

9.2. Capitalization

BRD, whose source of funds is the shareholder's equity, development partners, grants and lines of credit, had an initial capital of Rwf 7.8 billion during its launch, which has grown to over Rwf 42 billion today. Its preferred minimum-lending sum is presently Rwf 15 million. BRD has financed individual projects worth Rwf 7 billion and below in the latest approvals. However, the highest amount depends on the bank's net worth limited to five percent and project investment requirements.

9.3. Export Promotion

Export promotion is BRD's long primary focus with the annual coffee campaigns, coffee and tea plantations and tannery products, attracting a lot of financing. The bank has also financed some food and beverage companies including Inyange Industries and Nyirangarama Industry. The bank has also initiated talks with stakeholders on how best the bank can boost its financing to the mining industry that is a significant foreign exchange earner. Some of the other companies that have obtained financing through the bank include Trust Industries that makes tissue paper through recycled paper, and detergents, Crystal Bottling that makes soft drinks in Bugesera District as well as the East African Granite in Nyagatare district. These industries have a net impact of reducing our imports of similar goods and or their close substitutes thereof and hence impacting positively on the national trade balance. The bank focused on increasing intervention in industrial investments in order to catalyze the general industrial transformation of the economy. Going forward, export promotion projects will be given more attention by the bank such that we contribute towards reducing the trade deficit in our economy.

9.4. Value-chain Financing

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The bank has financed both primary and secondary production by focusing on value addition. Small-scale farmers benefit from the financing when they are organized in cooperatives and individual projects. Milk Collection Centers are an example of the schemes that targeted the smallholder livestock farmers. Value chain financing is currently the main focus to develop so that market problems for primary agricultural products can be minimized. This approach ensures the good pricing of the products and quality standards of the consumer products to be processed.

10. Relevance of the Study

The study has developed in its introduction by defining the concept of rural banking and rural development. The researcher has bring out the importance of rural banking in the rural areas and its implications to rural people The researcher has also define Rural livelihood as an occupation, as source of income and livelihood in the rural areas that include agricultural work and other allied rural employment such as labor, home industry etc. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. The study assesses the capital endowments and production activities of households which interact to determine the well-being of households Since the focus of the Demography and Development is on immigration from poor countries to richer ones and, to a lesser extent, to other poor countries. Population's age structure is affected by the rates of change that occur across age groups on the three measures of fertility, mortality, and immigration. Social interaction is the process by which people act toward or respond to other people and is the foundation for all relationships and groups in society. Social structure is the framework of societal institutions (politics, and religion) and social practices (social roles) that make up a society and establish limits on behavior. The study has examined the Economic conditions in developing countries, thus will determine the Status of a country's financial position at a specific period of time. Economic condition is used for statistics and it involves unemployment rates, stock market data, and GDP information, among other metrics. It change over time in line with the economic and business cycle, as an economy goes through expansion and contraction. The study sights to determine the number of borrowers with poverty alleviation objectives in the area; assess the extent of awareness and participation of rural people in microfinance activity, and examine the impact of the cooperative on farmers' income, farm size, production and productivity. Multi - stage random sampling method was employed in the selection of

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communities and respondents. A well-structured questionnaire was used to elicit responses on socio - economic characteristics and other relevant variables from a random sample of 300 respondents comprising beneficiaries. Conventionally, financial institutions are composed of organizations such as banks, trust companies, insurance companies and investment dealers. Almost everyone has deal with a financial institution on a regular basis. The main purpose of the rural bank is to provide banking and credit facilities to the rural people. The regional rural banks have been conceived as: (a) an answer to meet the diverse and heterogeneous needs of rural people with different socio-economic and agro- geographical conditions, (b) designed to specific economic and occupational groups, i.e. the small and marginal farmers, agriculture labourers, artisans etc. and (c) to be a catalytic agent to develop the rural economy by providing not only credit but also other facilities. They are supposed to be a nucleus of rural development in view of their relatively low cost structure, local ethos and professional management. This is not a point of consideration that Micro financial services have capability to offer better services than conventional banking services and carry out the needs of the underprivileged people. The significant factor is that external Micro financial services should join hand to the running system of lending and/or borrowing money in rural areas instead of throwing them out. In this way the poor people especially women who require the fund to run their business and family activities in a well-organized manner will get benefited more. The need for rural development is to reduce the nature of poverty.

The present study states some more facets of rural poverty. BRD has long been and is still the main financier of medium and long term investments, with a market share of 40%. It also has a stellar record in honoring credit lines, in financing high risk sectors and a strong debut in microfinance. BRD plans to inject Rwf 160 billion into the Rwandan economy over 2010-2014 and grow its portfolio from Rwf 36.1 billion in 2009 to over 178 billion in 2014. The bulk of these resources will focus on stimulating economic growth, accelerating Rwanda's development agenda and reducing poverty. The difference between BRD financing and that of the commercial banks is that we are the government's investment arm striving for poverty reduction whereas commercial banks are private business organizations aiming at profit maximization," On regulation, the bank's operations are regulated by the Central Bank and compliance is a high priority through periodic prudential checks conducted by the Central bank. "Compliance to the

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general regulatory frame work of the financial sector is BRD core value and it is committed to do what it takes to go by the required standards

11. Summary and Conclusion

Development Bank of Rwanda has a significant achievement by concentrating on national priority sectors of the economy. For instance, its contribution to the development of tourism industry through financing of accommodation facilities like hotels, Guesthouses and apartments has been noteworthy. Other sectors including education, health, real estate and agriculture have also been scaling up in EDPRS- 2.

The bank has identified limited skills of clients when compiling their business ideas into bankable business plans and inefficient management skills during and after project implementation as a major drawback. However, to overcome this hurdle, BRD offers advisory services and capacity building through business development centers (BDCs) financed by BDF. There is also a variety of guarantee funds to cover the risks of good projects with insufficient collateral that have an impact on sustainable development. Some of the guarantee funds include Agriculture Guarantee Fund (AGF), SME Guarantee Fund, Business Plan Competition (BPC) and ‘Hanga Umurimo’ Guarantee Funds for the youth and women. Secondly, inefficient management of financed projects highly affects profitability and the overall performance of few projects is not maximized. These inefficiencies include fund diversion, poor bookkeeping, performance reports and failure to separate business and family. These will be mitigated by extensive capacity building programs on the basic skills. BRD appreciates government in delivering national sustainable development through the identification of the preferred priority sectors of the economy and the enabling regulatory environment that protects both the bank’s clients and the shareholders’ interest.

In conclusion, the bank is equally grateful to clients for the commitments and initiatives taken to implement good developmental projects focused on reducing poverty and encourage all investors to come for business.

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Research Methodology for Contact Languages

Dr. Maansi Shashank Shandilya, Ph.D.

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Abstract

The typological study of emerging contact languages brings in ambiguities and challenges. This paper explores several methodological issues that emerged in the study of contact Hindi (CH). It goes a step ahead and proposes solutions to these issues. In fact, the paper has designed a methodology that was developed during research work on contact Hindi in North East India. This methodology can be used for research on contact languages in general. The present paper states several reasons for requiring a specific methodology for studying contact languages. It also states that in order to achieve Labov's (1972) 'observer's paradox' the fieldworker has to adopt a methodology that aims to elicit random narrations in order to tap natural features of an emerging contact language. This paper is of high relevance in absence of any specific methodology for working on contact languages.

Key words: contact language methodology, contact language research methodology, linguistics methodology.

1. Introduction

Literature has several typological accounts of contact languages those focus on aspects such as, contact induced language change, language processing in bilingualism, language universals and language change etc. But it is surprising that none of these discussions unravels the methodology for studying the contact language. The study of contact languages needs specific methodology for several reasons. To begin with, it is difficult to tap the features of a contact language at its emerging stage. This is so, because at initial stage its features are not stable. A speaker can have several forms and patterns for denoting a single linguistic feature. Thus, a contact linguist's aim is to sift out the idiosyncratic linguistic features from the conventional linguistic outcomes. Secondly, the Labov's (1972) 'observer's paradox' has to be

kept in mind. The data should contain ‘that speech’ when the speaker is not being observed. Hence, the data should comprise random narrations. Thirdly, the current language contact situations are much more complex in terms of composition of languages and linguistic attitudes. Thus, it is imperative to have a specific methodology for studying contact languages. This methodology comprises a set of parameters, pre conditions and guidelines specific to language contact.

2. Research Overview

This study was conducted in two North eastern states of India, namely Arunachal Pradesh and Meghalaya. The interview method is best suited for typological studies. Thus, prior to pilot survey, two questionnaires, each for linguistic and sociolinguistic research were drafted on the recommendations made by Abbi (2001) in her book “A Manual of Linguistic Fieldwork and Structures of Indian Languages” and Comrie & Smith (1977) in their work “Lingua Descriptive Studies: Questionnaire.” The ‘*Atlas of Pidgin and Creole Language Structures (APiCS)*’ project’s questionnaires were also referred in order to frame the linguistic questionnaire. The CHs of AP and Meghalaya are not codified. Thus, the only source of data was primary data collected by intensive field work. The informants were drawn from a large cross section of the community so that the representative sample of these Hindis could be studied. The linguistic questionnaire comprised basic word list and basic sentence list. The sociolinguistic questionnaire tried to explore the source of learning, domain and extent of usage and acceptability of Hindi by the speakers of the two target areas. It was kept in mind that there was a need to study CH in its social context which gives rise to what Labov (1972) termed the ‘observer’s paradox.’ That is, the CH, which the research wished to observe closely, is the very style which speakers use when they are *not* being observed.

3. Methodological Issues/Problems

The research had to undergo several methodological issues that surfaced during the field work. These are:

- i. ***No questionnaires***: The biggest challenge that emerged was that the conventional linguistic questionnaire comprising basic sentence and word list did not prove to be a success. Most informants translated the English sentences into Standard Hindi (SH)

instead of CH. Thus, the questionnaire had to be reframed aiming at narrations and unconscious speech. (In Northeast India people study SH in schools as part of compulsory subject. “Hindi the official language, based on Western Hindi, is the standardized form of a language that is also referred to as Modern Standard Hindi, to distinguish it from the colloquial and regional varieties of the language” (Kachru 2006:1-2). It is the codified variety which is used for official purposes and has several registers. Hence, Standard Hindi is a continuum of varieties. For the sake of comparison and point of departure, we have taken the spoken form of Western variety of Hindi as the Standard Hindi. This variety is primarily based on what is popularly known as ‘*KhariBoli*’.)

ii. ***Is it a language:*** Linguistic research or enquiring about CH did not make enough sense for any of its speakers. They do not consider CH to be a language. This is so because CH is a mixture of several languages such as Bangla, Assamese, Tibeto-Burman languages etc. Thus, the informants were sometimes not keen to participate and show seriousness during data elicitation.

iii. ***No man’s tongue:*** CH does not belong to any particular group. Everyone speaks it but a few claimed that they were CH speakers. This may be because of the fact that in this contact situation CH is not a means of flagging identity but is only a means of linking and connecting. Thus, it was difficult to find the keen and eager speakers.

iv. ***Non standard speech:*** It is a challenge to elicit data when the speakers are convinced that they speak a non-standard variety of a language and it is incorrect. The people of AP believed that they speak ‘broken Hindi’, ‘non standard Hindi’ and the people in Meghalaya believe that they only speak Hindi words occasionally.

v. ***Silence or hypercorrection:*** The speakers primarily had two ways of responding; either they were hesitant and quiet or gave the hypercorrect Hindi during elicitation. For instance, none of the CHs have gender and number agreement. Thus, unlike SH, in CHs, the sentences ‘Sita went’ and ‘ram went’ will not inflect the verb for gender and number.

But a lot of informants did inflect the verb, during elicitation.

vi. **Everything Hindi:** CH is the amalgamation of several distinct languages. In such a complex contact situation it became a task to adjudge what came from where and how? Thus, many times the non Hindi items such as, classifier *-tHu* or functions of plural marker *-lok* which are from EIA and TB languages respectively, are also presumed as 'Hindi' by the CH speakers. Such beliefs of terming everything as Hindi were sometimes misleading.

vii. **Lack of uniformity:** In Meghalaya, CH is neither willfully practiced nor have stable forms. There are several interlanguages. Hence, there is a lot of variation. The lack of uniformity across the place became a challenge to decide on structures of CH.

viii. **Lack of previous records:** There are no elaborate linguistic or socio-cultural records on CHs. The present research work is the first ever compiled work on grammar of CH. Thus, sometimes it was a challenge to find explanations for certain changes or make comparisons with another work.

ix. **Representative data:** Lastly, the entire data was elicited in form of random narrations. Thus, it was not category-wise classified. In such a case, there was a possibility that all the linguistic categories were not covered.

3. Techniques

Several techniques were designed in order to overcome the challenges faced during the pilot survey and fieldtrips. These have been divided into various phases and can be applied to various contact situations. These are as follows:

3.1. Pre-fieldwork

This includes the preparation before starting the fieldtrip to the target areas. It can be divided into two phases as follows:

i. Off Field

Prior to the fieldtrip it is essential to make following off field preparations:

a. Thorough reading: It is extremely important to read significant theories on language contact, typological sketch of a few contact languages and the grammars of those languages that are believed as the source for the contact language in study. For instance, I covered major theoretical works on language contact and grammar of Hindi. The primary readings included Thomason (2001), Seigel (2008), Matras (2009), Aikhenvald (2007), Heine & Kuteva (2005), Kachru (2006).

b. Extensive research on target areas: Prior fieldwork, an in-depth study of the field area is an indispensable step. It is done through studying the resource material on the land, people and culture of the area. The resources can be acquired from government archives, web-sites, personal blogs, travelogues etc. Thus, a detailed study should be done on the history, culture, people, food and languages of the two states. Precisely, this enables the fieldworker to blend in with its informants during fieldtrip.

ii. On field

The fieldtrip is preceded by a pilot survey. The pilot survey can be conducted either going on the field or in the nearby area that has the contact language speakers. In the present study, a pilot survey was conducted in the national capital of India, Delhi. This is so because it is the employment and educational hub of the country. People from all Indian states travel here for several purposes. In general, the methodological plan for such a study should be drawn post pilot survey report. Apart from linguistic features, the pilot survey should focus on two other important aspects. These are:

a. Demography: During pilot survey, the past and present demographic compositions of the areas should be explored. It should be asked for, during the interviews with the informants. This gives the idea of the migration pattern in the area. This migration pattern will also reveal the linguistic profile of the area.

b. Extensive research on target areas: The informants should be asked about the land, culture, people and economy of the area. This gives an idea about the do's and don'ts of the place which would be helpful in blending in with the people of target areas.

3.2. During Fieldwork

While on the fieldwork, following things should be kept in mind:

i. Attending festivals and public gathering: In order to know the extent of usage of contact language it is absolutely essential to be the part of local life. Thus, the fieldworker should attend the local festivals, community gatherings etc where mass communication occurs. For instance, I attended the celebration of the *mopin* festival of Galo indigenous group of AP.

ii. Visiting public places: The key function of contact language is to bridge the communication gap between the speakers of different languages. Thus, contact languages are found most functional in public places such as markets, banks, government offices, taxi stands, restaurants, hospitals etc. Hence, it is extremely important to visit all the public places.

iii. Media in contact language: The contact languages often become popular and influential languages in the society. Thus, it is used in print and electronic media to reach out to larger audience. It can prove to be a significant resource material. For instance, I found a play written in Arunachalee Hindi.

iv. Collecting random narrations: These are the most reliable sources in place of translation method. The translation method does not work in the situation where speakers are familiar with the standard variety of the primary source language of contact language. In that case, the speakers translate the sentences into standard variety instead of the contact variety. The random narrations can be elicited through following:

- a. folk tale/story,
- b. daily routine,

- c. recipes,
 - d. opinions on any issue,
 - e. real life incidents etc.
- v. *Making daily check notes*: In case of emerging contact languages there can be several repetitions and idiosyncracies. In order to avoid these it is extremely important to keep a daily check.
- vi. *Principal informant*: It is important to locate principal informant with whom data can be cross-checked. In contact situations there can be innumerable variations. Hence, the data should be tested with the principal informant.
- vii. *Long recordings*: The natural speech is usually captured in long narrations. Thus, in order to get the natural speech one should aim at long recordings.

3.3. Post Fieldwork

The fieldworkers work does not culminate with fieldtrip. There are several post fieldwork vital issues as follows:

- i. The smallest change can be significant in challenging the typological theories. Thus, everything should be noted. For instance, in CH of AP there is a lamino-dental allophone of retroflex stops, which is otherwise not present in Hindustani. The same sound is a phoneme in CH of Meghalaya. At times this lamino-dental is just perceived as a dental. Hence, a close observation should be done.
- ii. Post field work, all the data should be transcribed and later classified under several grammatical headings. The sooner the data organization is done the better it is for the researcher.
- iii. Once the primary observations are made then the theoretical model should be selected. The research should question, support or challenge existing theories. For instance, I chose Aikhenvald's 2007 model proposed in "Grammars in Contact" to compare my results with.

4. Parameters

It should be the precondition of fieldwork that only those informants should be interviewed who permanently stay in the target areas. There are several other parameters that should also be kept in mind during samples collection: These are:

- i. *Age*: The data should represent all the age groups. This helps in deciding the age group that mostly uses the contact language.
- ii. *Gender*: The data should represent all genders in order to understand the concentration of contact language i.e. which gender uses the contact language most.
- iii. *Type of employment*: The data should be collected from government, private and self employed people. This helps to ascertain whether contact language is the language of economy or not.
- iv. *Education*: The data should be collected from both public and private schools. This will display the ratio of government and public in promotion, usage and learning of contact language. Along with this, it is also necessary to find out the medium of instructions at schools. In several cases the contact language is widely used in schools as an informal medium of instruction.
- v. *Linguistic profile*: It is essential to note the linguistic profile of the speakers. The field investigator should know the number of languages spoken in the area. This helps in determining the source of borrowing and interference in the contact language.

5. Questionnaire & Data elicitation

All typological works require questionnaires. The questionnaire should aim at the primary research questions. Usually, two different questionnaires; linguistic and sociolinguistic are prepared by the fieldworkers. In contact situations, if the speakers are familiar with the standard variety of the contact language then translation method cannot be used. In such case, the questionnaire cannot comprise of basic word list or basic sentence list. Instead, this situation requires a questionnaire that aims at natural speech and narrations. The questionnaire should comprise following elements:

- i. Narration of folk tales
- ii. description of festivals, traditions, social ceremonies such as marriages, birth anniversary, death ceremonies
- iii. narration of real life incidents

- iv. description of recipes
- v. Description of procedures such as hunting, construction of bamboo house, making baskets, farming or anything about the community's daily life.
- vi. Opinion on issues such as, movies, songs, current affairs, marriage, re-marriage, higher studies, teaching profession, development work in their area, politics, elections, public policies.
- vii. Description of the famous areas/tourist spots such as, how to go and why?
- viii. Description of their occupations such as, in Meghalaya, a coal miner was asked about business of mining (how is it done, what are the machinery used, what are the dangers involved during extraction etc).
- ix. Narrations of a movie story.

The questionnaire should aim at asking about the speakers daily lives, their personal choices, daily surroundings, occupations etc. In other words, the questions should pertain to those elements towards which the informants feel personally attached.

6. Conclusion

Thus, it is correct to say that grammar writing of a contact language is a complex process. Each contact situation can bring in new challenges woven in new social conditions. Thus, the fieldworker has to be really careful while devising its methodology.

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Spatial Deixis: A typological study in Kharia, Santhali, Khasi and Pnar

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Abstract

This paper studies the expressions in a language that make references to the spatial location of entities in relation to that of the speaker. The target languages that will be studied belong to Munda and Non-Munda group of languages. The primary aim of the research is to discuss the validity of language family and the similarities and differences among the languages. In addition to this, it will also explore the notions that are expressed by the deictic categories. The paper will briefly study the Buhler's theory of deixis. It is then followed by an introduction to the Austro-Asiatic Family. Further, I discuss my methodology, theoretical issues concerning spatial deixis, an introduction to target languages, literature reviews and my hypothesis. Towards the end, I present the data along with my analysis. Finally, I supply my findings and thereafter a conclusion.

Key words:

1. Introduction

Language manifests the way human perceive the world, its immediate surroundings, the situations around it. Thus, spatial deixis denotes the space and location. The concept of 'space' is specific to an individual or to a community. Deixis is one of the most important device to integrate information in a language. The term 'deixis' comes from a Greek word meaning pointing or indicating. The recognition of deixis as an area worthy of investigation came only in 1934 in the form of a theory put forward by the German Philosopher, Karl Buhler. The meaning of deictic expressions depends on the – when, where and by whom they are uttered.

2. Buhler and His Theory

Buhler observes that the deictic interpretation of words depends on the zero-point of the utterance – the origo, which comprises the ‘I’ (the speaker), the ‘here’ (the place of utterance) and the ‘now’ (the time of utterance). In other words, “the canonical situation of the utterance is ego-centric.” The speaker almost always takes himself as the ‘ego’ and relates everything to his view-point, taking the above mentioned three axes as the basic co-ordinates for reference. Hence, there are three major categories of deixis: person deixis, spatial deixis and temporal deixis as illustrated in figure 1. These are complemented by social and discourse deixis.

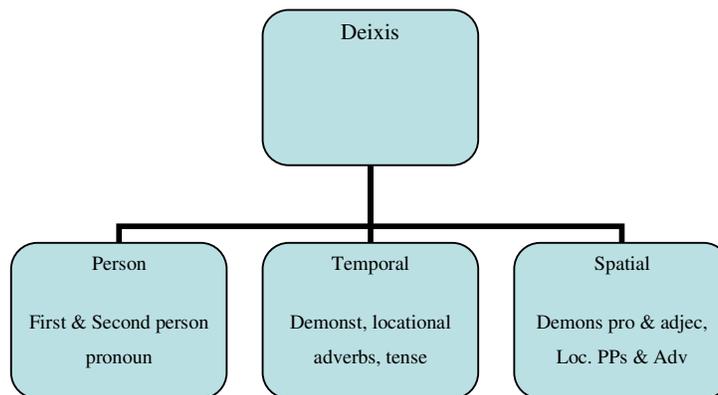


Figure 1- Classification of Deixis

Figure 1 clearly explains that Person Deixis refers to the speakers. The first and the second person pronouns fall under this category of deictic expressions. Further, those expressions that refer to time relative to that of the speech-event fall under temporal deixis. References to time in respect to the time of speaking- the now – can be represented in grammar in various ways; through demonstratives used in spatial deixis, locational adverbs like ‘here’ and ‘there’. The most common way to realize time distinction is through the verbal category of tense. Other than these two, languages also use number of lexical items that can be used as temporal deixis.

3. Spatial Deixis

The spatial location is expressed by some basic grammatical categories such as demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative adjectives. It also includes locative post-positions and locative adverbs. The spatial location is always measured with reference to that of the

speaker, which may not hold true worldwide but is an acceptable phenomenon in Indian languages.

3.1. Demonstrative Pronouns

In many languages, the demonstrative pronouns incorporate several features into their lexical composition to serve the grammatical function of the third person personal pronoun. In most of the Indian languages the distance is incorporated into the lexical form of third person pronoun. These pronouns are important in two ways. Firstly, they present locative information and secondly they may also include semantic-syntactic features such as number, gender, animacy and human etc.

3.2 Demonstrative Adjectives

These are same demonstrative bases that are used as demonstrative pronouns. They appear before head nouns in a noun-phase and are used as attributes and modifiers. The grammatical functions of these are essentially different but the semantic pragmatic function of the demonstratives remains the same i.e. to point out some entity in space in relation to the speaker's position. They agree with the head of the noun in respect to person, number and gender. In addition to demonstratives, there are two other grammatical categories, locative post-positions and locative adverbs, to express spatial deictic notions.

3.3 Locative Post-Position and Adverbs

Typically, the two specify the location of one entity in respect to that of another, where the first can be called figure and the second a Ground – (Fillmore 1982: 42-43). The 'Ground' can be either animate or inanimate. The location of a figure is generally both ascribed and described in reference to the position of the 'ground'. We can demonstrate it in sentence 1:

1. The house is *near* the lake
Figure LOC. ADV Ground.

3.4 Compound Locative Expression

It is an expression where the locative PP is used in conjunction with locative adverbs and genitive PP's.

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3.5 Adverbial Deictic

These might be taken as a sub-section within the grammatical category of locative adverbs. The locative adverbs denote the location of an object in question in a spatial term. They refer to a place in space and need not be inherently deictic though they can be used deictically. On the other hand, adverbial deixis or the deictic adverbs have the function of locating an object in space in relation to the location of the speaker and/ or addressee's location in a speech-event.

Language can have variety, but it is believed that all the variation can be at distal and proximal deictic. Though, there has been debate on two issues. Some believe that as human conception of the basic co-ordinates of spatial orientation takes ego as the central deictic reference point. Taking this thought they believe that the spatial orientations are universal. But other side believes that “universal trait generally under determine the range of possible cognitive systems, leaving wide latitude for contingent human experience, in the form of language and culture, to play a guiding role in spatial cognition.” – Foley 1997: 215.

The rest of the paper will be about a brief introduction about the target languages and the related hypotheses and findings.

4. The Austro-Asiatic Language

These languages are represented by three major branches, Mon-Khmer, Munda and Nicobarese. Khasi, spoken in the eastern part of hilly India, represents the Mon Khmer. Indigenous groups in various pockets of Central India and Eastern India speak Munda languages. It is spoken in India only. Nicobarese is spoken in Nicobar Islands. Some linguists (Grierson 1915, Vol. 1:34) established this language as a real link between Khasi (Mon Khmer) and the Munda languages of this family. Grierson also follows the same concept in his “linguistic survey of India.” He also divides the Austro-Asiatic family into Munda and Non-Munda.

4.1. Santhali and Kharia: Munda Group

Santhali belongs to the Northern Munda languages who were earlier with other Munda languages. They parted their ways after they reached Chota Nagpur from the West. Now Santhals speakers are at Dhanbad, Giridih etc.

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Kharia is spoken in southern Bihar which is now Jharkhand, some parts of Orissa, Madhya Pradesh. It falls under the central speaking group of Munda languages. Kharia were among three clans Dudh, Dhelki and Hill Kharias. The last one seemed to have lost it.

4.2. Khasi and Pnar: Non-Munda Group

These two languages form the non-munda group of languages. Meghalaya, where these are spoken is predominantly inhabited by three tribes, the Garo, the Khasi and the Jaintia. Jaintia call their language Pnar. It is not officially recognized and is regarded as a dialect of Khasi. Khasi is one of only language that has SVO order other than Kashmiri.

5. Literature Review

Grierson's gives the account of the structure of Kharia in linguistic survey of India. He doesn't talk about 'deixis' categorically, but it does cover about demonstratives. There are lots of grammars for Santhali and Kharia. But not many talk about deictic expressions. Anderson and Keenan, at the outset of their article 'Deixis', in Timothy Shopen discusses in details the spatial deixis as a system with various contrasts on all co-ordinates. Nagaraja discussed a little about Kharia commenting on the formation of deixis with other elements.

Further, if we talk about Khasi and Pnar then these languages have not been worked upon very extensively due to the remote location of the places these are spoken at. Nagaraja's work which again was not deixis-specific reports of variation in the dialects of Khasi that do not strictly adhere to SVO pattern. Pnar has always been seen as a dialect of Khasi thus it has not been studied at length in past.

6. Research Questions

Keeping this in mind, I move ahead with various research questions, which I will explore throughout my discussion these are:

- If deixis is about space, then why is it not similar for every human being? What determines it?
- How far is the notion of language families relevant? (in the light of breaking/ fading boundaries)

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- Is it just about language, perception and cognition? What all ways is the notion of deixis revealed in the languages. And what all does it reveal?

7. Methodology

The research work for this paper started with reading the theoretical issues concerning the topic. Having done that, I started collecting data from the available literature. This includes Grierson's Linguistic Survey of India and the research works such as Avtans (2004), Koshy (2007), Malhotra (1982), Som (2002). Following this I made an elaborate questionnaire for the demonstratives, locative PP and Adverbs based on the available literature such as Talmy (1983) and Wilkins (1999). I have tested along both vertical and horizontal axis and covered 10 Kharia and Santhali and 10 Pnar and Khasi speakers each. This was followed by a close data analysis and also a comparison with the past works.

8. Hypotheses

I have following three hypotheses:

1. I feel that other than the spatial information, these structures give a lot more descriptive information, such as animacy, gender etc.
2. No matter how close these languages are, they ought to have some major variations.
3. For non-munda group, I believe that there are many variations across the axis, both vertical and horizontal. Since these are hilly areas their geography ought to reflect in their languages.

9. Data and Findings

Based on the data that I collected, I found out that in Santhali the third person pronouns are derived from the demonstrative pronouns and are deictic. This is because the information of distance is incorporated into their lexical form. Santhali is speaker oriented. As aforementioned, while referring to the location of an entity or a person in relation to that of the speaker, the physical universe is divided on the basis of the degrees of distance from the speaker. Thus, in Santhali it is a two-way distinction i.e.; proximate and remote. Though, there is not any superimposed criterion of visibility, audibility etc. in Santhali. Santhali demonstrative pronouns distinguish three numbers and are divided on the lines of animacy. In number system, the singular number is left unmarked. The dual number is marked with the morpheme */-kin/* and the plural number is marked by */-ku/*. These number markers are

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suffixed to the root morpheme of the demonstrative pronouns. The animate pronouns are marked with */-i/* after the root morpheme and the inanimate pronouns are marked with */-a/* after the root morpheme of the demonstrative pronouns. The animacy marker in the demonstrative */-i/* is omitted in the animate demonstratives, whereas in case of the inanimate objects the inanimate marker */-a/* is left unchanged.

According to past researches Santhali has three root morphemes representing the three distances. These are:

<i>/nu-/</i>	proximate
<i>/un-/</i>	distant
<i>/han-/</i>	most distant or remote

But my research showed that there exists only two-way distinction with the use of only two morphemes of proximal and distant. */un-/* and */han-/* are both used for remoteness. But I found that */han-/* is losing its meaning. This can be because of ‘areal pressure.’ We can see Santhali demonstratives in the sentences 2-6.

2. <i>nua</i>	<i>dɔ</i>	<i>ɨnək</i>	<i>disəm</i>	<i>kəna.</i>
Dem.prox	TOM	1.sg.gen	country	be.

(This is my country.)

3. <i>ona</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>amrika</i>	<i>riyək</i>	<i>ʒəhəʃ</i>	<i>kan.</i>
Dem.Rem	particular	America	GEN	plane	be.

(That is an American aeroplane.)

4. <i>nua</i>	<i>dɔ</i>	<i>uni</i>	<i>emay</i>	<i>mɛ.</i>
dem.prox	ToM	3.sg.acc	give	imp.

(Give it to him.)

The idea of near and what is far is relative and context-dependent.

5. <i>ona</i>	<i>dɔ</i>	<i>ɨnək</i>	<i>ɔrak</i>	<i>kəna.</i>
Dem.rem	TOM	GEN	house	be-prs.

(That is my house.)

6. *ona buru taynom rɛ dɔ ʒola.*
 Dem.rem mountain behind loc.PP ToM lake.
 (There is a lake behind that mountain.)

+Animate				-Animate		
	Sg	Du	Pl	Sg	Du	Pl
D1	<i>nui</i>	<i>nu-kin</i>	<i>nu-ku</i>	<i>nua</i>	<i>nua-kin</i>	<i>nuə-ku</i>
D2	<i>uni</i>	<i>un-kin</i>	<i>un-ku</i>	<i>ona</i>	<i>ona-kin</i>	<i>ona-ku</i>
D2	<i>huni</i>	<i>hun-kin</i>	<i>hun-ku</i>	<i>həna</i>	<i>həna-kin</i>	<i>həna-ku</i>

Table 1: Santhali demonstratives

Table 1 show that D1 is proximate demonstrative and D2 is remote demonstrative. It is important to convey here that */huni/* was not used by many informants but */hana/* is quite common.

Further talking about Demonstrative Adjectives, they and the head nouns agree on gender and number. If the head noun refers to an animate entity, the demonstrative used will be marked likewise. We can see it below in 7 & 8:

7. *nui gidrə.*
 This (animate) child.
 (This child.)

8. *nua buru*
 This (inanimate) mountain
 (That mountain.)

When the noun is in singular number, the form of the demonstrative adjective is also singular as can be seen in above examples.

The locative post-position */rɛ/* in Santhali is used after the head noun representing the Ground. The PP conveys the sense of ‘containing’ and there is no change whether ‘contained’

object is physically placed in or out of the container i.e; ‘on’ or ‘inside’ as illustrated below in 9-12:

9. *dibba rε buluŋ minaKa.*
box loc.pp salt be.prs.inanmt
(The box is in the salt.)

10. *ǰəlapuri rε ləuka cəlak kəna.*
Sea loc. pp boat go be-prs-cont.
(The boat is floating in the sea.)
Hence, /-rε/ is constant.

The locative PP is suffixed with the locative Adverb to create the Santhali spatial expressions.

11. *ona buru cət rε ǰnək ɔrak minaKa*
dem.rem mountain top loc.pp 1.sg.genhouse be-inanmt.
(My house is on the top of that mountain.)

It is difficult to mention the location of dynamic objects, so /tε/ is used as an ablative marker.

12. *udəgədi taor cətan tε cəlak kəna.*
aeroplane tower above abl go be.prs.cont.
(The aeroplane is (going) flying above the tower.)

Towards the end we can say that Santhali also has adverbial deictics. These are:

<i>nənde</i>	Here
<i>ənde</i>	There

<i>hande</i>	There (further)
<i>nɔnde-kʰɔn</i>	From here
<i>ɔnde-həbič</i>	Till there (goal)

The first three are main. /ɔnde/ and /hande/ are used on same place. So the three-way distinction has reduced to two-way.

Kharia distinguishes its demonstratives in terms of a four-way proximate-remote distinction. The four-way system is /u/ - proximate, and expresses increasing degrees of remoteness. This maximal four-way distinction is very limited and is used only in third person pronominal reference. Like Santhali, here also the lexical form of demonstrative is connected with the third person pronoun. Though, these days the speakers prefer to use, only first two and use the last ones very rarely, provided its some idiom, song etc. We can see the usage in the sentence 13 as follows:

13. *ij-a? po?da dʰənɛl aiʃ ho po?da kalən na? -te*
 my village dhanel is that village kaalan near -to

aiʃ.

is.

(My village is dhanel. It is near kaalan.)

In Kharia also the third person pronoun is derived from demonstratives. The person marker is suffixed to demonstrative e.g. /u-kar/ 'third, person singular proximate. Dual and plural third person are derived by attaching number suffix. Postpositions may be compounded with spatio-temporal adverbs and co-occur with nominal arguments usually of genitival character.

'-te' is the positional adverb, indicating the area within which an action takes place. There is a three-way proximate-remote distinction in the expression of deictic locatives, formed by postposing /-te/ to the demonstratives.

/u-te/ proximate, */ho-te/*, */han-te/*, indicates remoteness from the speaker. Kharia is also speaker oriented. All this illustrated in 14-18.

14. *hante ute p^hərək p^hurk auki*

there here differences were.

(There were differences here and there.)

/-te/ can also be post-posed to locative interrogative marker. It is put after nouns of location also.

15. *gong-na čari-te saju un-o?*

Cooking room-in utensils kept

(He kept utensils in the kitchen.)

/-te/ covers both vertical and horizontal axis such as */hintel* ‘on’, */tuta-te/* ‘under of’ */kundab-te/* ‘back of’. It indicates the source from which an activity originates. Also interestingly adverbs of location may be reduplicated and then are not marked overtly by post positions.

16. *mugam mugam baŋklui čol-ki*

Front front stork went

(The stork went in front.)

/-tay/ and */-te/* are used to express movement */tiŋ/* indicates direction.

17. *ida? magra po?da tay delki*

Yesterday Magra village from came

(Yesterday Magra came from the village.)

/bo? limits the space as in:

18. *ij-a? bo? dam-na-gud tuŋ-e*

Shoot so that it reaches (till) me.

Hence, even though the two language Kharia and Santhali belong to same language family and are placed nearby, even then there are so many variations. This fulfills the idea of diversity and raises questions the idea of language family.

Further, now we move on to Khasi and Pnar. In Pnar also the lexical form of 3rd person pronoun and demonstrative are same. The demonstrative pronoun here enters the configurationally properties of the nominal it modifies and incorporates the modified nominals gender/ number feature in its form. In proximal deixis, it has only one form /-ni/, which appears with the proclitic as shown in 19 & 20:

19. *ham pin-yap ya-ki-ni -ki -sim.*
 PRO.NEG caus-die acc-3.pl.cl-Dem.prox-3.pl.cl-bird.
 (Do not kill these birds.)

It maintains a 3-way distinction in distal deixis. The [procl-*taí*] is used when object is within reach.

20. *ɽ-yuŋ yɔŋ-ŋa em-i č^ha-den*
 3.f.sg-cl. home gen-1.sg have-3.f.sg.cl behind

u-taí.
 3.m.sg.cl-dem.dist
 (My house is behind that mountain.)

Others are /*u-tɛ*/when object is not visible. The last is [procl-*tu*], when object is invisible to the speaker but nearer to the hearer.

Pnar distinguishes two numbers in demonstratives where plurality is marked by /*ki*/ attaching to root morphemes. For gender there are two forms and one for unmarked gender. Demonstrative adjectives behave similar to pronouns. Locative preposition as it is SVO are of two types:

/*ha*-/ +visible in/on/to

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/č^ha/ -visible in/on/to

A typical Pnar compound locative expressions would be of following structure.

LOC = LOC PP + LOC ADV.

haʃɾɔn = *ha* + *ʃɾɔn* = above

There are different forms of Adverbial deictics. The proximal adverbs are:

heini (*ha-i-ni*)

č^hheini (*č^ha-i-ni*)

neini (*na-i-ni*)

The distal markers use all distal demonstrative pronouns along with 3 case markers */ha/*, */č^ha/* and */na/* standing for locative, Allative and Ablative. So various forms are:

heitai *ha-i-tai*

č^hheitai *č^ha-i-tai*

neitai *na-i-tai*

The locative prepositions are also numerous and as we correctly hypothesized, there are various forms for different positions and locations as illustrated in the table below.

at	<i>ha</i>		
to		<i>č^ha</i>	
from			<i>na</i>
on	<i>ha</i>	<i>haʃɾɔŋ</i>	
in	<i>ha</i>	<i>hapɔʔ</i>	<i>č^hapɔʔ</i>
into	<i>hapɔʔ</i>	<i>č^hapɔʔ</i>	<i>napɔʔ</i>

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Hence, there is a variety of spaces and each has a marker. The visibility becomes an important criterion here.

In Khasi, people do not expect much variation. But there are several relevant changes. It again enters the similar configurationally and incorporates modified nominal's gender/number. In the proximal deixis, Khasi has only one form i.e.; */-ne/*. But it maintains 6 way distinctions in the Distal Deixis having one of the following forms. This can be illustrated in sentences 21-23:

21. *pait ya-ka-tai ka -dur*
look acc-3.f.sg.cl-dem.dist 3.f.sg.cl -picture
(Look at that picture.)

This form is used when the object is visible and within one's reach.

22. *peit ya-ka -tei ka -briyau*
look acc-3.f.sg.cl-dem.dist 3.f.sg.cl -person

ka-ba-yeŋ haŋ-tei.
3.f.sg-R.P-stand there.
(Look at the lady who is standing there.)

This form is used when an object is the above speaker in space.

23. *ka-iyeŋ ʃɔŋ-a ka -don ha-dien*
3.f.sg.cl-house gen-1.sg 3.f.sg.cl-have behind

u-t^{hi}ie u-lom
3.m.sg.cl-dem.dist 3.m.sg.cl-hill
(My house is behind that hill.)

It is used, when an object is below the speaker in spatial orientation.

There are other forms such as:

[-*ta*] It is used when object talked about is remote and may or may not be visible.

[-*to*] It is used when object used is nearer to hearer than to the speaker.

[-*tu*] It is used when an object is out of reach.

Khasi has 3 sets of Proximate demonstrative and 2 sets of distal demonstratives. With the locative [*ha*], Ablative [*na*] or Allative [*ša*] followed by 3rd person marker [*ʔ*] and then followed by 2 different proximate demonstratives. These are:

ha-ŋ-ne Anybody here.

na-ŋ-ne ————— From here.

ša-ne /

The distal form has many combinations such as:

ha-ŋ-tei and *ša-tei*

ha-ŋ-tai and *ša-tai*

ha-ŋ-to and *ša-to*

It is interesting to note here that locative and ablative have a form /-ŋ-/ but the allative doesn't have any. For if we look at the prepositions (locatives) the range is as wide as Pnar.

Thus, we saw that considering Pnar as just a dialect of Khasi would be belittling the language. It has its own categories. Deixis lies at the community's heart so it has proved that since these are two separate communities so the linguistic typology is also distinct. We can briefly look at the findings as below.

10. Summary of Findings

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To begin with, all these languages are speaker oriented where demonstratives undergo a configuration to form 3rd Person pronoun or 3rd person pronoun undergoes to form demonstrative. We can study the findings as follows, keeping the above fact in mind:

- When the configuration takes place the demonstrative no longer just talks about space. It reveals other information also such as number, animacy, gender. This satisfies my first hypotheses.
- When we talk about geographical closeness, then it is not essential that languages have to share all the features. For e.g. Kharia is more Aryanised than Santhali and Khasi has many variations from Pnar in lexical stock, deictic inventory etc. This hence satisfies my second hypothesis also.
- It is true that Khasi and Pnar are hilly languages so the deictic variations and range has to be wide. But even between each other Khasi has 6-way distinction whereas Pnar has 3-way distinction in distal demonstratives. Hence, this justifies the second and third, both hypotheses.
- Other than this there is a lot of neutralization that has taken place, especially in Munda languages. The distal forms have neutralized and coupled as one. This is because of Aryan influence. Also it is not that the communities can no longer perceive space but the human needs have changed and they no longer require to think about wide distances. It can be because commuting has become easier.
- When we talk about Aryanisation then we have the evidence in the form of loss of Locative Post-Position marker in an event of reduplicated adverb. This only happens again in Kharia and not Santhali. In addition to this, there are forms such as /boʔ/ in Kharia denoting limiting the space as 'till'. It is similar to IA, but it is missing in Santhali. Hence, it looks very interesting that in the course of finding differences within same language families, we have support for the similarities among various language families (across language families). Thus, it undoubtedly raises a question on the relevance of the concept of language family. In addition to this, it throws light on the strong relation due to contact across languages, where the areal linguistics plays its role.

11. Conclusion

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Does a particular usage by a community lies in the social set-up or is it because of cultural influences? Is it geography of a community or something else? Though, the above marked things can all be clubbed under human society and its configuration. The concept of language family is actually a construct of macro-level similarities (other than from language contact) and micro-level differences. So similar languages can be kept together and further separated. Taking this as a base I talked about Santhali, Kharia, Khasi and Pnar, where all of these belong to one language family and are further divided. They go under another division of Munda and Non-Munda and then results into what languages they are.

Though, Santhali and Kharia are placed together but only Kharia seems to have a more Indo-Aryan influence. For Khasi and Pnar, the speakers do believe that they are similar but on the close observation one can see the clear differences. There is a variation in the type of deictic marking. This lessens the load of the justification for them being similar. But we can for sure see that it is more about the human needs and utility through which they assert individualism.

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Who Wins The Battle Between Two Genres? A Comparison of Prose and Poetry

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Abstract

This article encompasses views of different people from different fields about different genres of writings. It majorly includes a comparison of prose and poetry in terms of their appealing ability. The article includes a survey by asking different people about their opinion. Two questions were catered to the participants that gave us the required material for research. Writings have always been one of influential way of shaping people ideology. It had been from very early eras a source of changing one's thoughts about a particular thing. All of the religions have their holy books that they consider as their guiding authority. The stories of ancient times also had a great influence of people. It is a best medium to portray one's imagination. It not only changed people thoughts but also served as a motivation to discover and invent new things around us. There are major two purposes of writings. One is writing that enhances our knowledge. It gives us knowledge about history and other things and the other is for the sake of pleasure. Mostly the informative writing is linked with prose and the pleasure provision writing is associated with poetry. This is what this article tries to resolve that which genre has a great influence on people.

Keywords: Prose and poetry, appealing ability, pleasure's sake, knowledge sake.

Introduction

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The ability of writing have been a major weapon in hands of people form very early ages. This weapon however did not aim at destruction always. It fulfilled various positive and beneficent purposes. It had been very resourceful medium to share one's thoughts and imagination. However, there had been paucity of such cases when these writings acted as conflict raiser but mostly they have a good intention if understood properly. This article majorly deals with the two genres of writings: Prose and poetry. Poetry has been one of the greatest and beautiful medium for presentation of thought. However, it had been criticized by many critics. That is not something surprising because change is always threatening and when a medium like that became fore grounded, it emphasized critics to write about its pitfalls. Going back to Greek Ages, we find that Plato, who a great was known philosopher of that time, banished poets from his rule. He was not buoyed up by poets for several reasons. He said that poetry is a mere imitation and the poet himself is unaware of what is he imitating. He was of the view that poets are deceivers as they deceive the readers by taking them away from reality. He also said that poetry morally corrupts people. Later Puritans came who also sabotaged the poetry. Poetry dealt with pleasure and imagination and Puritans only focused on life as a mere punishment to the individuals. They had a belief that individuals here are not for enjoying the life so they also raised voice against poetry or any form of entertainment. It was in Elizabethan Age that a warrior came out who took the responsibility to defend poetry for all the charges that had been put upon it by Plato. He was Sir Philip Sydney who wrote a book An Apology for poetry or it is also known as Defense of Poesy. In his book, he wrote that poetry is an imitation but imitation does not mean to copy or reproduce but rather it transforms. He stated the function of poetry to be that of providing pleasure. Its purpose is to delight and teach.

According to Philip Sydney, there are three types of poetry.

1. Religious poetry
2. Philosophical poetry
3. Poetry as an imaginative treatment of life and nature

So by a past analysis, we find that poets have really worked hard to establish their place in society and in literary world. Later, there came the Age of Dryden and the rise of metaphysical

poetry. Ben Johnson said of Dryden: He did to literature what Augustus did to Europe. He found it a brick and left it marble. Johnson also regard Dryden as father of English criticism. Other than serving the purpose of pleasure, it also worked at some places as an alarm for the people to realize their true place in society. With Dryden, there is also the famous name of John Donne for metaphysical poetry. His famous poems are “Love and Divine Poems”. In these poems, he used metaphors and conceits to draw the attention of readers. In his poem, A Valediction: of weeping, he has compared his tears on his face carry an image of his beloved with a coin containing a sovereign’s photo. In this way, he made his work interesting. In one of his poems, he compared the distance between him and his beloved as the separation between two feet of campus. This use of extra-ordinary examples made his poetry a heart taking. There are many examples that we find related to that when poetry in the form of satire worked as a self-awakening device as in World wars. The great epic by Alexander Pope “The Rape of the Lock” is a true representative of eighteenth century society. It enlightens its follies in such a way that it developed people thoughts and raised awareness.

“A well-bred Lord t’assault a gentle Belle?
Oh say what stranger Cause, yet unexplor’d,
Cou’d make a gentle Belle reject a Lord?
Is Tasks so bold, can little Men engage;
And in soft Bosoms dwells such mighty rage?”

The use of words and presentation in this very long narrative poem is quite different from what we read today because it belongs to ancient times but even its complex appearance has a sort of attraction in it that makes reader curious to develop understanding of it. Even today, when use of diction and writing styles have changed a lot, this epic is read and admired by the people of modern times.

Poetry is not a cup of tea of everyone because understanding poetry is also an art. Earlier poetry was written in blank verse that was very much complicated and it was not easy for everyone to understand that and it was considered literature for intellectuals. Only intellectual

people were able to understand it. William Wordsworth then broke the tradition and said that language of poetry must be pure and simple. It must be language of common man so that the people must be able to understand it because if not understood properly, it cannot serve its purpose. After that the trend shifted from blank verse to free verse. It was due to this use of free verse that made it simple and use of diction was also made according to the taste of people. Only this was the way that people could feel familiar with the words and they could easily grasp the meaning and could implement it over them.

Poetry is not a medium to be ignored or not taken into consideration as it takes several people's heart when written with use of beautiful metaphors and musical pattern. So is prose. It is also important the way we find poetry as for some people understanding poetry might not be that easy. Some people might prefer an over-simplified piece of writing instead of a convoluted one. Here we come to the dish that this article has to cater.

Research Question

Which genre of writing is more influential? Is it Prose or Poetry?

Research Objectives

1. The main objective of research is to find out the intensity of impact of any piece of writing in different genres.
2. The other objective of this research is to find out the reason for particular genre being more influential. For example: If it's prose then what is the reason and if poetry then what is the reason?

Methodology

The research has been conducted by a survey. People belonging to different fields have been asked their favorite genre of writing and the reason for that as well. Total number of twenty participants was included.

Analysis

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Out of all 20 participants, 18 said that they find poetry more influential and the reasons were as follows:

- Some said that poetry is more influential because it follows a rhyming scheme or even if it does not follow, its rhythmic way of presentation makes it interesting.
- Some said it has a long lasting effect.
- Some said that its hidden meanings are a kind of surprise and one can interpret it his/her own way.
- Some said its presentation style touches the heart.
- Some said that use of metaphors and similes and rhyme makes it more appealing.

The two people who said that prose is more interesting gave the reasons as:

- Prose is more comprehensive.
- It gives strategies to be implemented in life.

Without any conflict it is obvious that people find poetry more influential than prose. The major reason for it is stylistic presentation. People always like different things. Prose gives a feel of normal everyday conversation. No doubt it too has its own value but when compared to genre of poetry, it seems a step back. There came an avalanche of positive response for poetry. Most common reason that we see is the aesthetic sense associated with it and may be this was the reason that most of the writers used it in their plays as chorus. The lines in the chorus gave an appealing effect and functioned as portrayal of characters thoughts. To illustrate, as we find in T.S Eliot “Murder to cathedral” in modern writings or in classical as we find work of Shakespeare or even if we go before that, we find in Oedipus Rex by Sophocles. So we find poetry somehow also in dramaturgy that makes it genre within genre. The lines of chorus from Murder to Cathedral are best illustration of this:

“Seven years and the summer is over,
Seven years since the Archbishop left us,
He who was always so kind to his people,
But it would not be well if should return”

Now if analyze this piece, we find that there is no restriction of rhyming words but even then use of words in musical pattern give it a unique touch that makes it prominent within the play.

Poetry has conquered hearts of many people due to its empowering rhythms and its metrical presentation and its aesthetic ability. It not only serves as a source of pleasure but also has made its mark in mobilizing the thoughts of people. As we find greater Pakistani poets who inspired people to raise voice for their freedom. So it serves the purpose of moral guidance as well. One of the famous poets of Pakistan was Doctor Allama Muhammad Iqbal, who had a remarkable ability of penning down his thoughts. He motivated people of sub-continent to fight for their freedom. Poetry as already said by many other writers serves a didactic purpose; however, this has always been a controversial topic for critics of earlier times but if seen in present context, it no doubt works for both. We find numerous other poets that raised the bar of poetry and took this genre of literature to the greater heights. In Religious poetry, we have great name of Baba Bullay Shah, who with is great expression of feelings effected the minds and hearts of many people. People still admire him and take guidance from his poetry. His one of the famous poems is:

“Parh Parh Alam Fazal Hoya,
Kadi apney ap nu parhya hi nai
Ja ja varda e mandar masiti
Kadi man apny ich varya hi nhi
Avein roz shaitan nal larda aye
Kadi nafs apny nal larya hi nhi
Bullay shah asmano ud’ diyan phardha aye
Jera ghar betha, o noon phaya hi nhi”

Give a paraphrase meaning in English to help the readers who do not know the language.

This is one such poem that changes the thoughts. Other than this, there are numerous poets as such as one great name of modern poet is T.S Eliot. “The Wasteland” by T.S Eliot is a great poem in which he has presented a picture of modern world. As the lines state:

“APRIL is the cruelest month, breeding
Lilacs out of dead land breeding
Memory and desire, stirring”

These are the lines taken from “The wasteland” by T.S Eliot and we see that how beautifully, with use of rhyming schemes poet has tried to put an influence. Poetry is not only limited to any one language. We find its instances in every language. Prose also gave its contribution to every language but if we analyze same lines written in prose form, it does not have that impact as it has when is written in genre of poetry. For instance: if we write the wasteland as:

Among all the months, April is the cruelest and we see lilacs coming out of barren land in it and it brings back several memories and enhances our desires.

It clearly states the effect. The musical rhythms have much power than simple conversation language. This does not mean that prose is not an effective genre or is not a good medium. It has its own place. There are several books which have played an important role. For example: J.S Mill book “On Liberty”, Bertrand Russell book “Unpopular Essays”, The Road to Makah” by Muhammad Asad and many others. These books have proved very much influential but when it comes to a comparison between these two genres, then poetry takes the medal.

Conclusion

Out of this little effort, we exempt that poetry has made its way more smoothly to people minds than prose. The reasons that we extract out are that people do not only need moral guidance in their lives, they also need to satisfy their part of brain that commands human body to go for pleasure providing activities. This is why, people prefer poetry because they find fun its

musical rhythms and its way of presentation. On Contrary, they find prose boring and sleep triggering.

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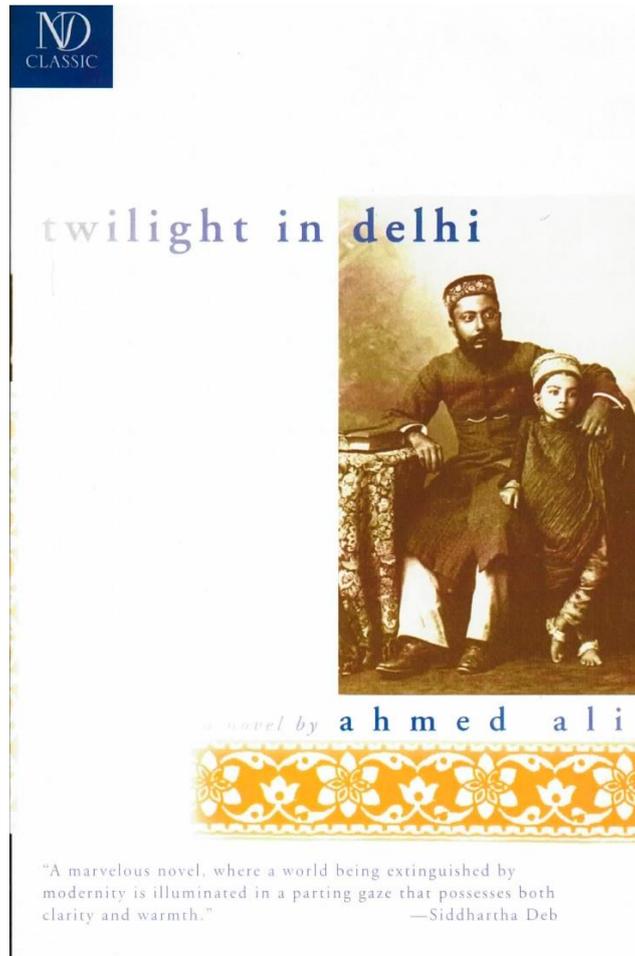
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The Relationship between the Colonizers and the Colonized and the Treatment of “Others” in *A Passage to India* and *Twilight in Delhi*: A Postcolonial Critique

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Abstract

This comparative research study has been carried out from the postcolonial literary discourse perspective to ascertain how the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized and the treatment of “other” has been presented in the following two novels: *A Passage to India* (1924) and *Twilight in Delhi* (1940). The former is written by E. M. Forster, who belongs to the race of the colonizers and the latter is written by Ahmed Ali, an Indian novelist who belongs to the colonized land. The researchers have applied qualitative paradigm and close-textual comparative analysis from which

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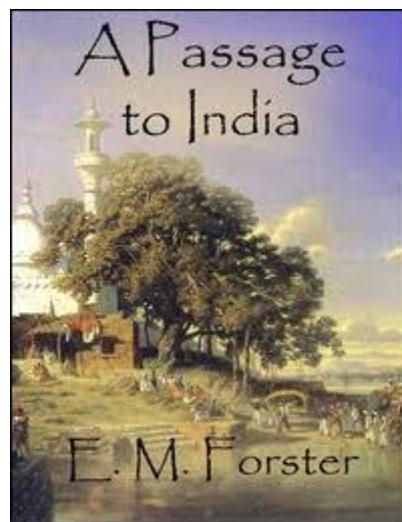
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to draw conclusions. The data collected from the text of both of the novels are descriptive in nature to produce deductive inferences from the vantage point of postcolonial literary discourse along with Eurocentric historical construct. The paper plumbs the depth of relationship between the colonizers and the colonized as presented in both novels. As the study does not seek a superficial dichotomy cliché, it aims at reflecting the different points of view embedded in the discourses and power relations permeating the worlds of the two novels.

Key Words: The Colonized, The Colonizers, *Twilight in Delhi*, *A Passage to India*, Power Relations, Postcolonial Critique

Introduction



The Indian subcontinent remained subject to colonization during different historical periods, which made the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized subjects tense and strained. The pre-colonial Indian subcontinent was colonized after Aryan invasion about the second millennium BC, which was followed by the Persian invasion about the mid of sixth century BC, during the reign of Persian kings Cyrus and Darius and the Greek invasion during the reign of Alexander the Great about 327 BC. After the departure of the Greek, the great native dynasties of Maurya (around 320 BC) and Gupta (during the fourth to sixth century AD) established great empires in India. Later on, the Muslim invaders arrived in the Indian subcontinent that includes the Turks, the Persians, and the Slave Dynasty; and the series ended with the establishment of the Mughal Empire, which disintegrated after the arrival of European colonizers. After the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope by the Portuguese navigator, Vasco de Gama in 1498, European Danish, Dutch, English and French East India Companies came to South Asia for trade and established their colonies in South Asia, but the English East India Company

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subdued the other rival companies in the Indian subcontinent and accumulated political power under the indirect support of the British Government. But after the defeat of Plassey War in 1757, the company started to assert its political authority which was taken over by the British Government after the Mutiny of 1857 – referred as such by the colonized and the colonizers respectively. Eventually the British India Government ended their rule in the Indian subcontinent in 1947 after dividing it into two independent states viz. India and Pakistan; the latter was further subdivided and there emerged Bangladesh as an independent state in 1971.

When the English came to the Indian subcontinent they brought with them, as every invader has done in history, their culture, language, and traditions, system of education and religion which affected and influenced the colonized natives at great length both positively and negatively; its impact better called the colonial residue or legacy still prevails in the above mentioned states. With the advent of British colonization, the westernized education system was introduced with English as a medium of instruction and the Anglo-Indian fiction writings in English also came into vogue. By employing colonial narrative and Eurocentric historical construct in history and literature, the colonizers endeavored to justify the act of colonization and presented the Indian subcontinent as a backward land, devoid of civilization, where, the natives were shown as ignorant, superstitious; moreover, they were persuaded with the idea that their salvation, progress and development were conditioned with the British rule and the western education system in India. With the advent of writings in English Language, the indigenous people after wizing up to the realization of the loss and awareness of their right to rule, started responding to the centre (colonizers) in its language; it was a very interesting phenomenon when the people on the periphery, the colonized, vocalized and articulated their grievances and dissatisfaction with the colonialism and communicated to the centre, the colonizers, in the very language of the centre during the national movements. The study undertakes the issue of presentation of the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized and the treatment of ‘others’ in E.M. Forster’s novel: *A Passage to India* (1924) and Ahmed Ali’s novel: *Twilight in Delhi* (1940) from the vantage point of postcolonial literary discourse. The former novelist belonged to the colonizers, whereas the latter was from the colonized that provides substantive rationale for the conduct of this study.

Research Question

How did both novelists present the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized and the treatment of “Others” in *A Passage to India* and *Twilight in Delhi*?

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Methodology

a) Descriptive Qualitative Research

The study in its nature is qualitative and employs comparative textual-narrative analysis of both of the novels in accordance with the tenants and ingredients of Postcolonial Literary Discourse. As the data collected are descriptive and narrative, the qualitative tools like definition, explanation, interpretation and comparative analysis are employed to analyze the data and make generalization and draw conclusions.

Kothari maintains, “The major purpose of descriptive research is description of the state of affairs as it exists at present” and the research can report “what has happened or what is happening”. (Kothari, 2008:3) Furthermore, Calmorin et al. postulate that the purpose of the Descriptive Research “is to find new truth. The truth may have different forms such as increased quality of knowledge, a new generalization or a new ‘law’, an increased insight into factors which are operating in the discovery of new causal relationship, a more accurate formulation of the problem to be solved and many others”. (Calmorin, et al, 2007:70)

Elaine and Linda postulate, “Qualitative Research generates narrative data – that is, data described in words instead of numbers. A variety of techniques are suitable for securing qualitative data” and “content analysis” is one of those techniques. (Elaine and Linda, 2008:5) The study at hand, is based on the content analysis of the text of the novels undertaken. Elaine and Linda (2008) maintain, “Methods for analyzing, unitizing, coding and comparing qualitative data are currently used to interpret the qualitative data”. (p.5) “Qualitative approach to research is concerned with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behaviors. Such an approach to research generates results either in non-qualitative forms or in the form which are not subjected to rigorous quantitative analysis”. (Kothari, 2008, p.30) Best and Kahn also support the argument that the “qualitative research is based on the phenomenological paradigm, which uses a variety of interpretive research methodologies”. (Best and Kahn, 2008: 246)

b) The Comparative Research Design

The researcher has employed comparative research design to compare and analyze the data collected from the selected novels for drawing conclusion. Caramani (2009) maintains, “Comparative research design can either focus on similarities, or focus on differences. Sometimes we ask questions about similar outcomes and “to explain similar outcomes we look for common factors” (p.14). He

further argues “Sometimes, however, we use the Method of Agreement (or Most Different System Design) in which we ask questions about different outcomes” (ibid, p.14).

To find out similar outcomes, Skocpol (1979) conducted the comparative analysis of the question such as “why did social revolution take place in France, Russia and China?” In the similar vein, Capoccia (2005) also posed a question for finding similar outcomes like: “why did democracy resist attacks from anti-system forces in some countries and not in others?”

Conversely, the most different system design is employed to produce comparative analysis of different outcomes. John Stuart Mill called it the “Method of Difference”, whereas Przeworski and Teune, 1970 called it “Most Similar System Design”. Caramani (2009) maintains, “To explain different outcomes we look at factors that vary (something that is either present or absent in the case in which the outcome either occurred or did not) among otherwise similar cases”. (p.14). Moore (1966) adopted same paradigm by raising a question to deal with the different outcomes: “why did Britain democratize early and Prussia/Germany late?”

In this respect, the undertaken study, deals with both questions of similar and different outcomes: how both novelists have presented the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized and the treatment of “Others” in their novels: *A Passage to India* and *Twilight in Delhi*? Hence, the researcher sought to answer both questions of similar and different outcomes and after comparing and contrasting the data collected from the text of the undertaken novels drew conclusions, using Postcolonial Literary Discourse as the frame of references for this study.

c) Postcolonial Literary Discourse Research Method

Ashcroft et al. (1989) establish the very momentous aspect of this discourse that the literature in former colonies has assumed present form after having undergone the experience of colonization to foreground their tension and strain with the colonizers. The colonized writers used the language of the centre to launch a creative resistance against the imperial power; hence, these aspects of the literature make it truly postcolonial. Homi Bhabha further maintains “The term postcolonial is used to describe that form of social criticism that bears witness to those unequal and uneven processes of representation by which the historical experience of the once colonized Third World comes to be framed in the West”. (Bhabha in P. Mongia, 1997: ix) Thus, Postcolonial Literary Discourse critically deals with the treatment of the act of colonization and its impact and ramification or residue the previous colonies still carry forward even after their formal independence in the literary works of both the colonizers and the colonized; besides, the delineation of the characters belonging to the colonized and the colonizers,

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the issues of presentation and representation of either party, the treatment of “other” and “otherness”, depiction of inevitable state of hybridism, homogeneity and heterogeneity and foreseeing the possibility of postcolonial hope of peaceful coexistence, prevalence of diversity and ultimate reconciliation between both cultures, of the colonizers and of the colonized. The above aspects of postcolonial literary discourse are very much relevant to the comparative textual study of the novels: *A Passage to India* by E. M. Forster and *Twilight in Delhi* by Ahmed Ali – the former novelist belong to the colonizers i.e. the English, the latter is from the colonized i.e. the Muslim writer of the Indian subcontinent.

Lynes (2010) maintains that postcolonial research helps to understand historical process and the residues of colonization for better understanding “the continuing deleterious effects of violence discrimination, and subjugation that have been so consistently integral to colonizing practices and attitudes. Responding to this oppression, postcolonial research includes the examination of various forms of resistance these practices have engendered, in particular on the part of indigenous inhabitants of colonized land”. (p.687) He further argues that Edward Said also believed that the scholars of the West portrayed the people from the East as imbued or occupied with the idea of religion and culture therefore the sort of perception developed about them was that they were “mysterious, exotic, and vaguely dangerous”. (p.692) “Post colonialism is a complex and contested project (Kavoori, 1998; Shome, 1998) that has emerged around a major upheaval that defined twentieth-century global society (Patke, 2006)”. (Lindlof and Taylor, 2010:60-61)

Briggs et al. add that Postcolonial Theory was the outcome of the criticism done on “Eurocentric colonial practices and policies” that affected and changed the shape of the colonized society. The discourse has historical perspective that refers to the act of “the Western colonization that spread across the world in the wake of the Industrial Revolution”. (Briggs et al. 2012:38) Prasad takes the argument further that the theory questioned the practices that were contrived to maintain hegemonic dominance and authority “not only politically, militarily and economically, but also culturally and ideologically” (Prasad, 2003:5). However, Briggs et al. (2012:38) quote Prasad and Prasad that “The theory offers researchers opportunities to understand more fully how Western culture, knowledge and epistemology profoundly affect non-Western societies, and how the complex dynamics of Western hegemony contribute to the continued international regime of exploitation and deprivation.

The study undertaken here focuses the presentation of relationship between the colonizers and the colonized and the treatment of ‘others’ in both of the novels from the vantage point of Postcolonial Literary Discourse and the conclusions and generalization are made in the light of the tenets or postulates of the discourse.

Collection of Data and Analysis

Unlike E.M. Forster, Ahmed Ali has not delineated any full-drawn character belonging to the English colonizers directly interacting with the colonized so that it could have been referred for this study to determine the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized, but it is the native characters or first person narration of the author himself, through which the reader comes to know about the English and their relationship with the natives. The way the colonizers exploit, mistreat, mistrust natives, extract indigenous resources, perturb the course of justice when the matter is between the brown Indian and the white English, their involvement in the internal affairs of the small states ruled by Indian rajahs and ranis, persecution of the Mughal kings, princes, princesses and their associates; deliberate decay of historical places and archeological heritages, interpolation with the history, the change of educational system and imposition of English as a medium of instruction instead of engrafting the westernized knowledge by replacing the oriental contents provide rational footings to determine the relationship between them. These aspects have already been discussed and analyzed under the heading of presentation of the colonizers and the colonized and some aspects will be encompassed in the sections which follow, while analyzing the social and political conditions presented in *Twilight in Delhi*. Therefore, it would be simple replica hence the prime focus remains on *A Passage to India* in which the characters of both the colonizers and the colonized are fully drawn that provide substantial standing for the estimation of relationship between the colonizers and the colonized deduced from their day to day interaction and dealing in the routine course of affairs. In the context of postcolonial discursive fields, the colonizers seem too adamant to respect the colonized and the latter expect that humiliation, mortification and insult were the inevitably routine treatment.

Tense Relationship between the Colonizers and the Colonized

In the very beginning of the novel, *A Passage to India*, Muhammad Ali argues that it is not possible to befriend Englishmen, whereas Hamidullah disagrees with the notion; nevertheless he holds some reservations that it is possible only in the situation where there is no clash of interest. To support his point of view, Hamidullah asserts his experience in Cambridge where he was given warm welcome. Dr. Aziz is of the opinion that it may be possible in England but “it is not possible here” (31). Dr. Aziz

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complains that the red-nosed boy insulted him at the instigation of the English, in fact the boy was gentle and nice but he was made so by “others” (the Colonizers) (31). The natives, who work under the auspices and supervision of these Englishmen, also get changed and start treating natives with hatred and disgust. As far as the Englishmen are concerned, they all are the same but once they reach India they get transformed altogether. Dr. Aziz says that any Englishperson whether he is Turton or Burton would need only two years, whereas Englishwomen only six months to get themselves formatted, thereafter they “all are exactly alike” (32). During the process of formatting, the newcomers are brainwashed that they are better than the natives. Mrs. Turton says to Mrs. Moore, “You’re superior to them, anyway. Don’t forget that. You’re superior to everyone in India except one or two of the ranis, and they’re on an equality” (56); moreover, Lesley terms natives as “swine” (200).

Dr. Aziz escorts Mrs. Moore to the club; she wishes that if she had been the member, she would have invited him in the club, but Aziz disillusioned her that “Indians are not allowed into the Chandrapore Club even as guests” (41). When Adela asks Ronny, “Why not ask the pleaders to the Club?” The briefest answer Ronny gives, “Not allowed” (46). Moreover, despite hot weather, all windows and doors of clubs were barred lest the natives could see their masters and memshaibs acting or dancing (42).

Ronny Heaslop becomes angry when his mother tells him that she went out when the play was being acted in the Club and met a Mohammedan doctor. He warns her and forbids her from going out alone, because according to him the land was not congenial for it. (47)

After listening to the news of the attempted rape at the Marabar Caves, Mr. Turton rode home from his office, the coolies sleeping in ditches and the shopkeepers in the market all rose to salute him. He says to himself: “I know what you’re like at last; you shall pay for this, you shall squeal”; (159) he wanted to keep whole Chandrapore at ransom and his face remained “white and fanatical” with anger and wrath like other Englishmen in Chandrapore and such a state continued for many days. (157) Mr. Callendar was also full of wrath and revenge, as he roared that it was not the time for sitting but for action and he wished the troop should be called in and the bazaars need to be cleared up; however, Adela was in the state of mental anguish, psychological trauma and pervasive dilemma that whether she had rightly leveled charges against Aziz or not; whereas, “her friends kept up their spirits by demanding holocausts of natives” (183) .

The Colonizers and Their Native Subordinates

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The senior English officers tried to impose authority upon their native subordinates. As, Old Callendar requires Dr. Aziz to see him when it is the time of dinner; moreover, there is no obvious reason or some urgent case to treat. While leaving to respond the call of Maj. Callendar, Dr. Aziz grunts, “I dare say not; I dare say nothing. He has found out our dinner hour. That’s all and chooses to interrupt us every time in order to show his power” (35). Dr. Aziz departs to Civil Lines, his cycles gets deflated, he hires a tonga, when reaches at the house of Mr. Callendar, he is informed that Mr. Callendar has left without leaving any message for him (36). In the meanwhile, two Englishwomen, Mesdames Callendar and Lesley appear out of the house and take the tonga, Dr. Aziz hired to reach the Civil Lines, without even seeking permission from him (37). Though Dr. Aziz without any grudge allowed the ladies to ride in the tonga, yet in fact he was displeased with the arrogant and highhanded behavior of the English ladies that they neither bothered to seek permission nor did they thank Aziz in courtesy (36). Dr. Aziz demonstrated his discomfort and embarrassment at the disgusting and derogatory ways the Englishpersons dealt with the natives, teasing them incessantly beyond endurance and impose their authority and show no respect to everything that is indigenous. He says to Mrs. Moore that Mrs. Callendar took his hired tonga without his consent or permission, whereas Major Callendar interrupted him regularly at night when he got engaged in dinner or entertainment. He says, “I go at once, breaking up a most pleasant entertainment, and he is not there and not even a message. I can do nothing and he knows it. I am just a subordinate, my time is of no value, the veranda is good enough for an Indian” (41). It is the worst sort of treatment the Indian natives receive from their colonial masters. It is only the attitude of Mrs. Moore that enhances the feelings of trust, security and intimacy; therefore, Dr. Aziz shares his grudge and discontent at the exploitation and mistreatment of Indians, because of this polite and respectful attitude of Mrs. Moore he calls her “Oriental” (41). Presumably Dr. Aziz associates the characteristics like politeness, humility, compassion and respect as inalienable features of oriental nature. Once Aziz came home and found one chit with official stamp awaiting him like an explosive (71). In fact it was an invitation from Fielding for a cup of tea, as Fielding had also invited him in the past but he did not go, however the letter did not bear any reference to that slip. Dr. Aziz found the invitation courteous which gave him peace and joy, as the letter was with official stamp but it was not insulting and derogatory as he often received from the English officers (71).

Englishpersons did not appreciate their Indian subordinates even if they worked better than their English masters. It is an established fact that Dr. Aziz, though subordinate, is better at surgery than Major Callendar, but the latter neither respects nor regards his professional competence, only

because Dr. Aziz is a native. Major Callendar operated on Mrs. Graysford's appendix and she had died after the operation, if the same surgery had been conducted by Dr. Aziz she would have definitely survived (66). "At Chandrapore the Turtons were little gods; soon they would retire to some suburban villa, and die exiled from glory" (45). Many of the English who came to India made abnormal profit, lived like princes and rajahs, made their lot better and went back with lot of money and possession; thus, they lived the last part of their life happily in England.

Relationship between the English Masters and Native Servants

The Englishman and Englishwomen mistreated their servants in offices and at homes as well. Once late in the night, when all the servants went to their beds after completing their extensive work, Ronny made much row for some files he required and shouted for Kirshna, his servant. In fact, the files he required were not that much important but "it was the custom" (101) to make much fuss and commotion over petty and trivial issues. The servants came shivering, carrying hurricane lamps, and called those who were missing, this fear and fraught appeased the rulers and their sense of superiority got satisfied.

Mrs. Turton has taken efforts to learn Urdu to talk with the servants, but she has learnt the verbs used for the order and imperative mood of the language which lack polite expression (56). She did follow the existing convention of language use for such purposes in the society. We should also remember here, that our *rajahs* and *ranis* (and landlords) did not/do not treat their servants politely nor did they show them much kindness.

Adela Quested mentions that after her marriage to Ronny she would bear the title of the Anglo-Indian but with a difference, that she would not mistreat the natives. "Some women are so – well, ungenerous and snobby about Indians, and I should feel too ashamed for words if I turned out to be like them" (143).

Possibility of Rapprochement

The Bridge Party was held to mitigate the gap between the colonizers and the colonized or East and West (45); however, the invitation invoked feelings of doubt and suspicion. Muhammad Ali, the advocate, is of the opinion that it was the higher authorities who had ordered Turton to organize such a party, but he complains that those high-ups may have some feelings of sympathy for them; the ironic fact here was that they live far away in England and visit them seldom (51). Hence, they intentionally keep the subjects at arm's length; these parties are, however, a false attempt to coax the natives that the

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English government is very much concerned about the harmony, understanding and betterment of the natives.

There is no prospect of the English and Indians living, eating and visiting together with peace and harmony. When Aziz asked Fielding to convey his invitation to Mrs. Moore and Miss Quested for visiting the Marabar Caves, Fielding was not happy with the idea and “he foresaw friction and expense” (128). Ronny permitted ladies to go to visit the caves with Dr. Aziz only after Fielding took the responsibility (128). Major Callendar snubbed Aziz’s request for leave, but it was granted after the mediation of Fielding (128). Forster shows that there is no hope of peaceful coexistence and possibility of the colonizers and the colonized living together. Aziz, with all his humility and hospitality gets irritated when Miss Quested asked him how many wives he had, he sums up: “Damn the English even at their best” (149). Adela, Mrs. Moore, and Fielding, from the race of the colonizers, and Aziz and Godbole, belonging to the colonized, first met at the tea party of Fielding. Ever since they had become filled with morbid feelings and fell ill. Adela and Mrs. Moore were upset, Aziz and Godbole became ill. When Fielding asked Adela, “Can you remember when you first felt out of sorts?” She replied “When I came to tea with you there” (219).

Besides, it is deduced that the colonizers and the colonized cannot befriend even after being judicious, true, helpful and sympathetic. A slight rumour fringes the bond of friendship between Aziz and Fielding. “Aziz had no sense of evidence. The sequence of his emotions decided his beliefs, and led to the tragic coolness between himself and his English friend. They had conquered but were not to be crowned” (245). Besides, the rumour of Fielding having a relationship with Adela Quested also disturbs Aziz and slackens the embrace of relationship which was very strong and close at its beginning: “It was only when Mrs. Moore or Fielding was near him that he (Dr. Aziz) saw further, and knew that it is more blessed to receive than to give. These two had strange and beautiful effects on him – they were his friends, his forever, and he theirs forever; he loved them so much that giving and receiving became one” (140-41).

It was an important question in Forster’s times, whether the colonizers and the colonized could develop friendship with one another; *A Passage to India* deals with it to a great detail: the text begins with the natives discussing the possibility of friendship with the English invaders and it ends with the same question and the answer is “No, not there” (289). Mrs. Moore, Adela Quested and Fielding, despite the racial taboos, befriend educated, westernized and some extent liberal Dr. Aziz, trying to be friendly, but it ends in great misunderstanding; the racial hatred surfaces after the Marabar case, and it

never ends. The possibility for a rapprochement to be wrought out of such relationships is feasible only when the land and the natives are decolonized; thus, the end of British rule in India has been foreshadowed in *A Passage to India*.

Prevalence of Racial Hatred and the Failure of Communication

The colonizers devised a narrative to demonize, demoralize and malign the identity of the colonized people as it is famous in the case of the Hottentot Venus, in which a South African woman, Sarah Baartman (1789-1815) belonging to Khosian tribe, was brought to Britain in 1810 for the exhibition of her biologically odd and scientifically curious “pronounced buttock and genitalia”. The sort of humiliation and degradation she underwent shows the “racist mindset common in 19th century Europe and her image has become a lasting symbol of Western colonial attitudes towards Africa” in particular and the world in general (Sinead Caslin: <http://www.qub.ac.uk/imperial/key-concepts/feminism-and-postcolonialism.htm>). However, such crude attempt was not widely practiced in the Indian subcontinent, but oppression for political power was the primary focus.

Mr. McBryde has devised a theory about the climatic impact on the natives: “All unfortunate natives are criminals at heart, for the simple reason that they live south of latitude 30. They are not to blame, they have not a dog’s chance, we should be like them if we settled here” (160). In addition, during his statement in the court, Mr. McBryde mentions, “darker races are physically attracted towards the fairer ones, but not vice versa” (202) and he regards it as an established fact which every “scientific observer will confirm” (202). Fielding argues with Mr. McBryde that if Aziz had assaulted Adela Quested, he would not have kept her glasses in his pocket. McBryde responds with serious racist tone and cunning engenderment that an Indian does not commit crime like the English but they become even “queer” than simply bad. (161) Mr. Turton conforms that whenever any English tries to “be intimate socially” with the natives it ends but in “disaster” (158). In addition, Mrs. Callendar has strong feelings of disgust toward the natives; if any native comes closer to her they give her “the creeps”; the kindest thing she intends to do for natives is “to let him die”. Boehmer (1995) maintains “the undergirding for the imperialist syllogism whereby Europeans, defined as the fittest of all humanity, could defend empire not only on the basis of their fitness and ability to survive but as their *means* of survival” (85).

Dr. Aziz believes that “No Englishman understands us except Mr. Fielding”. (104) He adds that “no one can ever realize how much kindness we Indians need, we do not forget, though we may seem to. Kindness, more kindness, and even after that more kindness. I assure you it is our only hope”

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(118). Dr. Aziz further emphasizes, “What is the use of all these reforms, and Conciliation Committees for Mohurram, and shall we cut the tazia short or shall we carry it another route, and Councils of Notables and official parties where the English sneer at our skin?” (118). There was gap of communication, lack of mutual trust and goodwill: when the Collector came to the court room he “made a small official joke as he sat down, at which his entourage smiled, and the Indians, who could not hear what he said, felt that some new cruelty was afoot, otherwise the sahibs would not chuckle”. (200)

The Treatment of “Others” in Both the Novels

It is on the bases of religion, race, colour, gender, socio-political position, certain standards, norms or values that one individual or a group considers the other individual or group as “other”. For the colonizers, the Indians are demonized “others” so are these alien masters for the Indian natives. Both E.M. Forster and Ahmed Ali portray the feelings of “otherness” prevailing in the socio-political milieu of the British India.

In *A Passage to India*, Dr. Aziz complains that the red-nosed boy insulted him at the instigation of English people, in fact the boy was gentle and nice but he was made so by “others” (the Colonizers) (31). “We aren’t even seeing the other side of the world; that’s our complaint, said Adela. Mrs. Moore says, ‘Let me think – we don’t see the other side of the moon out here, no, come, India’s not as bad as all that’ (42). However, both are new arrivals in British India; therefore, they have sympathy, respect and honour for the natives. Otherwise, the English person either male or female treat the Indian natives as demonized “other”, and do not permit them to enter clubs, even the doors and windows of clubs are shut at them so that they may not have the glimpse of the action inside.

The English are aware that the natives do not like them and associate bad words with them. Ronny enquires of his mother about her meeting and conversation with Dr. Aziz, “Did he seem to tolerate us – the brutal conqueror, the sun-dried bureaucrat, that sort of thing? (48). In the same undercurrent, Dr. Aziz is very much possessive and self-conscious of his cultural assets and disowns the ‘other’: “I do not consider Mrs. Moore my friend; I only met her accidentally in my mosque” (77).

Adela Quested refuses to marry Ronny; the latter was thunder-struck at her declaration. However, Aziz had already announced it when Ronny went to pick Adela and Mrs. Moore from Firdling’s party, but Ronny does not pay any attention to it as: “he never dreamt that an Indian (somebody who is *other* for him) could be a channel of communication between two English people”

(90). In the same vein, Nawab Bahadur did not tell the secrets of the accident to the English as “It was a racial secret communicable more by blood than speech” (102).

The English race demonstrated their superiority whenever they visited any person or place; they made it obligatory that at least three chairs must be kept when an Englishperson was invited to sit; except Fielding, they asserted that one Englishperson was equal to three men. When Fielding visited ailing Dr. Aziz, Hamidullah started treating him with extra care and awe but Dr. Aziz corrected Hamidullah, “Don’t talk to him like that, he doesn’t want it, and he doesn’t want three chairs; he’s not three Englishmen” (111).

When Adela wants to share the problem of label of “Anglo-Indian”, she would be attached with after her marriage, Dr. Aziz plainly replies, “It is your difficulty, not mine” (143). Despite compassion and understanding, Dr. Aziz is not willing to own or cope with the problems of the English (*the others*), because he is not concerned about them.

Though Fielding and Aziz are good friends, even then Aziz takes Fielding as intruder and foreigner “My mother’s father was also a poet, and fought against *you* in the Mutiny”. (249) Aziz refers Fielding as “you” because he belonged to the race of the invaders and all his pro-nativity and compassion could not earn him any space in the land. When Miss Quested withdrew the charges and Aziz was acquitted, Fielding forbade Dr. Aziz from claiming the compensation amount. Later on, when Aziz heard the rumours of Fielding’s marriage to Adela, he took it to be true and speculated that as Fielding was interested in Adela, maybe that was why he insisted on the withdrawal of the compensation amount (251). For Aziz, both Fielding and Adela belonged to a different race, therefore they could not be relied upon: “he and she are, after all, both members of another race” (252).

In Mau, Aziz says to Fielding: “What does it matter to me who you marry? Don’t trouble me here at Mau is all I ask. I do not want you, I do not want one of you in my private life, with my dying breath I say it” (273). He further says, “Please do not follow us, whomever you marry. I wish no Englishman or Englishwoman to be my friend” (273).

Though Aziz respects Mrs. Moore from the core of his heart, yet he is unable to develop a peaceful relationship with Mrs. Moore’s son at Mau, as he has decided after the Marabar case that “Never be friends with the English!” (280). However, he adds, “I must give you one little present, and it is all I have got; you are Mrs. Moore’s son” his feelings shatter, “But you are Heaslop’s brother also, and alas, the two nations cannot be friends” (280). In the midst of political clashes, there is no hope for peaceful personal relationships. Aziz mentions to Fielding’s party at Mau, “I wish you were not with

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officials, then I would show you my country, but I cannot” (281). However, they try to befriend each other in the Mau Jungle during their last ride, as they know that they would not meet again; even then they cannot harmonize their minds and souls (285).

The echo is the symbol of primitivism and indigenusness, which is never harmonized with the western mind: the more western outlook one bears, the more powerfully it strikes, with extended severity and estrangement. Mrs. Moore, whom Aziz calls oriental, is less westernized hence copes with the echo and gets herself aligned; whereas, Adela, being highly westernized, fails to absorb it, moreover, the echo explodes her westernized mind and she accuses Aziz with absurdity and groundlessness. Every land, culture or civilization have their specific and peculiar anomalies only adjustable to the natives, who are able to acclimate themselves to it, whereas, the non-natives cannot develop an understanding of such phenomenon hence they stay alien; in spite of all their efforts at nativization, they remain unaccepted by the land and the natives.

Ahmed Ali also depicts the picture where the natives consider the English as “others” and regard them as alien in the land, albeit them being the rulers. Begum Nihal recalls the tragic moments “how ruthlessly Delhi had been looted by them (others) at the time of the ‘Mutiny’ and the Mussalmans had been turned out of the city, their houses were demolished, their property was looted and usurped by the ‘Prize Agency’ and city was dyed red with blood of princes and nobles, poor and rich alike who had happened to be Mussalmans [...] (137-138). GulBano, the granddaughter of Bahadur Shah, was reduced to begging, she sadly narrates the plight of Mughal rulers “We are beggars and the Farangis are kings. For us there is only a bed of thorns, and they sleep on the beds of roses. Yesterday we were the owners of horses and elephants, slaves and territories. But *they* usurped our throne, banished the king, killed hundreds of princes” (139). GulBano refers Farangis as *they* in italic fonts (139); in addition, Bahadar Shah also refers the English as “*they*” in his poetry:

“Delhi was once a Paradise,
Such peace had abided here.
But *they* have ravished its name and pride
Remain now only ruins and care.” (140)

Conclusion

Unlike E.M. Forster, Ahmed Ali has not delineated any full-drawn character belonging to the English colonizers directly interacting with the colonized so that it could have been referred for this study to determine the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized, but it is the native

characters or first person narration of the author himself, through which the reader comes to know about the English and their relationship with the natives; however, the prime focus remains on *A Passage to India* in which the characters of both the colonizers and the colonized are fully drawn, which provides substantial standing for the estimation of relationship between the colonizers and the colonized deduced from their day to day interaction and dealing in the routine course of affairs.

In the very beginning of the novel *A Passage to India*, Forster argues that it is not possible to be friends with the Englishmen. The Englishpersons also live in isolated and secluded Civil Lines. The natives are not allowed to enter clubs; when the Englishmen and women perform or dance in the clubs, the doors and windows of the clubs are shut upon the natives, lest they should see their lords or ladies dancing and acting. Besides, the English do not allow their women to get mixed up with the natives.

The senior English officers try to impose their authority upon their native subordinates and disturb their peace of life by calling upon them incessantly after office hours without any profound reason. Besides, the Englishpersons neither appreciated their native subordinates if they worked well or better than their English masters, nor did they recognize their expertise and competence; moreover, they kept on degrading and demoralizing them. In addition, both Englishmen and Englishwomen mistreated, humiliated, pressurized and degraded their native servants. Unfortunately the same is true of Indian kings and queens and landlords who treated their servants and slaves worse than animals (some still do).

E.M. Forster shows that there is no hope of rapprochement between the colonizers and the colonized, if any attempt like the Bridge Party has ever been made, it ends in smoke; moreover, both parties are not in the condition to develop friendly relationship. They cannot live, eat, walk and celebrate events together; so, as far as peaceful co-existence, harmony and mutual understanding are concerned, they are a far cry. Some semblance of understanding is developed between the colonizers and the colonized only on the chance of there being somebody positive among the English like Fielding or Mrs. Moore among the colonizers, but such understanding remains transient and temporary.

Owing to racial hatred, prejudice and biased attitude, there is a gap of communication and lack of understanding between the colonizers and the colonized. The colonizers have devised a theory that because of the climatic zone, the colonized natives are criminals and any one belonging to this region would be naturally subject to such evil acts and they would be sexually attracted towards the fairer race not the vice versa. Besides, they cannot communicate and understand each other. The colonizers

underrate the natives, whereas the latter have developed a strong conviction that the former do not endeavour to understand them; as a result, a common issue or trivial misunderstanding can end in fatal confrontation and clash. The deplorable state is that the colonial elites are bent upon degrading and insulting the natives and the latter seem to expect it.

It is on the bases of religion, race, colour, gender, socio-political position, certain standards, norms or values that one individual or a group considers the other individual or group as “other”. Just as the colonizers thought of Indians as the demonized “others”, so were these alien masters for the Indian natives. Both E.M. Forster and Ahmed Ali portray the feelings of “otherness” prevailing in the socio-political milieu of the then Indian subcontinent.

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Investigation of Teacher as an Inducing Factor of Washback in Pakistan

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Abstract

Washback is defined as the impact of test on teaching and learning. Teacher and learner are equally inter-relational but the former occupies a more prominent place in academics. Alderson (cited in Cheng & Watanabe, 2004) claims, “In short, it is at least as much the teacher who brings about washback, be it positive or negative, as it is the test” (p. 4). This study aimed to investigate the washback of Higher Secondary Exams (HSC) on the teachers at one of the government colleges in Hyderabad. The data for this small-scale study was collected using semi-structured interviews from 10 intermediate government college teachers from Hyderabad and ten classroom observations, one of each interviewed teacher. The findings of the study showed the mixed impact regarding the teacher largely inducing the negative washback and slightly the positive washback and vice versa too due to some ground realities irrespective of any pressure of test demands / examination, administration and parents. The findings further suggest that the HSC exams do not directly exert any adequate washback on teachers. Their teaching methodology and other related sub-factors have both washback directions – negative as well as positive.

Key Words: Washback, Impact, Test demands

1. Introduction

A teacher plays an instrumental role in achieving the curricular goals. Every government college has a substantial number of senior and junior teachers of different subjects. Every subject they teach is comprised of certain chapters or units to be completed in a given time that is referred to as “syllabus” set by Board of Curriculum and all teachers know the educational goals of syllabus assumed by curriculum. To attain the expected aim of syllabus, that is the learning of

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students, the teachers adopt or innovate certain teaching strategies. These strategies are sometimes comprehensive and straightaway as envisaged by an ideal teaching; but sometimes, these strategies are “short – cuts” to the annual examination in order to secure an optimum score in examination. The reasons for both are multiple. For the former, the ideal learning of students is considered the first priority by the teacher and the examination the second. For the latter, the expected score in examination is the first priority by the teacher and the learning the second priority. The teacher who focuses on score based teaching has one purpose like ‘exam results for admission in higher level’. The future of the learner becomes the cause of grave concern for parental reputation and institutional credibility. These both forces equally exert at the teacher to carve out the score oriented pedagogy, materials and formative tests. But these two teaching mechanisms have certain variations at different public and private colleges. The administration at Government colleges in Sindh is considered the least concerned for the score in annual exam and the concern of the parents is also noted as lukewarm; therefore, the teacher too seems least pressurised for “teaching to the test” for examination.

2. Significance of the Study

Washback is a “highly complex rather than a monolithic phenomenon” (Cheng, et al., p. 19). According to Pearson, “It is generally acceptable that public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviour, and motivations of teachers, learners, and parents” (1988: 98). The test exercises a moral, social and psychological pressure upon the learner for which the teacher is indispensable. The teacher’s role magnifies in the class and is expected by his learners to work up to their learning goals or any other individualized expectations. This linchpin status of the teacher is, of course, an inducing factor of washback. It is this central factor of learning that is focus of this study. This study is aimed at investigating into teaching phenomenon, i.e. whether the teacher at Government Muslim Science Degree College Hyderabad feels administrative and parental pressure or moral pressure to complete the syllabus; and further, whether the teacher tailors out teaching practices as required by the annual question papers or not.

2.1. Aims and Objectives

This study aims to investigate the role of teacher in all teaching perspectives like teaching methodology, the ideal completion of syllabus by him and the multidimensional limitations he

works within. Whereas the objectives are to know whether the teachers at the college aforementioned carry the similar limitations or personalize their teachings and related practices.

2.2. Research Questions

This study attempts to answer the following research questions regarding the teacher as an inducing factor of washback.

Q. No. 01. How much successfully do the teachers complete the syllabus?

Q. No. 02. How much do the question papers impact the teaching methodology and materials?

Q. No. 03. What administrative and parental pressures do the teachers feel that affect the teaching methodology?

3. Literature Review

Prior to Alderson and Wall (1993), there had been a number of researchers focusing on multi-dimensional effects of tests or examinations but the credit of foundation for systematic and consistent washback research goes to only the aforementioned two researchers. They presented a paper titled as “Does Washback Exist?” which has a remarkable significance in the field of testing in education. It was aimed at investigating the existence of this complex phenomenon. They criticized the earlier research done by Vernon (1956), Davis (1968), Kellaghan, Madaus, and Airasian (1982), Morrow (1986), Pearson (1988), Hughes (1989), Khaniya (1990a and 1990b, p.115) because their research was not based on “actual classroom practices” but rather on “questionnaires and interviews” (Green, 2013, p.42).

Latham (cited in Cheng, 2008) is considered the primary source to have talked about the significance of examination – an encroaching power – (p.349). Cheng cited Latham in the article: How it influences the prevalent view of life and work among young men, and how it affects parents, teacher, writers of educational books, and the notion of public about education (p.349).

Researchers have defined this term in a number of different ways. According to Pearson, “It is generally acceptable that public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviour, and motivations of teachers, learners, and parents” (1988, p.98). Buck (1988, p.17 cited in Bailey)

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states, “There is a natural tendency for both teachers and students to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important for the future of students, and pass rates are used as measure of teacher success”. This influence of test on the classroom (referred to as washback by language testers) is very important; this effect can be either beneficial or harmful. For Hughes (1989, p.1) “the effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as backwash”.

Washback studies have grown since 1990. “Does Washback Exist?” - an empirical study in Sri Lanka conducted by Alderson and Wall in 1993 - was a valuable study with their 15 hypotheses. Hughes presented his washback trichotomy – *participants, process and products* - in 1993; and in 1996 Bailey came up with a model of Hughes’ trichotomy and incorporated “wash-forward” to the model. Green (ibid.) suggested a comprehensive washback study in 2013 with his “washback variability and intensity”. These were the laudable efforts related to concept, mechanism, effects of washback and test impact.

The most intricate and ever debated aspect of washback is its direction. The washback mechanism involves a sufficient number of variables, personal and contextual, between two extremities – from teaching to testing. Much research has been conducted on finding the consistent factors of negative and positive washback but the ultimate finales are yet to come. If the optimum results become the only objective of the test, the teaching and learning approach of a teacher and a learner gets wishfully twisted. For example, a specific / required score / bands on IELTS and TOEFL is the foremost priority with the learner so with the teacher as well. To achieve it, the teacher and the learner adopt short-cuts to test. This forced approach is bound to ignore some of the areas of syllabus, learning activities and curriculum at large. Vernon (1956:166) suggested that these practices “distort the curriculum”. He has also lamented about excessive coaching for examination.

Davis (1968a, p.125) has also disapproved these practices. He considers examinations as “teaching devices”. To him, the teaching and the learning become confined to past papers, which consequently narrow down the curriculum. Alderson and Wall (1993 cited in Jaan & Khan, 2013) indicate that if teachers use tests to make their students pay more attention to learning, it is

positive influence of testing. If the teachers narrow their curriculum to make their students more sharp on the exams, it will be a negative influence of testing on the students learning (p. 65).

Nobel and Smith (cited in Cheng, 2000, p.11) have pointed out that the rising popularity of high-stakes tests has directly and negatively affected the teaching profession. He states that “teaching test-taking skills and drilling on multiple-choice worksheets is likely to boost the scores but unlikely to promote general understanding” (1991b, p.6). Smith (1991b, p.8) had findings from qualitative study of the role of external testing in elementary schools that “testing programs substantially reduce the time available for instruction, narrow curriculum offerings and mode of instruction, and potentially reduce the capacities of teachers to teach content and to use methods and materials that are incompatible with standardized testing formats”.

In a study by Alderson and Wall (1993) in British Columbia has enticing findings from “the impact of re-introducing final examinations at Grade 12”. The teachers were found to have involved into non-academic practices like narrowing down the syllabus to the requirements of the examination. The students assumed the taught lessons being the more pertinent and important so they had memorization approach with little emphasis on critical thinking or learning required by curriculum. Ahmad and Rao (2012) in their study on students’ communicative competence in Pakistan had the findings that current examination exerts negative influence on the students’ learning as they learn only to pass examination.

Adnan and Mehmood (2014) investigated the washback effects in Pakistan on the intermediate (XI & XII) level. After completing the 12 year education in English medium with English as compulsory subject, the male and female students miserably fail to acquire the expected proficiency in English language. This study was focused on teaching methodology and materials used in the class. It seems that this study is based on Alderson and Wall’s first single hypothesis – “Test will influence teaching.” This quantitative study has 50 college teachers public and private as its sample size; and perhaps, this study was the first of its type in Pakistan on the grounds of number of participants. The researchers found that HSSC (Higher Secondary School Certificate – XI & XII) exam patterns supersede the learning needs of students. Washback factors like material, content, syllabus, and teaching get hijacked to students’ success in exam hall. Thus, washback gets negatively affected.

Asma, Sabeen and Isabell (2014) investigated the washback effects of intermediate English examination in Pakistan. This empirical study was qualitative focused on “teaching and learning”– first and second hypotheses conceived by Alderson and Wall – at public sector colleges. The total participants were from Kinnaird College for Women, Lahore. The findings showed that the teachers had to focus more on score oriented activities as every student prioritized it for selection in aspired discipline in graduation. This practice had a cumulative negative effect on some of the areas of English syllabus and curriculum as well. The learners / students felt encouraged to study the selected areas of English syllabus keeping in view the requirements of examination rather than develop English language proficiency/abilities/skills as envisaged by curriculum that is tantamount to negative washback on teaching and learning at the college” (ibid. p.152).

4. Methodology

This is a qualitative study in which the data was collected using two main tools – semi-structured interviews and classroom observations by the researcher who has also been the teacher at the same college for last above 15 years. These both tools are significant in gathering authentic information for analysis. The validity of these tools can be ascertained from the fact of the participant being a direct source for data. Therefore, interviews and observations make the research truer and better for obtaining the in-depth data. As stated by Creswell and Clark (2007, p.9), “In multilingual and multicultural settings relying on quantitative data is probably quite weak in terms of results. To bring strong results, the qualitative instruments are more reliable to qualitative researchers”. Wanatabe (2004) strongly advocates the importance of incorporating the ethnographic or qualitative approach to washback in 1997 and followed it in Japanese context in terms of University Entrance Test system. Alderson and Walls (1993) had qualitative research in Sri Lanka, Cheng (ibid.) had the same framework in Thailand. The obvious reason could be exploring more and more till the bottom level of required information is reached. “The interviewer gains rapport or establishes friendly and secure relationship with the interviewee, a certain type of confidential information (Smith et al., 1991, p.218 cited in Pathan, 2012, p.86). Interviews provide an inlet to thinking recesses of an interviewee or participant. Associationism (Aristotle – 350 B.C) is comprised of four laws of Similarity, Contrast, Contiguity and Frequency, which are also called Laws of Association of Ideas (Olson and Hergenhahn, cited in

Weibell, 2011, p.24). While replying to a question, these laws get interplayed. And in the second data collection tool – observations - the researcher observes the actor’s talk and actions vividly that can generate the researcher’s vigorous thoughts for comparative and corroborative analysis.

4.1. Data Collection Tools & Participants

In this study 12 teachers of different subjects were approached but only 10 participants were included because two participants lacked serious interest in queries and showed to be theatrical and censorious. The college has above 45 senior and junior teaching staff. The majority of the participants were regular, punctual and seniors, i.e. above ten year teaching experience because they could share the authentic information for having adopted or innovated teaching methodology. A serious teaching attitude was also the salient feature of these participants. Every effort was made that every participant should represent his subject in order to see where washback works and in which direction.

Observations made by the researcher have much association to the teacher participants, teaching methodology generally applied at the college, the requirements of the students, and the annual papers by BISE, Hyderabad.

From every participant, a semi-structured interview not exceeding eight minutes was conducted and recorded and saved to Voice Recorder on Samsung Grand Prime mobile. This college has multilingual staff. They speak mostly Urdu and Sindhi and some nativized English; therefore, the interview was conducted in the mother tongue of the interviewee and then translated into English. Afterwards, the interviews were transcribed to MS Office Word 2007 on laptop. The prints were taken and the required themes were highlighted. All codal formalities like initial codes - “First Cycle Coding” (Saldana, 2009, p.3) were also completed as the fundamental requirement of thematic analysis and those formalities facilitated thematic analysis that is “... a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997, cited in Fereday & Muir-Cochrane). According to Rice & Ezzy, “The process involves the identification of themes through “careful reading and re-reading of the data” (1999, cited in Pathan, *ibid.*). Every teacher was codified from T1 to T10.

5. Findings and Interpretation

The primary assignment of the teacher is to successfully complete the syllabus through adopted or innovated teaching methodology. How have the research participants responded to the research question no. 01 can be gauged from the following quotes. The research question one is **“How much successfully do the teachers complete the syllabus at the college?”**

T1 said, “I try my best to complete but Mathematics has a lengthy syllabus with exercises too. A chapter or two get skipped for being unimportant for exam.” Responding to a seminal question, he said, “Some other factors also affect the timely and successful completion of syllabus like mixed abilities, weak base, university exams.”

T2 said, “I manage to complete. It is all a random way of doing that and it is not an ideal way because there are various reasons.”

T4 said, “Yes. The syllabus gets affected. I mean if they [students] understand or not, I proceed to completing it.” To another side question, he replied, “Some topics might be left.”

T7 said, “Yes, if the session runs properly.” To another question he replied, “I equally concentrate first to last. Every topic in syllabus is important for exam, daily life and knowledge for higher studies like BS and onward. I don’t tailor out my teaching to the examination. The class has multiple affecting factors But I manage all.”

The above excerpts from the teacher interviews demonstrate that the majority of the participants were unable to successfully complete the syllabus. The reasons narrated by them were internal as well as external like the lengthy exercises, weak educational background of students, mixed abilities in the class, external examinations in the college building and a few other outer issues. Therefore, the teachers got constrained and compelled to concentrate upon the important sections of the syllabus. My observations, as a teacher at the same college, have got integrated to the participants’ views. I like to make certain addition that the chunk of seniors (19th and 20th graders) is also a determinant for twisting syllabus damaging the students’ learning. Only a few senior teachers work to materialize curricular aims. The above analysis and discussion enable to conclude that the majority of the teachers were found involved in cutting the syllabus because of certain interior and exterior constraints. A small number of teachers face the

similar constraints but they devise feasible pedagogic strategies to cause the optimum learning of the students. Therefore, the washback direction is the teacher-based phenomenon. In other words, the teacher himself is responsible for bringing direction to washback be it positive or negative. In words of Alderson (2004), “In short, it is at least as much the teacher who brings about wash back, be it positive or negative, as it is the test” (cited in Cheng & Curtis, *ibid.*).

The exam results are very precious to the future of students. It is largely believed in the research on washback that the examination precipitates the learning and the latter precipitates the teaching. In this context, responding to the questions regarding the impact of the question paper on the teaching methodology and materials, the participants expressed as follows:

T4 said, “During teaching, I do intimate the students about important topics or chapters for examination but it does not mean that I make selective teaching.”

T6 said, “I have experience of teaching at private college before I joined public college. Paper focused teaching was the priority at that college but in government colleges the teaching is different. No body, except a few students ask me to teach according to annual examination.”

T7 said, “I am a senior teacher and I know the more important areas of my subject and expected questions in the paper. While teaching I point out to students examinational value of the topic, but I do not confine my teachings to those areas alone. I make my teachings and formative tests comprehensive. Let the learning of the student be complete.”

T10 said, “I follow a common teaching methodology and complete syllabus very successfully. Many students know the national language and culture of Pakistan so it is not like Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics. The students do not feel the need to be taught in light of question papers.”

The quotations above show that the question paper did not have any traditional impact on teaching methodology. The teachers adopted a utilitarian teaching methodology to complete the syllabus. Some teachers were found to point out the topics or chapters for annual examination during their teachings but none was found involved into selective teaching in light of past papers and they were more assiduous for the learning of the students. The findings shown in this study are quite different from Usma and Asim’s (2014) qualitative findings and are also entirely

opposed to findings by Asma et al. (2014). This further shows that the examinations are not teaching devices at the Government colleges in Sindh province as otherwise believed by Davis (ibid.). This ‘apparently’ positive washback is actually negative; therefore, it may be earmarked as ‘Negatively Positive Washback’. My observations corroborate the findings discussed above. Of course, washback varies from situation to situation.

Administration and parents are immediate stakeholders in educational institutes. Their intervention for different motives is significant and affects the pedagogy. Responding to the queries about administrative and parental pressures affecting the teaching, the respondents’ views were as under.

T6 said, “During last six years here of my teaching, it has been neither administration nor parents to ask me about teaching methodology or completing the syllabus or whatever.”

T7 said, “This college is well reputed in Sindh province but I haven’t felt any such pressure throughout my teaching here for last above ten years. To me teaching is the prior concern of the teacher. Administrative and parental role comes afterwards.”

T9 said, “No pressure of any kind. This is not a private college where the parents pressurize the administration and it pressurizes the teachers to work to the parents’ satisfaction. Once a year, the fathers of few students come to enquire about their progress.”

Observer said, “It has really seemed neither the college administration nor parents’ role playing their active part for achieving required annual results as happens at private colleges. Both appear to be least concerned to this.”

It is clearly shown in extracts that the private education has a different mechanism than the public education. A government college teacher enjoys much teaching liberty. The principal of the college hardly enquires the teaching staff about the academic progress because the parents’ role is almost divested from the academics and administration of the college. This attitude has let the college functionaries dwindle in function. These findings are explicitly opposite to the findings in prior research on ‘how administration and parents exert pressure on teacher’; but implicitly, these findings also smell harmonizing with what causes negative washback elucidated in same literature review.

6. Discussion

Focusing on the first research question of this study, the findings generate a thought that the teachers do not deliberately switch over to the practice of bypassing syllabus. It is not due to question paper but there are some other factors that behoove the teachers to curtail the syllabus. One teacher (T7) seems entirely outstanding from the rest. To him, teaching seems for the extensive learning, not a piece meal affair. Despite the internal and external matters faced by the majority teachers including T7, he manages to complete the syllabus timely and successfully. He appears to be supporting his teaching with the past question papers; the teaching task of such teacher enhances, no doubt, but benefits the learner. And only such dedicated teacher is honoured as an inducing factor for positive washback unlike his colleagues who were found to be inducing the negative washback. This comparative analysis integrates Alderson and Wall's (1990) qualitative findings in British Columbia pertaining to the role of the teacher in washback. According to them, owing to certain reasons the teachers were found responsible for non-academic practices like narrowing down syllabus to subsequently cause an unhealthy effect upon curriculum or educational goals of education. Vernon (ibid.) has strongly disapproved 'syllabus curtailment' and dubbed it as distorting the curriculum. The negative washback is broadly indicated and the positive washback is partially indicated by the findings on the question number one.

About the second research question, something distinctive that T6 has shared is that the question papers impact the pedagogy in private colleges, not in public colleges. His views are valuable and plausible in the context that affording parents often send their children to private institutes for various reasons; and one cogent reason is exam-oriented pedagogy at such institutes to bring higher results. Therefore, this enables to deduce the conclusion that the past question papers never impact the pedagogy at Government colleges in Sindh province. And in this aspect of teaching, the teacher is not an inducing factor of negative washback. The findings further latently indicate that there is a reason for not "teaching to the test" and that is the academics at the government colleges in Sindh looks an ignored phenomenon by the immediate and higher administration. The guardians put their wards in the college and never pursue further for whole year. The concerned department has no concern for the educational progress or annual results of the students. That's why the examination does not impact the teaching methodology; and only in

such context, the teacher shows to be an inducing factor seemingly for positive washback but actually negative in results.

Concerning the third research question, it is the majority of lower middle class and lower class parents enroll their children to the public colleges. Mostly being poorly educated and trained, the parents never bother to know the academic progress of their children. Therefore, the teacher never feels pressurized. Often, the teachers at Cadet Colleges and private colleges have left to join public colleges because of freedom of action. The above views demonstrate that washback really varies from situation to situation. According to the requirement, it may sound a positive washback but ‘no pressure’ environment; even administrative, is liable to distracting the teacher causing the negative washback. And my observation supports this implicit dimension of negative washback.

7. Conclusion

This qualitative study on teacher as an inducing factor of positive washback included 10 teacher participants. The participants represented their subjects mostly science subjects and shared their valuable views. Their views were recorded, transcribed, coded and thematically analyzed in the light of three research questions. The findings were similar as well as opposite to certain washback research discussed in literature review. The questions number two and three decidedly gathered conclusion that the teacher is an inducing factor of seemingly positive washback that is negative in intension. The question number one gathered conclusion that the chunk of teachers are inducing factor of negative washback whereas the slice of the teachers are inducing factors of positive washback. These findings seem to largely establish the true pedagogic picture of the teachers at the government colleges in Sindh. But the fact remains intact that washback direction varies from situation to situation and that’s why Alderson and Wall (1993) call it a “complex phenomenon”.

Key Term:

Negatively Positive Washback: A washback that is apparently positive but actually damaging the educational goals.

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Acquisition of Verbal Morphology in Manipuri-speaking Children

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Abstract

This research work has been carried out to study the acquisition of Manipuri verb morphology in monolingual children who are in the age range of 2 to 4. The study can thus reveal the actual developmental stages of acquisition of verb morphology across the years of acquisition. The study of the acquisition of verb inflection in Manipuri has also helped in explaining the nature of syntactic development, as the verb in Manipuri carries syntactic load of a sentence since verb inflection, basically, deals with tense and aspect, phi-features and mood.

Key words: Tense, Aspect, Verb, Acquisition, Verbal Morphology, Manipuri

1. Introduction

The present research work seeks to study the acquisition of verb morphology in Manipuri monolingual children. The study has examined 25 verb lemmas and has covered the acquisition of verb morphology by Manipuri children within the age group of 2 to 4 years old. Lemma is the term assigned to the abstract base of a lexical entry (lexeme), i.e. to the correlation of (specific) lexical meaning with (specific) phonological material, which creates the lexical sign (Bittner et al. 2003).

Although acquisition of verb morphology has fascinated many researchers, such an attempt has not been made in Manipuri language so far. The reason why this study is necessary is because it can reveal the actual unfolding of the acquisition of verb morphology in the early age group of children. Moreover, acquisition of verb morphology in Manipuri will also offer an insight into the nature of tense and aspect as they emerge in acquisition of Manipuri. This implies that study of the acquisition of verb inflection in Manipuri will also explain the nature of syntactic development, as the verb in Manipuri in as much as it tends to carry the syntactic load of a sentence. The verb inflection, in general, deals with tense and

aspect, phi-features and mood. The present work thus explores the nature and function of each of these properties of the verb in Manipuri.

2. Theoretical Background

Different models have been used to study the acquisitional process of verbal morphology. One such model is seen in Bowerman (1976), Langacker (1988), Bybee (1985, 1995), Tomasello (2000 a). Many studies (Karpf, 1991; Dressler and Karpf, 1995) propose a model of self-organisation of developing systems. Such a model envisages a distinction between prototypical and non-prototypical morphology (Dressler and Barbaresi, 1994). The two most important principles of this model are pattern selection and self-organisation. *Pattern selection* means that the child tends to select some forms in some contexts on the basis of token frequency (the occurrence of any form of a lemma is counted as a single token) and saliency (Bates and Mac Whinney, 1987), whereas self-organisation means that children do not merely imitate the input but construct a pattern on their own in reaction to the input. Dressler and Karpf (1995) propose that morphological acquisition can be divided into three main phases of premorphology, protomorphology and morphology proper as under:

1. The premorphological phase can be considered as the phase before the detection of grammatical morphology.
2. The protomorphological phase is the stage where children detect and reconstruct their own morphological patterns of first rules.
3. The morphology proper phase is the last phase in acquisition of verb morphology and manifests a qualitative rise in the child's system of verb inflection, if not quantitatively towards the adult systems.

3. Methodology

The proposed study aims to examine the acquisition of verb morphology in Manipuri through these three phases. For this study the spontaneous speech of monolingual 20 Manipuri-speaking children in the data of the age range of 2 to 4 was collected. Each group consists of 10 children irrespective of the gender of the child. Video recordings were made for 2 to 3 hours a month in everyday situations at the homes of the children to ensure play or natural situation of an action like reading picture books, which are familiar to them. The

recordings also focus on the interactions between the children and their family members, and also while they interact with their peer groups.

Like any Tibeto-Burman language, Manipuri tense system seems to denote time in terms of future and non-future. This means that adverbials play a very important role telling the time. As far as aspect is concerned, Manipuri, unlike many languages, does not show clear aspectual distinctions. It can be roughly divided into imperfect and perfect aspects. Imperfect aspect includes simple present and future; present, and past continuous; future perfect; present, past and future perfect continuous. Given the inflectional system of Manipuri, the research work looks at the language of children within the age group of 2-4 years of age with special attention to the inflectional markers:

- 1.-*i/li* present tense marker
- 2.-*re/le* perfect aspect marker
- 3.-*ri/li* continuous marker
- 4.-*kani/gani* future tense marker
- 5.-*o/ro/lo* imperative mood marker

4. Tense and Aspect in Manipuri

Thoudam (2006), in his book ‘Problems in Analysis of Manipuri language’, discusses the problems faced by scholars in segmenting the tense system of Manipuri language. According to him, the established approaches cannot be used to analyze Manipuri tense system because “time is universal and tense is grammatical”. Thus, the time at which certain action has been performed or has remained incomplete seems to be the crucial point for analyzing the tenses of Manipuri. He further says that there is a misconception about the tense and tense logic in the language. Many scholars refer that there will be no language on earth which has no tense distinction. Such statements are fallacious and cannot be relied upon. The scholars who propose strong statement about the properties of human language seem to be confused about *time* with *tense*. It seems that they have a misconception of the subject-matter. We know that time is universal and *tense is grammatical*. It is for this reason

that we say that *Time is grammatically marked for Tense*. Therefore, tense must have markers. It should also be noted that in this languages there are cases where the past and future tense markers of those scholars who claim that there is tense are found attached to the same root.

Tense in Tibeto-Burman languages, in general, is not so distinct as it is in languages like English, Hindi, Sanskrit, etc. Tense in this language is not so clear. Thus, we feel that it must be analyzed in a different way. In the precise words of Comrie (1985a), 'tense is grammaticalized expression of location of time'. we can look at a particular form in a language noun or verb inflections, relativization processes ways to mark the anaphoric expression etc. and determine whether or not each of these form some grammatical system of the categorical distinction in the language. It is because of such manifestation of the grammatical categories that the researchers have to be careful and should not use any blanket-rule without a meticulous and careful analysis of the categorical entity of the language. it is the time, tense and aspect in Manipuri that needs a very careful analysis. And while doing so, we should not be carried away by the existing approach or analysis available for other surrounding languages such as English, Hindi etc.

4.1. Manipuri Verbal System

Manipuri belongs to the Tibeto-Burman language group. It is a verb final language. It seems that *be* verb is absent in some sentences. This is why it seems that the tense markers appear with the adjective.

1 Adjective (predicative)

tombi	phəjə	-i
tombi	beautiful	pres

'Tombi is beautiful'.

2 Verb

caoba	tum	-i
chaoba	sleep	pres

'Chaoba sleeps'.

It will be interesting to examine when such an inherent distinction between adjectives and verbs emerges in child language and at what stages in language acquisition do verbs and adjectives show corresponding inflection.

Another important feature, we can mention here about the tense and aspect in Manipuri is that the language has a tendency to shorten forms by deleting some of the constituent particles (Thoudam, 2006). This is one of the key areas and we need to examine this feature of the language carefully. For example $\chi A\gamma\leftrightarrow\nu l$ is the shortened form of the phrase, $\chi A\gamma\epsilon \eta A\psi\beta\leftrightarrow\nu l$. Here $\chi A\gamma\epsilon \eta A\psi\beta\leftrightarrow$ functions as a noun phrase and it cannot be separated.

In Manipuri, distribution of the infinitive marker is phonologically conditioned. The infinitive form of the verb occurs with the marker ‘-pə’, if the preceding sound is voiceless (i.e. ‘cət-pə’ ‘to go’, ‘kək-pə’ ‘to cut’); or ‘-bə’ if the preceding sound is a voiced one (i.e. ‘cen-bə’ ‘to run’, ‘yeŋ-bə’ ‘to look’). The finite form will occur with other tense and aspect markers. The study also seeks to examine the acquisition of verbs in different TAM (tense, aspect and mood). This is very important and this will help to analyze and document the development of inflection during different stages of language development.

4.2. Tense System

Like any Tibeto-Burman language, Manipuri tense system seems to denote the reference of time in terms of future and non-future. This means that the adverbials play a very important role in telling the time. Traditional Manipuri grammarians have held firmly that Manipuri has three tense – present, past, and future; each of which is again classified into four different aspects accordingly to the way(s) or process(es) the action is done in these tenses– indefinite, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous.

Example:

Present Tense

- | | | | | | | |
|----|------|-------|--------|-----|-----|-----|
| 3. | rozi | ŋəsi | bəzar | -də | cət | -li |
| | rozi | Today | market | loc | go | asp |
- Lit: ‘Rozi goes to the market today’. ‘Rozi went to the market today’.

Past Tense

4. rozi ηəraŋ bəzar -də cət -li
rozi yesterday Market loc go asp
'Rozi went to the market yesterday'.

Future Tense

5. rozi (həyeŋ) bəzar -də -kəni
rozi tomorrow market loc fut
'Rozi will go to the market tomorrow'.

In the sentences (3) and (4), the verbs along with the morphemes do not exhibit any difference with regard to tense. It is the adverbials 'ηəsi', 'today' and 'ηəraŋ', 'yesterday' in sentences (3) and (4) respectively, which mark the differences in the meaning of the tenses, in the sentences. In the sentence (5), the adverbial tomorrow is optional, because the future tense marker '-kəni' denotes the time reference clearly. In the case of present tense and past tense, putting an adverbial is essential to denote the time of action or event. Thus, it is certain that the classification of tenses e.g. present, past, and future by trying to decode them from the morphological marker, is not found in Manipuri. Some more examples are given below to look at the system closely.

6. bHarat ca thək -kH -i
bharat tea Drink def asp
'Bharat has taken tea (very definite)'.

7. bHarat ca thək -l↔m -i
bharat tea drink im.pst asp

'Bharat has taken tea (Completed already)'.

8. bharat ca thək -l↔m -gəni
bharat tea drink im.pst Fut
'Bharat may have taken tea (but not sure)'.

In the sentence (6) given above, the suffix '-kH' indicates 'definite-action-complete (just like the action was witnessed by the speaker). Another suffix '-ləm/-rəm' in (7) denotes 'action already completed' (remote completion of the action) but it ('-ləm'/'-rəm') cannot be an ending in a sentence. The co-occurrence of -ləm and '-gəni' ('-kəni') indicate 'doubt of an action'.

4.2.1. Aspect

Manipuri, unlike many languages, does not show clear aspectual distinctions. It can be roughly divided into imperfect and perfect aspects. Imperfect aspect includes ‘present and ‘future’; present, past and future continuous; while the perfect aspect includes present, past and future perfect and the past simple. Perfective aspect is the aspect that deals with a completed action. Perfect aspect includes the actions that are completed in present, past, and future time (includes present, past and future perfect). It, however, also seems to include the past indefinite and since the action referred in this aspect is completed one; it is marked as perfect aspect.

4.2.1.1. Present and Past Tense

Present Indefinite (Simple) Aspect

It expresses simple statement, habitual meaning and universal truth. The markers ‘-i’, and ‘-li’ are allomorphs. We would like to mention this point for the sake of clarity here that in Manipuri only a few consonants can occur in word final position. These consonants are [p], [t], [k], [m], [n], [l], and [ŋ] (Singh, 2000, Chapter II, 13). The marker ‘-i’ occurs if the preceding sound is a vowel or the sounds [p], [k], [m], and [ŋ]. The allomorph ‘-li’ occurs if the preceding sound is [t], [n], and [l]. For example:

Universal Truths

9. numit -nə noŋpok -tə ta -i
sun Nom West loc set Asp
‘The sun sets in the west’.

Habitual

10. məhak gitar khoŋ -i
he guitar play asp
‘He plays guitar’.

Present Simple

- 11 nəŋ bəzar -də cət -li
You market Loc go asp
‘You go to the market’.

Continuous (Progressive) Aspect

The continuous aspect is indicated by ‘-ri/-li’ (‘-ri’ occurs after vowels while ‘-li’ occurs after consonants) in Manipuri. In other words it expresses the action that is in progression at the time of speaking.

Present Continuous

12. əi phi su -ri
I Clothes wash prog
‘I am washing clothes’.
13. məkhoi wari ta -ri
they story listen prog
‘They are listening to a story’.

Past Continuous

If the time reference changes and some action is referred to be described as being in continuation in the past-time and thus not at the time of speaking, it would bring the continuous event in the past tense in Manipuri as given below:

14. əikhoi (ηəran) lai yek -li
we yesterday picture painting Prog
‘Yesterday, we were painting a picture’.

Future Continuous

Moreover, the future continuous tense will be shown in Manipuri if the time reference is changed for some action that will be in continuation in the future-time and thus the time that will follow after the time of speaking. For example:

15. məkhoi (həyeη) lai yek -kəni
they tomorrow picture painting fut.
‘They will be painting a picture tomorrow’.

Perfect Aspect

Perfect tense indicates an action, which has definitely been completed at the time of speaking. If we try equating the simple past tense on the basis of aforementioned explanation of the completion of the event/action, we would say that the simple past tense too indicates an action that has already taken place. The perfect tense in Manipuri is denoted by the suffix ‘-

re/-le’ (depending on the sound that precedes the marker, i.e., ‘-re’ will occur after any vowel and ‘-le’ will occur after consonants).

16. rina lairik ədu Pa -re
rina Book def read perf
‘Rina has read the book’.
17. haudoŋ -nə uci -bu hat -le
Cat nom rat acc kill perf
‘The cat has killed the rat’.

Past Simple

18. əi N↔raN tu (-kh) -i
I yesterday run def asp
‘I fell yesterday (completed action)’.

Other suffixes ‘-kh’ and ‘-re’ together indicate certainty of the completion of an action in Manipuri. We, however, must mention that ‘-kh’ is optional unless we want to emphasize that the action is definitely completed. For example:

19. m↔hak cithi tha (-kh) -re
he letter send def perf
‘He has sent the letter’.

In the sentence (19) given above, the speaker is sure about the action being complete. Semantically, ‘-re/-le’ and ‘-kh’ and ‘-re’ are different, which will be a little clear after considering the two sentences given below.

20. ↔NaN skul -d↔ c↔t -le
child School loc go perf
‘The child has started going to school’.
21. ↔NaN skul -d↔ c↔t (-kh) -re
child school loc go def perf
‘The child has gone to school’.

As we can see in sentence (21) that the child has gone to school, and is not present at home at the moment. This aspect marker ‘-re/-le’ can also be used in a very specific situation, like reporting an action that is a completed action or informing of departure/absence of someone/something in the place where the speech is taking place.

For example:

22 m↔hak ↔si dukan -d↔ c↔t -le
He that shop loc go perf
'He has gone to that shop'.

23 ↔i c↔t -le
I go perf
'I am leaving'. Lit: 'I have left'.

We can see in sentence (22) that during a conversation between A and B about a certain person C, A sees C going to a particular shop, and then informing B that this person C is going there. Sentence (23) is used in the context of taking leave, saying at the time of departure, informing 'I am leaving' or 'I have left'.

4.2.1.2. Future Tense

Future tense can be described as an action/situation that may happen after the point of speaking on the time scale. In other words, this refers to the point of reference of action in time that would take place after the moment of speaking or after the present moment. This implies that the action has not taken place yet, and thus, it is unrealized. The aspect marker '-k↔ni/-g↔ni' is used to denote the future tense in Manipuri. The phonological conditioning is that '-k↔ni' occurs after a voiceless sound, while '-g↔ni' occurs after a voiced sound.

24 ↔i pot yom -g↔ni
I thing pack fut
'I will pack the things'.

25 sunita kolej -d↔ lak -k↔ni
sunita college loc Come fut
'Sunita will come to the college'.

If we examine the above two sentences (24) and (25), it becomes clearer that '-k↔ni/-g↔ni' is used for an unrealized action in future time. It will be very interesting to examine the acquisition of such phenomena of tense and aspect in Manipuri-speaking children.

4.2.2. Mood

As far as the mood as a grammatical category is concerned, imperative mood seems to be marked very clearly in Manipuri. It is of two types namely, command and respect.

Command forms are ‘-u/-ru/-lu’ or ‘-o/-ro/-lo’.

26. O lairik pa -ro
 pro book read comd
 ‘(you) read the book.’

Request forms are ‘-pi/-bi’ and they are used along with command markers.

27. ca -bi -yu
 eat hon comd
 ‘Kindly eat or Please eat.’

These two types of mood are relevant for the present study because they seem appear in children’s speech and are morphologically marked.

5. Data and the Analysis

The data has been collected after grouping the 20 subjects into two age groups namely 2-3 years of age and 3-4 years of age groups. As mentioned in the previous section each group comprises of 10 children.

NAME	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
I/li	10	2.80	.919	1	4
Ri/li	10	2.20	.632	1	3
Re/le	10	2.30	.675	1	3
K↔ni/g↔ni	10	1.70	.483	1	2
O/yo	10	2.50	.707	1	3

Table 1: Descriptive statistical scores of inflection in Group 1.

NAME	N	MEAN	STD. DEV.	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
i/li	10	4.60	.966	4	6
ri/li	10	3.50	.850	2	5
re/le	10	3.80	.919	2	5
k↔ni/g↔ni	10	2.60	.699	2	4
o/yo	10	4.30	.949	3	6

Table 2: Descriptive statistical scores of inflection in Group 2.

Correlation Matrix

	-i/-li	-ri/-li	-re/-le	-kani/-gani	-o/-yo
-i/-li	1.000				
-ri/-li	.650	1.000			
-re/-le	.645	.364	1.000		
k↔ni/g↔ni	.688	.667	.781	1.000	
-o/-yo	.047	-.408	.383	.000	1.000

Table 3: Correlation matrix of Group 1.

	-i/-li	-ri/-li	-re/-le	-kani/-gani	-o/-yo
-i/-li	1.000				
-ri/-li	.000	1.000			
-re/-le	-.476	.142	1.000		
k↔ni/g↔ni	.395	.187	-.138	1.000	

-o/-yo	.024	.620	.586	.369	1.000
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Table 4: Correlation matrix of Group 2.

Group 1-Group 2

Variable	Mean (x1)	Std. Dev.	T-value	Mean (x2)	Std. Dev.	Probability
i/li	2.80	.919	4.2691	4.60	.966	
ri/li	2.20	.632	3.8812	3.50	.850	
re/le	2.30	.675	4.1600	3.80	.919	
k↔ni/g↔ni	1.50	.527	3.9736	2.60	.699	
o/yo	2.50	.707	4.8099	4.30	.949	

Table 5: Descriptive Comparative Statistical Score of Group 1 and Group 2

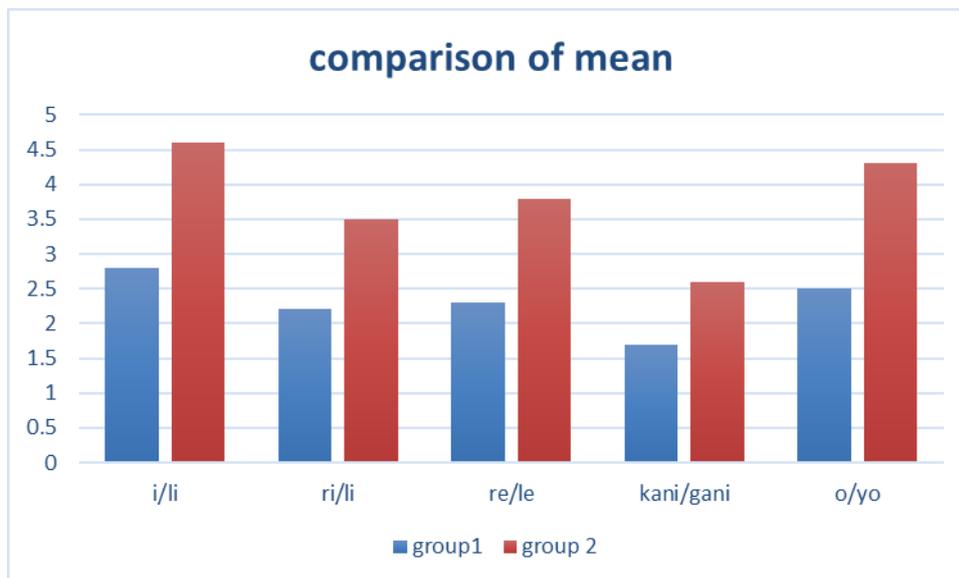


Fig.1. Comparative histogram of the means of the two age groups for all the variables.

The fifth section presents a cross-sectional analysis of the data in the two age groups that have been selected for the work. The first part of this paper deals with the structures of tense and aspect system of Manipuri. The descriptive statistical data have been provided in different tables. The first two tables depict increase in the use of inflectional markers as the

age increases. The hypothesis postulated by Karpf, (1991) and Dressler and Karpf, (1995), that children tend to select some forms in some contexts on the basis of token frequency (the occurrence of any form of a lemma is counted as a single token) and saliency (Bates and MacWhinney, 1987) have been found attestable as similar reasons seem to dominate the patterns of acquisition in Manipuri too. Another assumption of this approach is self-organization, which means that children do not merely imitate the input but construct a pattern on their own in reaction to the input. The statistical scores in the two tables show that the present tense marker ‘-i/-li’ is the most consistent marker in all the age groups of children followed by the imperative marker ‘-o/-ro/-lo’, which is then followed by the perfect aspect marker ‘-re/-le’. This consistent pattern is evident in all the age groups with an increase of use along the line of the increase of the age. The study, thus show that inflectional markers are expected to appear in following order:

‘-i/-li’ > ‘-o/-ro/-lo’ > ‘-re/-le’ > ‘-ri/-li’ > ‘-k↔ni/-g↔ni’.

This developmental trend is evident when we look at the complete statistical scores of the two age groups. Among the five inflectional markers under investigation, the present tense marker –i/-li seems to be the most frequently used maker as compared to the other markers. The future tense marker –k↔ni/-g↔ni is the least frequent variable. The reason for the present tense marker being the most frequent marker across the age group is also because the marker –i/-li is the most productive one. The only difference in the data of the two age groups is that there is an increase in the use of the variables with the increase in age. The trend, is moreover, is maintained across all the two age groups.

The details of the t-test results are given in the table 5. This test is carried out to obtain the computed t value for all the inflectional markers and then to find out the significance of the difference of means in the three groups. In reference to the tabulated t at degree of freedom 18 for P=0.05, the computed t-value for the age groups 1 and 2 are significant. The reason behind this result is that owing to the wide age gaps between group 1 and 2 the computed-t shows significant development in terms of the acquisition of inflectional marker in Manipuri. Another noticeable difference is that the tabulated-t value is more with regard to the inflectional markers ‘-ri/-li’ ‘-re/-le’, and ‘-k↔ni/-g↔ni’, in comparisons to other variables.

Correlation coefficient was also calculated to establish the correlation between the acquisitions of the five inflectional markers in Manipuri. When we look at the first group, we have observed an interesting trend in terms of correlation co-efficient. The highest correlation in this group is between *'-re/-le'* and *'-k↔ni/-g↔ni'*, which means that if the perfect marker *'-re/-le'* is acquired then the future tense maker will also emerge in the child's speech. Similar relation is seen between the variables *'-i/-li'* and *'-ri/-li'*, *'-i/li'* and *'-re/-le'* and *'-i/-li'* and *'-k↔ni/-g↔ni'*, and *'-ri/-li'* and *'-k↔ni/-g↔ni'*. The only negative correlation that is found in this age group is between the variables *'-ri/-li'* and *'-o/-ro/-lo'*, which implies that acquisition of one will hamper the development of the other. This shows an inverse relation between the two variables, which implies that if the progressive marker *'-ri/-li'* is acquired first then the imperative marker *'-o/-ro/-lo'* will not be acquired and vice versa.

For the second group, the highest positive correlation is found between the variables *'-ri/-li'* and *'-o/-ro/-lo'*. Such a correlation is also there between the variables *'-re/-le'* and *'-o/-ro/-lo'* and *'-k↔ni/-g↔ni'* and *'-o/-ro/-lo'*. Unlike, the first group, the second group shows negative correlation that has been between *'-i/-li'* and *'-re/-le'* and *'-re/-le'* and *'-k↔ni/-g↔ni'*.

Apart from these tables, the MEAN of the five variables obtained for the two groups are represented in the form of histograms. As mentioned earlier, the y-axis indicates the means of respective age group and the three groups are given on the x-axis. An observation of these figures shows a gradual increase in the use of the inflectional markers along with the increase in age. A noticeable increase in the use of the future tense maker is found in children within the age group of 3 to 4 as compared to the children in the first group. The future tense is treated more like an 'unrealized' aspect, and due to the mentioned typical nature of this variable the children in the early age group do not really use it that frequently.

5. Conclusion

It is evident from the data that have been collected that children of the first group are already in the proto-morphology stage where some inflectional markers have clearly emerged. The qualitative and slight quantitative improvement can be seen in the second age group. This is why they are in the morphology proper stage, where their speech is like that of the adult form. Taking these stages forward, an increase in quality and quantity can be expected from older children where we may find the target structures in further research.

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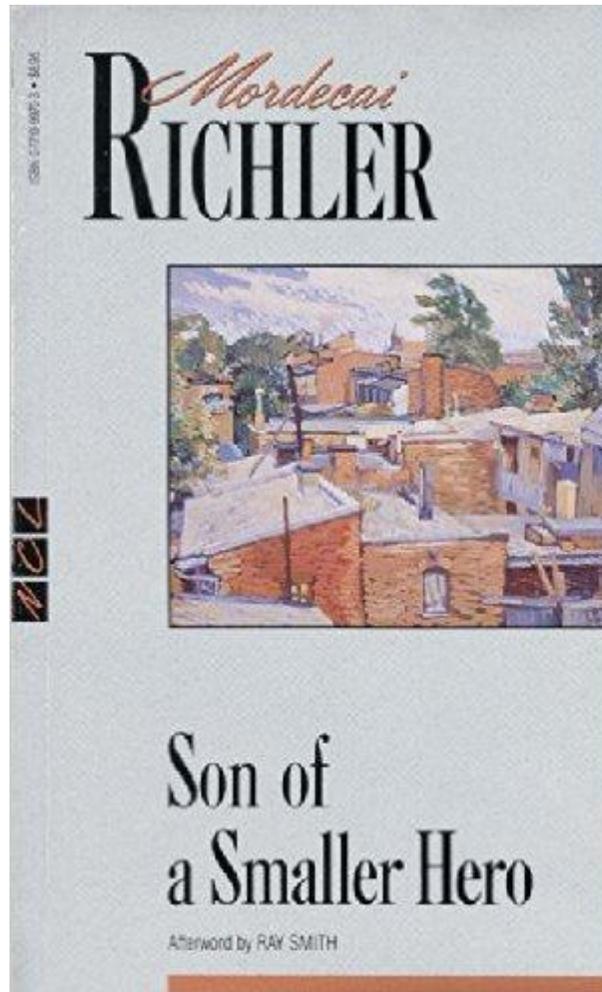
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**In Search of Identity & Freedom:
A Critical Study of Mordecai Richler's *Son of a Smaller Hero* and
Anita Desai's *Cry the Peacock***

Shyjee. P. V. and Dr. P. Selvam

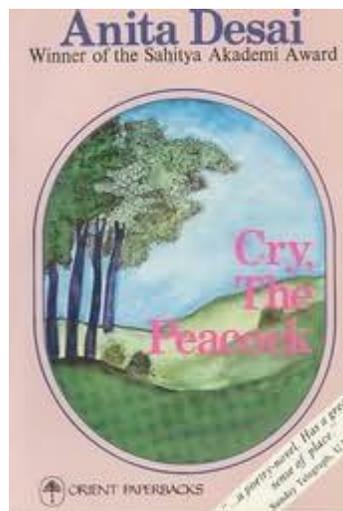


Abstract

Mordecai Richler is a Jewish Canadian writer. His second novel *Son of a Smaller Hero* deals with Noah who tries to reject members of the family whom he resembles physically but not psychologically to find himself he see through them and replace their false values with his own definite values. *Cry the Peacock* is Anita Desai's first novel; it explores the inner world of Maya

and demonstrates her fear insecurity and strange behavior. Through her, she depicts a world of alienation, loneliness and suffering. Noah and Maya strive to escape from the tradition. Maya's husband Gautama represents the voice of patriarchy while Noah's grandfather Melech represents pluralism who strives to retain the Jewish culture in a foreign country, Canada. This paper focuses on the change in the identity of a character when they strive to move away from the traditional concept.

Key words: Identity crisis, pluralism, alienation, Mordecai Richler, *Son of a Smaller Hero*, Anita Desai, *Cry the Peacock*



Noah's Problems

This paper focuses on the identity of the character Noah in Richler's *Son of a Smaller Hero*. Noah's search for freedom was ignited because he lacked the love by his family and society due to his habit of drinking. Alcohol is unacceptable in Jewish society. The problem of alcoholism is not only a personal problem; rather it disturbs their whole society. He was considered to be a black mark on their family Noah was hurt by hearing the conversation, "If you do things like that you will grow up like Noah" (SH 33). His isolation increased when "At weddings and barmitzahs voices were lowered when Noah joined the group" (SH 33) it is always the strange rules of the family that forced Noah to seek freedom. The family member could ask him "C'mon, have a drink" (SH 33). They didn't drink with him but watched

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approvingly. He offered to take their children to the circus or for walks on the mountain. They declined “What? A guy who drinks like you”(SH 33). Noah feels lost in his own family “I am sorry I think its freedom that I want. I – I no longer have any rules to refer to the way u had’’. Noah reveals to Melech that rather than the Jewish concept his relation is based on money. When Melech remarks that “I wanted you to be somebody. Something. Something not like them. All there is for them is money.” “But, Zeyda, if money doesn’t worry you, why don’t u make my father a partner” (SH 34,35). Noah in this way makes clear to Melech that his attitude was money minded.

Trapped in Traditions

Richler’s Noah gets trapped in the shackles of Jewish tradition. Anita Desai’s Maya unknowingly gets trapped in the fear of death revealed through an astrologer who prophesied about the death of any one of them in the fourth year of marital life.

The society in which Noah lived gave importance to tradition and culture which he was not supposed to break. Whenever he attempted to do so he was alienated.

Maya was in search of love. She lacked the love of Gautama. She makes the concept clear by asking him, “Why the cases are filed in the courts were for money, property and never for love, life, etc.” Maya tried to escape from the reality of life. Richler’s Noah tried to escape from the tradition of Jews. The cry of Noah is for developing the personality that he feels is bound in the Jewish culture. The cry of Maya is for understanding her own personality that is insecure similar to the birds in the trees that became exposed to the people due to the shedding down of leaves.

Individuals Who Resisted Constraints

Noah and Maya are the representatives of the individuals who tried to remain away from the constraints. They find the culture to be a barrier in their way. Indian culture established on patriarchal society that leaves Maya as sheer toy in the hands of her father who fulfilled all her desires, who provided everything to his daughter but failed in opting an apt life partner for her

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she got married to a person twice of her age “How little he knows of her misery or how to comfort me. 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, the blue flashing veins that ran under...” (CP 9) Maya got a husband who fulfilled her materialistic need but couldn't ever fill her lust for love. She remained marginalised based on her gender representing an Indian woman who had to remain mere a household wife with all the luxuries. She is the voice of the women of Indian society who remained mere an article of pride with their presence. Nobody cares for their feelings but require the presence as per their own requirement. Gautama wanted her to be happy but he loved his job rather than his companionship with Maya.

Enforced Authority and Resistance to It

Richler's Melech, grandfather of Noah feels that his world is slipping away. The respect Melech expects is not being received. He speaks to his wife Leah “I work hard I work hard for them. I am not a thief. I work hard. You work hard. He should respect me.” (SH 19) Just as Noah tries to escape from the tradition in the same way Leah and Melech feel that they are not able to engage their younger generation in their religion and tradition as they are not in their native land “We are old this ain't our country, Melech. Here they grow away from us.” (SH 19) In such circumstance also Melech wishes to establish authority over his family. Melech remarks “This is my house and I am the boss. I am his grandfather I tell you” (SH 21). The tendency to deviate from a tradition or culture arises only when the authority is imposed in a strict manner. He is alienated by his family “you are no longer welcome here .Understand? Finished? ... Can't you see how everything is falling apart around you? Your sons are Canadians.” (SH 34) It is the patriarchy that led to Maya's dissatisfied life. She confronts reality as multiple and subjective.

The Problem of Identity

The important problem of present era is the problem of identity that arouses as the individual passes through a severe crisis. Earlier the identity was fixed. Rejecting the shackles of tradition was a step forward towards human emancipation. Richler's Noah ‘a passionate, ruthlessly idealistic young man finds tradition in league with self-delusion; he attempts to shatter the ghetto's illusory walls by entering the foreign territory of the goyim’. While Maya in *Cry the*

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Peacock get obsessed by a childhood prophecy of disaster and remains in a world created by herself of fear and insecurity.

Celebration of Disintegration

Identity has become an issue in the present age. The individuals, rather than striving for recognition, celebrate disintegration presenting themselves in the multicultural society as salad bowls. The protagonists of both the novels celebrate their disintegration. Maya's frustration stimulates her to kill Gautama who fails to impart the affection and love she expected. Noah leaves his home and moves to Europe proving the concept 'Each man creates God in his own image. Melech's God, who was stern sometimes just and always without mercy, would reward him and punish the boy' (SH 36). Noah shifts to Europe because of his quench for new culture away from his own tradition that he feels won't leave him. The individuality is celebrated.

No Escape from Traditional Culture?

Maya doesn't make an attempt to come out of her utopian world and always feels that she is not taken care of by Gautama. Her search for freedom and identity continues in her own realm where she tries to destroy his enemy and remain in paranoia. Noah's search for identity continues, he leaves his native land and finds a *goyim*, Miriam, but in his individualistic attempt he couldn't stick to her and feels that even if he wanders in a foreign land, his traditional culture moves along with him which doesn't allow him to get immersed in the alien culture, leaving his personality a trace of mosaic culture. True to the modern concept the world is created by oneself in the way how a person approaches it.

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Learners' Autonomy in Learning English in Context of Higher Secondary Level Education in Nepal

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to investigate the level of autonomy of learners of higher secondary level education in Nepal regarding their gender, nature of institution, medium of instruction and stream. The subject of this study comprises 552 learners from 22 higher secondary school of academic session 2015/6 whom a questionnaire with a 5-point likert scale was administered. The data obtained were analyzed using mean, Mann-Whitney U-test and Kruskal Wallis H-test of non-parametric test. In the result, the learners' level of autonomy in learning English was found moderate ($M = 3.1078$). Regarding the gender, the female students were found statistically significantly highly less autonomous than male students. However, there was not statistically significantly different in the level of autonomy of the government and private ELT students in learning English. But, Nepali medium ELT students were found statistically significantly highly less autonomous than English medium ELT students. Similarly, the result showed the significant different of ELT students' level of autonomy between the different streams, $\chi^2(3) = 11.476, p = .009$ with a mean rank of 17.50 for science, 291.65 for management, 242.23 for humanities and 259.05 for education stream. Pedagogical implication was made while concluding the study.

Keywords: ELT students; Learner autonomy; higher secondary level

1. Introduction

Autonomy refers to the “learners’ capacity to make decision in their learning” (Smith, 2008, p. 396). In other words, it is a learners’ ability to take action and make decision in their learning without the control of other and a successful learner is one who is highly autonomous. There is a substantial body of literature carried out in learner autonomy in learning English for several decades. However, relatively few studies have attempted to show the learners’ level of autonomy regarding the multiple variable like gender, medium of instruction, nature of institution where they read, faculties etc. No research has been carried out in revealing learners’ autonomy in context of higher secondary level education of Nepal especially in the marginalized area of Bara district. Hence, the objective of this study is to accomplish the task of investigating the ELT learners’ autonomy level in terms of aforementioned strata and to provide insights into language pedagogy.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy refers to the “capacity of the learner as well as a pedagogical goal” (Schwienhorst, 2008, p. 9). It is the “students’ taking more control over and having more responsibility for their own language learning process” (Yildirim, 2012, p. 19). Although it was traditionally associated with individualism, communicative point of view regards language learning as a process of interaction and hence autonomy is realized as the interdependence rather than individualism (Aoki, 1999). It is “a complex, socio-cognitive system manifested in different degrees of independence and control of one’s own learning process involving capacities abilities, attitudes, willingness, decision making, choices planning, actions and assessment” (Chitashvili, 2007, p. 17). It is the learners’ ability to take charge of learning holding all sort of responsibility for decision making concerning all aspects regarding their learning like “determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used monitoring the procedure of acquisitions properly and evaluation of what has been acquired” (Holec, as cited in Little, 2000, pp. 30-31). It involves all the management tasks concerned with

learning regarding the learners' awareness of gaining own styles and strategies and their utilization in learning language (Benson, as cited in Farrell & Jacobs, 2010). The aforementioned definition "emphasizes the transfer of responsibility for learning to the learner from teacher to let learner gain a greater degree of active involvement and better learning" (Kocak, 2003, p. 19). Autonomy is of two types namely proactive referring to one's initiative in formulating directions and reflective which "enables learners to organize resources autonomously in order reach their goal" (Littlewood, as cited in Chan, 2015, p. 148).

2.2 Theoretical Background of Autonomy

Learner autonomy stems from the philosophical foundation of humanism, constructivism and experimental learning according to which learners are placed in centre in learning making them active engagement in the interactive learning encouraging them for the management of their learning taking all sort of responsibility (Kocak, 2003). Constructivism views that learners are capable of having "a more memorable and effective learning if they take control of it and if they can adapt it according to their needs and expectation" (Leon, 2010, p. 289). Autonomy is grounded on the principles of empowerment, reflection and appropriate target language use (Little, 2010). This means, autonomous learners take their own "responsibility for their learning and possess the capacity to reflect on the content and process of learning with a view to bringing them as far as possible under conscious control" (Little, as cited in Benson, 2013, p. 188). Reflection plays an important role in "allowing learners to feel responsibility for their own learning as well" (Tokunaga, 2009, p. 344). Autonomous language learners are "in control of important dimensions of their learning" (Benson, 2010, p. 79). Schmenk (2006) makes discussion on the principle of progression which is based on the belief that the process of autonomization, progresses "following the progressive line from dependence heteronomy to independence autonomy" (pp. 76-77). Learners in dependence heteronomy depend on their teacher but in independence autonomy direct their learning process themselves taking all sort of responsibility (ibid). An autonomous learner is supposed to require psychological capacities from internal constraints and meaningful options from external constraints (Macaro, 1997).

2.3 Dimensions of Learners' Autonomy

Autonomy possesses five level namely action, awareness, involvement, intervention, creation and transcendence according to which learners can be made autonomous encouraging them to take action in learning taking active involvement and encouraging them to modify the pedagogical goals or choose the contents in intervention (Nunan, as cited in Wang, Spencer & Wang, 2012). In the level of creation, they are encouraged to create their own pedagogical goals and in transcendence, they are made autonomous in encouraging to use the English language beyond the classroom according to their needs (ibid).

Macaro (1997) identifies three levels or dimensions of autonomy namely autonomy of language competence, autonomy of language learning competence and autonomy of choice and action. The former is concerned with the learners' mastery over the target language; the second dimension is related to the development of learners' ability to implement the learning skills of target language to other situations and the final is concerned with "providing opportunity to develop autonomy of choice if the required skills are to be developed" (ibid, p. 168).

Benson (as cited in Carter, 2006) identifies three version of autonomy namely technical version referring to learners' skills and techniques to learn language; psychological version referring to learners' mental ability or emotional attitudes in learning language and political version of autonomy is concerned with empowering them to take all responsibility for their learning. Le (2013) adds social cultural version of autonomy stemmed from the theoretical ground of Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory which asserts that learning is the product of social relationship and interaction rejecting the sense of individualism. It can also be studied in terms of strong and weak version of pedagogy for learner autonomy. The second version of autonomy is considered to be "appropriate in non-western contexts since in such version students are assumed to be already autonomous and are ready to exercise this capacity" (Richard, as cited in Takagi, 2009, p. 325)

2.4 Fostering Learners' Autonomy

Learners are placed at the centre of learning process in learner centered learning (O'Leary, 2014); however, placing them at the centre is not sufficient in promoting learner autonomy for the enhancement of which it is suggested to focus on learner choice, reflection and peer for it (Takagi, 2009). Management of group work activities, motivation for self-assessment, encouragement to be cooperative rather than competitive and individualist, exposure of authentic texts are the classroom provision to promote learners' autonomy (Little, 2013; Farrell & Jacobs, 2010). Teachers play a crucial role in promoting "the psychological attributes and practical abilities" (Smith, 2008, p. 396). Therefore, Holec (2009) suggests teachers to play the role of developing the learners' learning competence training them to define learning objectives, to select appropriate learning resources to adopt relevant learning scenarios, to evaluate his progress and to manage his learning program etc and providing adequate resources for self-directed language learning.

Learners should be intrinsically motivated as intrinsic motivation is considered to be significant for the learners' engagement in learning which provides foundation for autonomous language learning (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Hausen, 2009). Little (2000) shows the significance of learners directed group work in the development of learner autonomy since "the learners with mixed ability and experience support each other in their respective zones of proximal development, maintain a shared understanding of the task they are engaged on and learn through negotiation and discourse" (pp. 30-31). Ganza (2008) shows the need of collaboration between learners and teachers for promoting learner autonomy because it is "an inter-relational achievement, made possible by a teacher-learner interrelationship characterized at the same time by the teacher's and learner's restraint and concern autonomy" (p. 71).

Teachers can technically support learners encouraging them to use the metacognitive strategies in learning process and psycho-socially by being supportive, patient, open, non-judgmental, motivating and raising their awareness (Benson, 2013). Trebbi (2008) advocates the structured framework for the promotion of learners' autonomy that supports "awareness-raising about the nature of languages, cultures and language learning; reflective experience-based

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learning; learner initiatives and exploration of the target language; relevant choices of learning activities and learning to learn activities” (p. 37). The attention is also to be paid in designing course that reflects learners’ goals in its language, tasks and strategies linking tasks explicitly to a simplified model of the language learning process so as to foster autonomy (Cotterall, as cited in Benson, 2013).

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Questions

Research questions to facilitate the objective of study are as follows:

1. What is the level of learners’ autonomy in learning English of higher secondary level students in Nepal?
2. What is the difference between the learners’ level of autonomy in terms of gender?
3. What is the difference between the learners’ level of autonomy in terms of nature of institution?
4. What is the difference between the learners’ level of autonomy in terms of medium of instruction?
5. What is the difference between the learners’ level of autonomy in terms of faculty?

3.2 Participants

The study comprises 552 ELT students of grade 12 from 22 higher secondary school of Bara district of Nepal. The research participants were sampled using multi-stage cluster sampling and the schools that of fish bowl procedure. Among the participants, 348 (63%) were female and 204 (37%) were male; 515 (93.3%) were from Nepali and 37 (6.7%) were from English medium; 513 (92.9%) from government and 39 (7.1%) were from private higher secondary school. Similarly, 318 (57.6%) were from management, 217 (39.3%) were from education, 15 (2.7%) were from humanities and 2 (0.4%) respondents were selected from science stream.

3.3 Instrument

The instrument used for this study was a questionnaire with 6 items coping major area of learners' autonomy in learning English consisting of 5-point Likert scale with their specific value ranging from always = 1; often= 2; sometimes = 3; rarely = 4 and never = 5. The reliability of the instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha model, and Cronbach's alpha in Table 1 showed internal consistency of .721 which indicated a high level of reliability. The instrument was dully designed to cover the content of autonomy to establish content validity and expert was consulted for maintaining face validity.

Table 1. Reliability of the Instruments

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.721	6

4. Results

4.1 Indicator of Determining Learners' Autonomy in Learning English

Table 2 shows the indicator of determining the level of learners' autonomy in learning English. The mean score of learners' autonomy that lies between 1.00 -2.33 is regarded as high; 2.34-3.66 as average or moderate and 3.67-5.00 as low.

Table 2. Indicator of Determining Learners' Autonomy in Learning English

Learners' Autonomy	Mean
High	1.00-2.33
Moderate	2.34-3.66
Low	3.67-5.00

4.2 Learners' Level of Autonomy in Learning English

The mean resulted in Table 3 showed that the level of learners autonomy in learning English was moderate in all of the items that (Q1a/MDSG) in making decisions and setting goals of their own learning ($M = 2.9348$); (Q1b/DETR) in doing their own efforts in learning English ($M = 2.6594$); (Q1c/PABC) in performing activities beyond the classroom ($M = 3.3170$); (Q1d/INSW) in improving English noting their strengths and weakness ($M = 3.0598$);

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(Q1e/CDRM) in consulting different reference materials ($M = 3.0344$) and (Q1f/UCI) using computer and internet for learning English ($M = 3.6413$). In overall, the level of learners' autonomy in learning English was found moderate ($M = 3.1078$).

Table 3. Learners' Autonomy in Learning English

	N	Mean
Q1a.Decisions making and setting goals (MDSG)	552	2.9348
Q1b.Doing effort and taking responsibility (DETR)	552	2.6594
Q1c.Performing activities beyond the class (PABC)	552	3.3170
Q1d.Improving English noting strength and weakness (INSW)	552	3.0598
Q1e.Consulting different reference materials(CDRM)	552	3.0344
Q1f. Using Computer and internet (UCI)	552	3.6413
Grand Total	552	3.1078

4.3 Learners' Autonomy in Learning English in Terms of Gender

The mean in Table 4 showed that female students were found less autonomous than male students in learning English in all of the items that female ($M = 3.0805$) and male ($M = 2.6863$) in making decisions and setting goals of their own learning (Q1a/MDSG); female ($M = 2.7845$) and male ($M = 2.4461$) in doing their own efforts and taking responsibility in learning English(Q1b/DETR); female ($M = 3.4282$) and male ($M = 3.1275$) in performing activities beyond the classroom(Q1c/PABC); female ($M = 3.1121$) and male ($M = 2.9706$) in improving English noting their strengths and weakness(Q1d/INSW); female ($M = 3.1092$) and male ($M = 2.9069$) in consulting different reference materials (Q1e/CDRM) and female ($M = 3.8879$) and male ($M = 3.2206$) in using computer and internet for learning English (Q1f/UCI) . In overall, female students ($M = 3.2337$) were found to be less autonomous than male students ($M = 2.8930$) in learning English.

Table 4. Learners' Language Autonomy in Terms of Gender

Gender		Q1a/MDSG	Q1b/DETR	Q1c/PABC	Q1d/INSW	Q1e/CDRM	Q1f/UCI	Grand Mean
Female	Mean	3.0805	2.7845	3.4282	3.1121	3.1092	3.8879	3.2337
	N	348	348	348	348	348	348	348
Male	Mean	2.6863	2.4461	3.1275	2.9706	2.9069	3.2206	2.8930
	N	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
Grand Mean	Mean	2.9348	2.6594	3.3170	3.0598	3.0344	3.6413	3.1078
	N	552	552	552	552	552	552	552

Note: MDSG here stands for making decisions and setting goals; DETR for doing effort and taking responsibility; PABC for performing activities beyond the class; INSW for improving English noting strength and weakness; CDRM for consulting different reference materials and UCI for using computer and internet.

The statistics test in Table 6 also showed that the female students were statistically significantly highly less autonomous than male students ($U = 26986.500$, $p < .001$) with their mean rank (Table 5) of 300.95 for female and 234.79 for male students.

Table 5. Mean Rank of Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Gender

Variable	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Gender			
Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Gender	Female	348	300.95
	Male	204	234.79
	Total	552	

Table 6. Statistic Test for Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Gender

	Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Gender
Mann-Whitney U	26986.500
Wilcoxon W	47896.500
Z	-4.714
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

4.4 Learners' Autonomy in Learning English in Terms of Nature of Institution

The mean in Table 7 showed that the students of government institutions were found to be less autonomous than that of private institutions in the items that government students ($M = 2.9415$) and private students ($M = 2.8462$) in making decisions and setting goals of their own learning (Q1a/MDSG); government students ($M = 2.6725$) and private students ($M = 2.4872$) in doing their efforts in learning English (Q1b/DETR) and government students ($M = 3.3353$) and private students ($M = 3.0769$) in performing activities beyond the classroom (Q1c/PABC). However, the students of private institutions were found less autonomous than the students of government institutions in the items that private students ($M = 3.0769$) and government students ($M = 3.0585$) in improving English noting their strengths and weakness (Q1d/INSW); private students ($M = 3.1282$) and government students ($M = 3.0273$) in consulting different reference materials (Q1e/CDRM) but government students ($M = 3.6706$) were found less autonomous than private students ($M = 3.2564$) in using computer and internet for learning English (Q1f/UCI). In overall, government students ($M = 3.1176$) were found to be less autonomous than private students ($M = 2.9786$) in learning English.

Table 7. Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Nature of Institution

Nature of Institution		Q1a/MDSG	Q1b/DETR	Q1c/PABC	Q1d/INSW	Q1e/CDRM	Q1f/UCI	Grand Mean
Government	Mean	2.9415	2.6725	3.3353	3.0585	3.0273	3.6706	3.1176
	N	513	513	513	513	513	513	513
Private	Mean	2.8462	2.4872	3.0769	3.0769	3.1282	3.2564	2.9786
	N	39	39	39	39	39	39	39
Grand Mean	Mean	2.9348	2.6594	3.3170	3.0598	3.0344	3.6413	3.1078
	N	552	552	552	552	552	552	552

However, the statistic test in Table 9 showed that there was not statistically significantly different in the autonomy of the government and private ELT students in learning English ($U = 8850.500$, $p = .229$) with their mean rank (Table 8) of 278.75 for government students and 246.94 for private students.

Table 8. Mean Rank of Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Nature of Institution

Variable	Nature of Institution	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Learners' Autonomy Terms of Institution	Government	513	278.75	142997.50
	Private	39	246.94	9630.50
	Total	552		

Table 9. Statistic Test for Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Nature of Institution

	Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Institution
Mann-Whitney U	8850.500
Wilcoxon W	9630.500
Z	-1.203
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.229

a. Grouping Variable: Nature of Institution

4.5 Learners' Autonomy in Learning English in Terms of Medium of Instruction

The mean in Table 10 showed that Nepali medium students were found to be less autonomous than English medium students in learning English in all of the items that Nepali medium ($M = 2.9553$) and English medium students ($M = 2.6486$) in making decisions and setting goals of their own learning (Q1a/MDSG); Nepali medium students ($M = 2.6757$) and English medium students ($M = 2.4324$) in doing their efforts in learning English (Q1b/DETR); Nepali medium students ($M = 3.3262$) and English medium students ($M = 3.1892$) in performing activities beyond the classroom (Q1c/PABC); Nepali medium students ($M = 3.0757$) and English medium students ($M = 2.8378$) in improving English noting their strengths and weakness (Q1d/INSW); Nepali medium students ($M = 3.0388$) and English medium students ($M = 2.9730$) in consulting different reference materials (Q1e/CDRM) and Nepali medium students ($M = 3.6893$) and English medium students ($M = 2.9730$) in using computer and internet for learning English (Q1f/UCI). In overall, Nepali medium students ($M = 3.1269$) were found to be less autonomous than English medium students ($M = 2.8423$) in learning English.

Table 10. ELT Students' Language Autonomy in Terms of Medium of Instruction

Medium		Q1a/MDS G	Q1b/DETR	Q1c/PABC	Q1d/INSW	Q1e/CDR M	Q1f/UCI	Grand Mean
Nepali	Mean	2.9553	2.6757	3.3262	3.0757	3.0388	3.6893	3.1269
	N	515	515	515	515	515	515	515
English	Mean	2.6486	2.4324	3.1892	2.8378	2.9730	2.9730	2.8423
	N	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Grand Mean	Mean	2.9348	2.6594	3.3170	3.0598	3.0344	3.6413	3.1078
	N	552	552	552	552	552	552	552

The statistic test in Table 12 also showed that Nepali medium ELT students were found to be statistically significantly highly less autonomous than English medium ELT students ($U = 7486.000$, $p = .029$) with their mean rank (Table 11) of 280.46 for Nepali medium and 221.32 for English medium students.

Table 11. Mean Rank of Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Medium of Instruction

	Medium	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Medium	Nepali	515	280.46	144439.00
	English	37	221.32	8189.00
	Total	552		

Table 12. Statistic Test for Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Medium of Instruction

	Learners' autonomy in Terms of Medium
Mann-Whitney U	7486.000
Wilcoxon W	8189.000
Z	-2.183
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.029

a. Grouping Variable: Medium

4.6 Learners' Autonomy in Learning English in Terms of Different Stream

The mean in Table 13 showed that in making decisions and setting goals of their own learning (Q1a/MDSG), the ELT students from management ($M = 3.0220$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from education ($M = 2.8618$); humanities ($M = 2.2667$) and science ($M = 2.0000$). In doing their own efforts in learning English (Q1b/DETR), the ELT

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students from humanities ($M = 2.7333$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from management ($M = 2.7044$); education ($M = 2.5945$) and science ($M = 2.0000$). In performing activities beyond the classroom (Q1c/PABC), the ELT students from management ($M = 3.5440$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from humanities ($M = 3.4000$); education ($M = 2.9954$) and science ($M = 1.5000$). In improving English noting their strengths and weakness (Q1d/INSW), the ELT students from management ($M = 3.1352$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from education ($M = 3.0184$); humanities ($M = 2.2667$) and science ($M = 1.5000$). In consulting different reference materials (Q1e/CDRM), the ELT students from management ($M = 3.1006$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from humanities ($M = 3.0667$); education ($M = 2.9493$) and science ($M = 1.5000$). In using computer and internet for learning English (Q1f/UCI), the ELT students from humanities ($M = 3.7333$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from education ($M = 3.6774$); management ($M = 3.6289$) and science ($M = 1.0000$). In overall, the ELT students from management ($M = 3.1892$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from education ($M = 3.0161$); humanities ($M = 2.9111$) and science ($M = 1.5833$).

Table 13. ELT Learners' Language Autonomy in Terms of Different Stream

Faculty	Q1a/MDS	Q1b/DETR	Q1c/PABC	Q1d/INSW	Q1e/CDRM	Q1f/UCI	Grand Mean
Science	Mean 2.0000 N 2	2.0000 2	1.5000 2	1.5000 2	1.5000 2	1.0000 2	1.5833 2
Management	Mean 3.0220 N 318	2.7044 318	3.5440 318	3.1352 318	3.1006 318	3.6289 318	3.1892 318
Humanities	Mean 2.2667 N 15	2.7333 15	3.4000 15	2.2667 15	3.0667 15	3.7333 15	2.9111 15
Education	Mean 2.8618 N 217	2.5945 217	2.9954 217	3.0184 217	2.9493 217	3.6774 217	3.0161 217
Grand Mean	Mean 2.9348 N 552	2.6594 552	3.3170 552	3.0598 552	3.0344 552	3.6413 552	3.1078 552

The result of statistic test in Table 15 also showed that there was a statistically significantly different in ELT students' level of autonomy between the different streams, $\chi^2(3) = 11.476$, $p = .009$) with a mean rank (Table 14) of 17.50 for science, 291.65 for management, 242.23 for humanities and 259.05 for education stream.

Table 14. Mean Rank of ELT Learners' Language Autonomy in Terms of Different Stream

		Faculty	N	Mean Rank
Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Streams		Science	2	17.50
		Management	318	291.65
		Humanities	15	242.23
		Education	217	259.05
		Total	552	

Table 15. Statistic Test for ELT Learners' Language Autonomy in Terms of Different Stream

		Learners' Autonomy in Terms of Faculty
Chi-Square		11.476
Df		3
Asymp. Sig.		.009

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Faculty

5. Discussion

On the basis of result, discussion can be made that the higher secondary level ELT students in the marginalized area of Bara district of Nepal were found average autonomous ($M = 3.1078$) in learning English. Regarding the gender, female students ($M = 3.2337$) were found less autonomous than male students ($M = 2.8930$) in learning English. The significant test also showed that the female students were found to be statistically significantly highly less autonomous than male students ($U = 26986.500$, $p < .001$) with their mean rank of 300.95 for female and 234.79 for male students which is inconsistent with the result of Varol & Yilmaz (2010) since they didn't show any significant difference in the level of autonomy in terms of gender. Regarding the nature of institution, the students of government institutions ($M = 3.1176$) were found less autonomous than that of private institutions ($M = 2.9786$) in learning English. However, the statistic test showed that there was not statistically significantly different in the autonomy of the government and private ELT students in learning English ($U = 8850.500$, $p = .229$) with their mean rank of 278.75 for government students and 246.94 for private students. But, regarding the medium of instruction, Nepali medium students ($M = 3.1269$) were found less autonomous than English medium students ($M = 2.8423$) in learning English. The significant test

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also showed that Nepali medium ELT students were statistically significantly highly less autonomous than English medium ELT students ($U = 7486.000, p = .029$) with their mean rank of 280.46 for Nepali medium and 221.32 for English medium students. Similarly, there was a significant different in the level of learners' autonomy in terms of faculty that the ELT students from management ($M = 3.1892$) ranked the least autonomous followed by ELT students from education ($M = 3.0161$); humanities ($M = 2.9111$) and science ($M = 1.5833$). The significant test also showed that there was a statistically significantly different in ELT students' level of autonomy between the different streams, $\chi^2(3) = 11.476, p = .009$ with a mean rank of 17.50 for science, 291.65 for management, 242.23 for humanities and 259.05 for education stream.

6. Conclusion

Discussion made on the basis of results showed that the higher secondary level ELT students in the marginalized area of Bara district of Nepal were found with moderate level of autonomy in learning English which is still a problem since learners learn best if they are highly autonomous. Therefore, ELT teachers who are engaged in teaching higher secondary level education are suggested to pay their due attention in fostering their autonomy so as to make them successful learners in learning English.

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Nepal

A Glance at Linguistic Development of Modern Sindhi Language during British Rule in Sindh

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Abstract

This research paper aims to explore the linguistics development of modern Sindhi language, during British rule in the Subcontinent. Sindhi language is regarded one of the ancient languages of the world. It has developed in modern form in British period. This paper briefly explores the linguistic development of Modern Sindhi language during British rule. The study shows that British period was regarded as a glorious period of Sindhi Language.

Key words: Sindhi, linguistic development, British rule.

Introduction

Sindhi language is classified as a member of Indo-Aryan group, part of Indo-European family of languages. “Sindhi is one of the ancient languages of the World. It is an original language of Indus Valley people, which possess all the peculiarities of the developed languages of the World” (Sindhi Language Committee, 2010).

Stack (as cited in Abro, 2011, p.31) viewed that “I was hither proud of English language as I considered, it was more beautiful and very copious language in the World, but it was vain of me. When, I learnt Sindhi. I found reduplicated causal verbs and other points that give Sindhi, beauties distinct from most Indian languages”. Besides this, Richard Burton said that “when we

conquered Sub-Continent. We saw a huge educational and literary stock only in Sindhi language”.

Sindh was conquered by British Government in 1843, after defeating Talpur rulers on the battle of Miani. Lighari (2010) said that British rulers followed the policy of “direct communication” with common masses of Sindh. That is why, their attitude towards Sindhi language was very much positive. Therefore, Sindhi language has witnessed different developmental stages in the field of language and literature.

Linguistic Works

Development of Sindhi Typewriter

Sindhi language saw different developmental stages during British rule. The first development of Sindhi language was the development of Sindhi Typewriter. It was named as “Monarch” and it was manufactured by Remington, an American Company. That Typewriter was recovered from a person in Shahdadkot, District, Qamber-Shahdadkot, Sindh. It is preserved in the museum of Sindhology, Jamshoro (Pirzado, 2010).

Sindhi as an Official Language

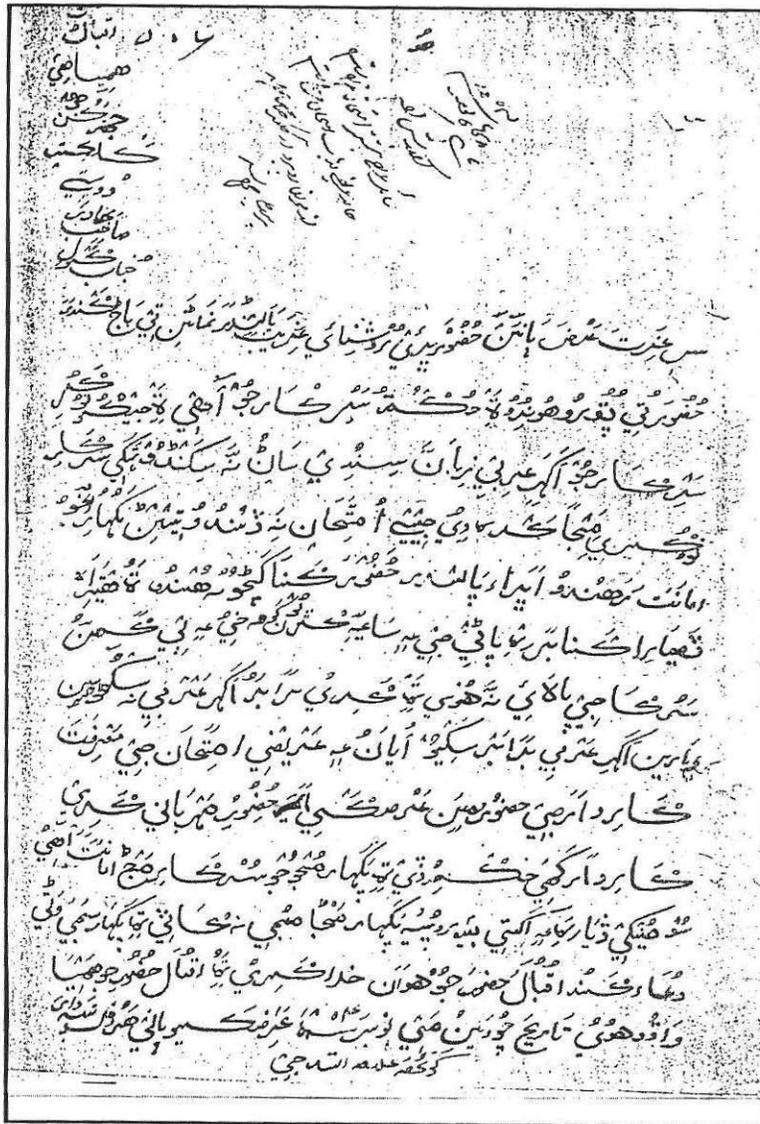
After conquering Sindh, British Government preferred Sindhi instead of Persian language and they decided to declare Sindhi as an Official Language and Language of Education. According to Mallah (2008), it was because of the importance given by the British Government that Sindhi language got the status of Official language in Sindh, first time in the history of Sindh. Further, he said that in this regard, Governor of Bombay, Sir George Clerk issued order to the Commissioner of Sindh in 1848, to declare Sindhi Vernacular as an Official language. Owing to the implementation of that order, Sir Barter Fearer ordered to Government employees to learn Sindhi and qualify in the Examination of Sindhi language.

Balouch (as cited in Sheikh, 2010, p.71) wrote that Bombay Government issued circular no 1852 on 6 September, 1851. According to that circular Sindhi is regarded as an official language of Sindh. Besides this, they also decided that they have to learn Sindhi language along with local masses for posting of any officer in any region of Sindh or for monthly salary and

other pragmatic benefits. This is because the government thought that if a person could not understand one's problem then how he would solve it. Therefore it was mandatory for all to qualify in the examination of Sindhi language. Owing to this, Government started 4 to 6 month courses in Sindhi language for foreigners. Otherwise, one would not get any posting, monthly salary or any other pragmatics benefit from Government.

Here is an application of Tapedar Haroo Mal. This application was written by Haroo Mal in 1854. He had written an application to Deputy Collector of Jherik (Thatta) in which he wrote that as "I have not learnt Sindhi due to some reasons, owing to this; I have not collected my monthly salary. Now I have learnt Sindhi and appeared in examination. So, it is requested to you that kindly order to Mukhtiarkar to issue me, my monthly salary". This application is authentic evidence, which shows that Sindhi language learning was mandatory for Government employees during British rule.

The scanned copy of that application is taken from Sheikh (2010, p. 74).



Moreover, according to Sheikh (2010), 1857 was the lucky year for the people of Sindh as well as Sindhi Language. In that year, the Commissioner of Sindh issued the notification that, now all applications must be written in Sindhi Language. After that notification Sindhi language was practically accepted as an Official Language. Further, on that notification it is clearly mentioned that due to some reasons, if one could not write application in Sindhi language, then it must be translated into Sindhi language.

The scanned copy of that notification is taken from Sheikh (2010, p. 72). It was issued on 29, August, 1857.

English–Sindhi dictionaries. Further, George Shirt was also a prominent Scholar of that time. In 1866, he authored a book of grammar in Sindhi language, named as “Akhar Dhatoo”. In that book, he had discussed the roots as well as relations of Sindhi language with Sanskrit, Semitic, and Dravidian. Furthermore, he also compiled English-Sindhi dictionary (Pirzado, 2010).

Compilation of *Shah Jo Risalo*

Sindhi people must be thankful to Dr. Ernest Trump, who had done great work in Sindhi language. In 1866, he compiled “Shah Jo Risalo”. He printed it first time on lithography from Leipzig, Germany. It was a big achievement in the history of Sindhi language. Besides this, Trump (1872) composed Grammar of Sindhi Language. Dr. Trump’s Grammar has pivotal importance in Sindhi language because it is the inclusion of Shah Latif’s Language and its novelties in it.

Shah Jo Risalo was composed by renowned poet of the World Shah Abdul Latif Bhittai. Gurbuxani (2005) said that there are two theories regarding *Shah jo Risalo*, few historian says that Shah Abdul threw whole the Shah jo Rislo into Kirar Dhandh (Kirar Lake), because he thought that if his faqeers may not understand the core meaning of his poetry then they may follow the wrong direction. Owing to this, he threw it into Kirar Dhand (Kirar Lake) and few historian Says that half of the *Shah jo Risalo* was memorized by shah’s faqeer. But there is no authentic evident regarding history of *Shah jo Risalo*. It is also unbelievable that how a poet can through his piece of literature into lake. Moreover, people say that Shah’s faqeers requested to Shah latif for the recollection of his risalo , because, they mourned, when shah latif threw his risalo into lake. Due to this, Shah latif ordered to “Mai Niyamat” to memorize shah’s poetry to his faqeers. Hence, the poetry of Shah Abdul Latif Bhittai was collected by Shah’s faqeers with the help of “Mai Niyamat” and shaped it in the form of different “SURs” according to the theme and nature of poetry. After the approval of Shah Abdul Latif Bhittai, it was handed over to the Shah’s Chief Khalifa “Tamar Faqeer”. It is called as a “Ganj”. Still, it is preserved at Bhit Shah. Finally, Dr Ernest Trump was the person, who complied *Shah jo Risalo* and printed it form Leipzig Germany. In addition to this, he also wrote research papers on Sindhi books and on Sindhi language.

Linguistic Survey of India

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Grierson (1919) conducted research on 500 languages of the subcontinent. His work is entitled as “Linguistics Survey of India” in which he discussed Sindhi in detail. In the Linguistic Survey of India, he claimed that Sindhi is an Indo-European language, belonging to the northwestern outer circle of Indo-Aryan group of languages. In that survey, he also compared Sindhi language with all other languages of Indo-Aryan origin.

Conclusion

To sum up, the British colonial period in Sindh is regarded as a glorious period of Sindhi language. This is because of the development of Sindhi Typewriter. In addition to this, Sindhi Language was declared as an official Language. Moreover, Sindhi alphabet was developed on Arabic script and compilation of *Shah Jo Risalo* was done. Furthermore, the development of Sindhi Grammar, linguistic survey of India, publication of Grammatical books on Sindhi language, English Sindhi dictionaries and vast research have done on different feature of Sindhi language.

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English Language as a Panacea

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Abstract

English language is really a Panacea. English language is so vitally important because it is spoken in so many parts of the world. Businesses, educational domains, academic domains, and even realms that deal with security all use English as a language of communication. In a practical sense, one could survive without English, but with the globalized nature of the world and commerce, knowledge of English is quite essential. In terms of the appreciation of language and literature, knowledge of English is extremely important in understanding some of the best writings offered. This is not to say that other languages do not possess the same amount of introspection and talent. Far from it. Yet, the knowledge of English could help to open many professional and literary doors. Language is the only way by which we can express our emotions, thoughts, desires ideas, feelings etc. English is that language which is spoken by many people. English is an International language. Whenever we want to know what is happening on the other side of the world we get the news in English only. English is an important language, because it is the *lingua franca* of the world. Since there are so many languages of the world and on account of this, there can be communication problems, it is important to have a language that most people know. This happens to be English. English was used as an official language and now English occupied the whole world and became a global language. so it is very important to know the English language . The Early Modern English period witnessed the first time that English was spoken around the world, but still it was not nearly as widely distributed as it is today. Today English is widely taught around the world as a second language. Still, British English is still widely taught as the prestige form in classrooms around the world.

Keywords: English, international communication, panacea

Importance of English

English is an important language, because it is the *linga franca* of the world. Since there are so many languages of the world and on account of this, there can be communication problems, it is important to have a language that most people know. This happens to be English. For example, children in many countries of the world learn English. So, it is very possible to be in any major city in the world and probably get by with English. This is an amazing point! Now things will change drastically outside of cities. Finally, English may not be the *linga franca* in the future, but for now it is. For this reason, it is important to learn English.

Language is our primary source of communication. It's the method through which we share our ideas and thoughts with others. Some people even say that language is what separates us from animals and makes us human. There are thousands of languages in this world. Countries have their own national languages in addition to a variety of local languages spoken and understood by their people in different regions. Some languages are spoken by millions of people, others by only a few thousand. It is the language of Hollywood and the language of international banking and business. As such, it is a useful and even necessary language to know.

English is the International Common Tongue

There are several factors that make the English language essential to communication in our current time. First of all, it is the most common foreign language. This means that two people who come from different countries (for example, a Mexican and a Swede) usually use English as a common language to communicate. That's why everyone needs to learn the language in order to get in touch on an international level. Speaking it will help you communicate with people from countries all over the world, not just English-speaking ones.

Education

English is also essential to the field of education. In many countries, children are taught and encouraged to learn English as a second language. Even in countries where it is not an official language, such as the Netherlands or Sweden, we will find many syllabi in science and engineering are written in English. Because it is the dominant language in the sciences, most of

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the research and studies you find in any given scientific field will be written in it as well. At the university level, students in many countries study almost all their subjects in English in order to make the material more accessible to international students.

Country	% English Speakers	Total English Speakers
India	10.35	125,226,449

The Internet and Press

On the Internet, the majority of websites are written and created in English. Even sites in other languages often give you the option to translate the site. It's the primary language of the press: more newspapers and books are written in English than in any other language, and no matter where in the world you are, you will find some of these books and newspapers available. In fact, because it is so dominant in international communication, you will find more information regarding nearly every subject if you can speak this language.

Resources Make Learning English Easy

Although many people think that it is very difficult and confusing, English is actually the easiest language of the world to learn because there are so many resources available. As soon as you decide you want to learn, there are thousands of resources on the Internet and in bookstores. I'm not just talking about lessons and grammar books. You can supplement traditional learning materials with children's TV shows and books. I suggest watching as much TV as you can, in English with English subtitles, and you will pick up conversational English in no time.

Travel and Business

With good understanding and communication in English, you can travel around the globe. Because it is the international language for foreigners, it's easy to get assistance and help in every part of world. You can test it by online travel. Any travel booking site you can find will have English as a booking option.

English skills will also help you in any business venture you choose to follow. If you visit some offices, companies, governmental organizations, or even math or engineering companies, you will see the importance of English. Any big company will hire their professional staff after getting to know whether the people they are hiring are good at English or not. Companies who want to function at an international level only consider their staff well educated if they are good English speakers, writers, and readers.

The Language of Hollywood

Everyone knows that Hollywood is in the United States, and that the biggest television and music industries in the world are based there. As I mentioned above, TV and movies are a great way to practice your English once you start learning. What's more, knowing English opens up thousands of movies, television shows, and games for your enjoyment. If you want to one day work in the entertainment industry, English is even more essential.

Those who are still unaware of the importance of English should start learning it, as a time will come when everything will be understood, spoken and written in English. In a lot of ways, that time is already here. Go ahead, watch some media, and get an idea of the language. You won't be disappointed.

Today English is widely taught around the world as a second language. (The number of native speakers of English is not very large at all, compared to Spanish or Chinese, it's worth noting.) The emergence of the United States as a global power after WWII (incl. the strong economy and the enduring military presence of American soldiers in many countries around the world) took the globalization of English one step further. Still, British English is still widely taught as the prestige form in classrooms around the world.

Reasons Why Learning English is So Important

1. English may not be the most spoken language in the world, but it is the official language in a large number of countries. It is estimated that the number of people in the world that use in English to communicate on a regular basis is 2 billion!

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2. English is the dominant business language and it has become almost a necessity for people to speak English if they are to enter a global workforce, research from all over the world shows that cross-border business communication is most often conducted in English. Its importance in the global market place therefore cannot be understated, learning English really can change your life.

3. Many of the world's top films, books and music are published and produced in English. Therefore by learning English you will have access to a great wealth of entertainment and will be able to have a greater cultural understanding.

4. Most of the content produced on the internet (50%) is in English. So knowing English will allow you access to an incredible amount of information which may not be otherwise available!

Although learning English can be challenging and time consuming, we can see that it is also very valuable to learn and can create many opportunities!

English is widely used as an international language throughout the world. It is one of the official languages, even in most of the countries of the third world. It is also used for international communication. English is the highly developed language which has the ability to express ideas and it is the means of revelation of modern civilization.

Importance of English language is due to its international use. It is a fact that a vast knowledge of the universe has been demonstrated in this language. For the achievement of that knowledge, it is essential to understand this international language. We may assume that it shares with the other highly developed languages of Europe the ability to express the multiplicity of ideas and the refinement of thoughts that demand expression in our modern civilization.

In this modern age when electronic media has widely spread all over the world, it is necessary to have the knowledge of this language because it is the medium of communication and a person, lacking the knowledge of this language can't get awareness of the universal knowledge.

It is obvious that the universal exploration is mostly revealed in this language, so its worth will not decrease. It is the age of scientific advancement and mechanical approach, the subject matter of which is demonstrated in English language, so it is an essential necessity of the people to learn this language. English has proved itself, as a torch-bearing to the nations of the third world. It is contemplated as the means of ascending knowledge. As it is obvious that the universal exploration is mostly revealed in this language, so it's worth can't be descended.

It is the age of scientific advancement and mechanical approach, the subject matter of which is demonstrated in English language, so it is an essential necessity of the people to learn this language. English has proved itself, as a torch-bearing to the nations of the third world. It is contemplated as the means of ascending knowledge.

Reasons Why Communication Skills are So Important

Formal dyadic conversation however demand artistry and can be acquired through practice. Some of the common forms of formal dyadic communication are Face-to-Face conversation, Telephonic conversation, Interview, Instruction and Dictation.

Interactive or Face to Face conversation

Majority of time at home is spent on face-to-face conversation. This conversation does not require any official decorum .Conversation outside our home i.e. the one which we have at restaurants, parties, parks and even offices need not follow any rigid rule. However, if we keep in mind the following points, we may be labelled as a pleasant 'conversationalist'.

Choose a topic that interests both the participants. Be courteous and cheerful. Remember that there is no such thing as uninteresting topic'. We only have 'uninteresting people'. Use simple, easy to understand language.

Here are Some Reasons Why Communication Skills are So Important

Good Communication Passes Information Along

If you can effectively communicate, then people understand you much better, and whatever information you are trying to tell them will get across without being misunderstood. In business, this can prevent mistakes from being made by people who thought you said something else. In personal life, it can help you to let others know what you want.

Good Communication Makes Good Relationships

If you can effectively communicate, then other people know what you need and want, and you can let them know your feelings without being misunderstood. This prevents arguments, especially between couples, because it avoids all that "you should have known how I felt" sort of mind-reading arguments. If you can explain your thoughts and feelings, then you won't misunderstand each other.

Good Communication Helps You Get What You Need

If you can effectively communicate what you need or want, you are more likely to be successful in getting it. Effective communication also helps you to convince others to agree with you in a persuasive setting.

Good Communication Gives You Self-esteem

People with effective communication skills are more confident, because they know that they can tell other people exactly what they need to, and they know that they are understanding those people better.

Good Communication Helps You to Think Better

In order to communicate effectively, you have to think ahead and organize your thoughts. This helps you learn how to organize, and how to plan ahead.

Good Communication Makes Peaceful Communities

If you can effectively communicate, then you can get along better with your neighbours in your town or city, in your country, and in the world. Most wars are caused by people not communicating effectively and not being able to negotiate with each other.

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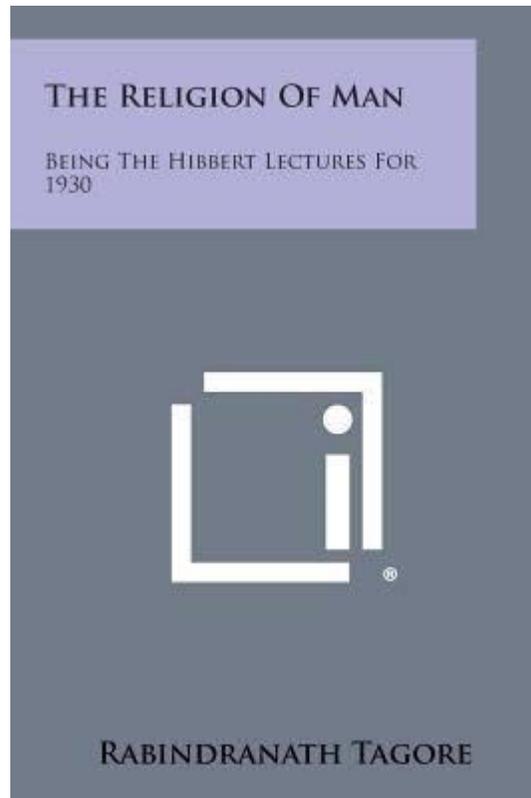
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Abstract

Tagore's humanism is mainly expressed through his concept of inter-personal (I and thou) relationship. I shall discuss here Tagore's humanism vis-à-vis inter-personal relationship.

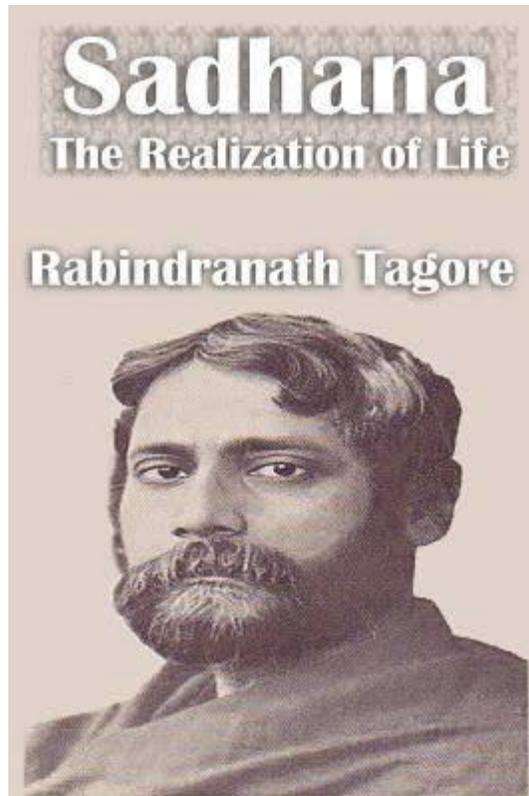
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In order to expound this idea, I shall embark on his concept of man; man the finite and man the infinite, man within bounds and man the boundless. Tagore has reflected comprehensively and intensely on the ontological status of man in idiosyncratic dimensions and the revelation of the meaning in relation (a) to nature and (b) to modes of inter-personal relationship. I have also discussed the role of language in understanding inter-personal relationship, and finally arrive at the conclusion that the inter-personal relationship of I and thou takes the form of intra-personal relationship of I am thou. Humanism is emphasizing the importance of human beings – their nature and place in the universe. It means love of man with all his flaws and fallacies. It is an attitude that concentrates on the activities of man more than the super natural world. During the colonial rule, the British lost their humanity and were brutal and cruel towards their fellow-beings. Many novelists used their pens to protest against the violence of the British. Rabindranath Tagore is one of them who used his pen over swords to vehemently protest against the cruelty meted out to his fellow-beings. In this paper, I shall discuss humanism as a concept in Indian English Literature with reference to Tagore's novel Home and the World. The three main characters of the novel portray different personalities and thus reflect humanism.

Keywords: Rabindranath Tagore, Humanism, *Home and the World*, Indian English literature



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Introduction

The Oxford English Dictionary defines Humanism as “A rationalist outlook or system of thought attaching prime importance to human rather than divine or supernatural matters.”

Humanism is a philosophical stance that emphasizes the value and agency of human beings, individually and collectively, and generally prefers critical thinking and evidence over established doctrine or faith. The meaning of the term humanism has fluctuated, according to the successive intellectual movements which have identified with it. Although humanism lost its significance a long time ago, a certain naivety about its natural and obvious connotations,

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complicated by anthropological hubris, lingers on. The tendency consequently is to compulsively and exclusively read humaneness, universal compassion and glory into humanism.

Neither the violence of the human being nor the violence on the human being gets registered in the process.

Dealing with Humanism and Its Effects

Grappling with humanism's bad conscience in the complex terrain of Indian literature is an obligation that remains unfulfilled. Rabindranath Tagore lifted Indian literature to world level and gained for modern India a place on the world literary history that won him the Noble Prize for literature and gave recognition to India on a global scale. Tagore, the versatile personality of Indian literary scholarship is considered as the Rishi, the Gurudev and the Maharshi. He was a poet, dramatist, actor, producer, musician, painter, an educationist, reformer, philosopher, prophet, novelist, story writer, and a critic of life and literature.

Tagore is a multi-dimensional personality and the underlying theme of his creations is love for man. Tagore wrote primarily in Bengali and translated many of his poems and plays into English. To his credit, there is a long list of poems and plays, both in Bengali and English which had made his place among the world's greatest writers. Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), the Indian poet and artist is not a philosopher in the academic sense of the term - in the sense in which one reads and writes on philosophy as an academic discipline. Moreover, he is neither an analyst nor a system builder. Instead he has always considered himself to be a poet and neither a scholar nor a philosopher. He acknowledges that his religion is a poet's religion.¹

Tagore's universal humanism is mainly expressed through his concept of interpersonal relationship. He has reflected comprehensively and intensely on the ontological status of man in idiosyncratic dimensions and the revelation of the meaning in relation to nature and to modes of inter-personal relationship. It is said that, the philosophy of Humanism is a product of Renaissance in Western Europe. Although the inner essence of 'the Humanism in the East', is found to place much emphasis upon the mental existence of man expressing his mental and spiritual freedom. I shall discuss here, the universal form of Humanism as developed by Tagore, searching for man, in human existence, beyond his limitations and differences, which, in my

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opinion, is the fundamental object of the tradition of Humanism in the East. In this connection, Humanism, in the modern international and intercultural context, is to be taken as the total development of man, which, in the observation of Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), is the accomplishment of universality in human existence, developing the philosophy of universal humanism in order to expound his idea of humanism corresponding to inter-personal relationship.

Concept of Man

We shall delve more into his concept of man. His views about man can be found in various writings, particularly in *Sadhana* (1913), *Personality* (1917), *Creative Unity* (1922) and *The Religion of Man* (1930). Tagore has a vision of the world; the mysteries of man, of nature and of the vast universe have unfolded themselves before his vision and the truth he has realized from the bottom of this comprehension. And this gives us the grounds to claim Tagore a philosopher. Radhakrishnan aptly remarks that, “In interpreting the philosophy and message of Sir Rabindranath Tagore, we are interpreting the Indian ideal of philosophy, religion, and art, of which his work is the outcome and expression.”³ Moreover, Tagore’s way of thinking is akin to some of the views of western philosophers like Kant, Hegel and Sartre. I shall show their affinity in the course of developing this paper.

Tagore envisages that the perfection of man is attained in the relationship of nature with man, through the enlargement of personality. Man is the architect of his own destiny. His perfection leads him to have a link with infinity. The perfection attained by the man should be applicable to the entire society and not to the individual alone. Tagore’s concept of man/human personality is finding its fruition through the realization of the feeling of intimacy with nature. From his childhood days, he is fascinated by the splendor of nature - the rising of the sun, the chirping of the birds and the whistling of the wind through the trees. He is of the opinion that nature does not lose herself but reveals her true colour to a person’s self, having her own eternal bindings with human nature. Nature is not alien but is essentially related to man. In the vastness of nature, we are not unknown strangers; we are her kith and kin. He also compares beautiful nature with our mother.

Tagore writes: When in the morning I looked upon the light I felt in a moment that I was no stranger in this world, that the inscrutable without name and form had taken me in its arms in the form of my own mother.³ S.C. Sengupta in his article, “The Surplus in Man: The Poet’s Philosophy of Man,”⁴ Argues that the inter-relation between man and nature can be found at the lower or the communication stage and the higher or the communion stage. They are not two different stages. Rather, one stage is ultimately passing over into the growth of another stage. Man has very good communication with nature. Nature helps man to develop his personality in as much as man helps nature to reveal its beauty. Man grows along with nature in so far as he can identify himself with nature and makes it his messenger of communication. With the help of nature man creates his own nature, creates beauty, and creates art. In his creativity and self-expression, man becomes conscious of the abundance, his ability to go beyond his physical finitude and through creation of art, strives to send his communication to the Supreme Person who reveals Himself to him. Again, Communication as a form of inter-relation between man and nature has two levels - one is the cognitive and the other is the existential. At the cognitive level, nature contributes to knowledge not as an externality, but as revealed to man. Tagore writes, “All our knowledge of things is knowing them in their relation to the Universe, in that relation which is truth.”⁵ But man due to his engagements with the day-to-day activities, forgets that nature is his. It is not because nature has grown out of touch with us, rather, we do not perceive nature in its aspect of unity; we are driven to destruction by our focus on the fragmentary. He laments that, “we grow out of touch with this great truth, forget to accept its invitation and its hospitality, when in quest of external success our works become unspiritual and unexpressive.”⁶ Tagore also quotes here Wordsworth’s line: ‘The world is too much with us; late and soon, Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers. Little we see in Nature that is ours.’

Receiving from Nature and Separating from the Ego

There is always a correlation between the extent of receiving from nature and separating from the ego. There is now a deepening of self-knowledge and self-development; at the higher level of relatedness to nature is communion or unity. Tagore thinks that the unity of man and nature has its source in the One or the Absolute. The spirit and nature are the twin aspects of the Absolute

Inter-personal Relationship - *I and Thou*

In this section, we discuss the Inter-personal Relationship of the *I and Thou* relationship in Tagore's humanistic thoughts. The assertion of the primordial relationship is the essence of Tagore's humanism; and he calls his humanism the Religion of Man. But the term, 'Religion', does not suggest that man is under the control of an infinite spiritual being like God. The function of religion is to bring the individual into concord with reason, with love, indeed with the Supreme Man, the Universal being. The reality of the Supreme Person is as much dependent upon the personal being as the latter is dependent upon the former. So God is also a personal being like man. Tagore believed that the state of realizing our relationship all through as a union with the divine is the ultimate end and fulfillment of humanity. Therefore, the spirit of Oneness in God has the many, for the realization of this unity and the truth behind this spiritual union is love. He thinks that man is above all a lover, his freedom and fulfillment is in love, which is another name for perfect comprehension. By this power of comprehension, this permeation of his being, he is united with the all-pervading spirit. Through love, human society is set for the best expression of man, and that expression, according to its perfection, leads him to the full realization of the divine in humanity.

Conclusion

Tagore had a prophetic vision. Tagore's view of language is ontological, because, human ontology determines the nature and function of language. Man expresses himself through his creativity, and language is one of the important modes of communication of man's self-revealing activity. Man is an expressive being, and therefore, he is capable of achieving self clarity and freedom. Freedom is integral to a self-realizing subject. According to Tagore, self-expression is the important channel of communication. As an expressive being, man recovers communion with the universe. It is in man's consciousness of a deeper unity with nature, with the world, of which we are a part. The self-revealing being (I) is in interchange with the greater nature. The self-expressive being carries an eternal relation with the other and the other is also dependent upon my existence. There arises an interpersonal relationship between 'myself' and the 'other' (I and thou). It will be appropriate to fit here the views of Hegel that the Idea becomes its other, and then returns into self-consciousness in Geist. The life of the absolute subject is essentially a process, a movement, in which it posits its own conditions of existence to the universe, and then

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overcomes the opposition of these conditions to realize its goal of self knowledge .But at the deeper ontological level, this inter-personal relation of I and thou takes the form of intrapersonal level of human existence (I am thou). I am dependent upon other and the other is a condition for my union with the all pervading spirit. Tagore thinks that to attain our world-consciousness, we have to bring together our feelings with this all-pervasive infinite feeling, and this is possible when we free ourselves from the bonds of personal desires, prepare ourselves for our social obligations and sharing the burdens of our fellow beings. So I and thou work for a common cause to achieve the unity of consciousness. He says that to be truly united in knowledge, love and service with all beings, and to realize one's self in the all-pervading God is the essence of goodness, and it is also the key that opens the gate of spiritual life.

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Teaching of English Grammar in India – Are We Sailing in the Same Boat?

Sugata Samanta, M. A., M.Ed.

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Abstract

For centuries, importance and place of grammar in second language learning has been a topic of hot debate. In the past centuries, language learning had almost been synonymous with grammar learning. However, at the beginning of 1970, the interest of ‘real language’ teaching emerged and more interest was taken in the social and cultural teaching of language. Consequently, it proved to be a shift from audio-lingual and grammar translation methods to the exploration of the communicative teaching of language. Current theories of L2 learning, however, suggest that an explicit knowledge of grammar is important in a number of respects. Naturally, Indian classrooms are also influenced by those developments regarding grammar teaching. This article is an attempt to explore the real classroom situations of the Indian subcontinent in relation to teaching ESL grammar

Keywords: English Grammar Teaching, ESL (English as Second Language), Inductive Approach, Deductive Approach

Introduction

In South Asian regions, grammar is one of the most obscure areas in ESL learning. In fact, all over the world, lots of debate and controversies exist about the role of grammar in language teaching and learning and, as Borg & Burns point out, perhaps, no area of second (L2) and foreign language learning has been the subject of as much empirical and practical interest as grammar teaching. (Borg, & Burns, 2008) Usually, debates about grammar often lie at the heart of various methodological orientations whether grammar should be taught inductively/deductively or implicitly/explicitly. Traditionally grammar is taught deductively, that is, by presenting a rule followed by example drills (from general to particular) whereas inductive grammar teaching is one in which learners are given many examples in different contexts and are asked to find out the rules by themselves (from particular to general), and then apply them to various exercises to learn how they actually work in real language use. A

third alternative to grammar teaching is the golden mean of both inductive and deductive approaches to benefit from the advantages of both; it is grammar-based teaching (GBT). It is an approach recommended by Azar to grammar practitioners and believes that "placing specific grammar structures within their larger conceptual framework is more helpful to students than a random, piecemeal approach to explicit grammar teaching" (Azar, 2007). It takes the advantages of both inductive and deductive approaches.

Fries (1945) conceives grammar or the structure as the starting point in teaching L2. The structure of the language is identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures and teaching technique concentrate on repetition of a pattern a number of times so that the learner becomes perfect in the use of the pattern. However, the approach which has now come to be considered as the ideal approach is the eclectic approach. In the move away from teachers following one specific methodology, the eclectic approach is the label given to a teacher's use of techniques and activities from a range of language teaching approaches and methodologies. The teacher decides what methodology or approach to use depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. It is stated that eclectic approach provides the learner with opportunities for developing their individual creativity as well as helping them fully understand the features of the target genres (Y. Kim, & J. Kim, 2005). Naturally, the Indian subcontinent is also heavily influenced by those developmental teaching approaches. However, different studies try to unveil whether the classrooms of the Indian subcontinent are really congruent with those modern theories of grammar instruction.

Teaching of English Grammar in South Asian Region

Krashen (1982) observed that "the tendency of Asian students to self-correct based on their conscious application of grammar rules leads to over-correction. For Asian students, grammar is an essential tool in building confidence, language knowledge, and fluency. In the classroom setting, despite students' interest in the lesson, discussion topic or subject matter presented in the English classroom, most students will be less inclined to speak if they are not confident about their oral language skill. Therefore, students' reliance on grammatical and form-focused instruction should not be completely abandoned in the CLT classroom." Leisak observed that South-Asian students lack the proficiency in writing grammatically correct sentences or in expressing coherent thoughts in paragraph writing. "Grammar skills include run-on sentences, fragments and verbiage, inclusion of necessary information, use of different

types of sentences, subject-verb agreement, and placement of modifiers, tense agreement and parallel construction' (Leisak, 1989). Grammar is more than just a set of rules; it is an ever-evolving structure of a language' (Kleisar, 2005). Students know how to construct sentences but they feel some confusion while combining two sentences to make one longer sentence. 'Parallelism is also one of the problems.'

According to Harshbarger, et al. (1986) students are very shy in their language classrooms. Chinese students like to listen to their teachers rather than actively participating. The teachers explain each and every thing of the text and grammatical rules to the students whereas the students passively listen, take notes and answer questions. It is due to this traditional approach adopted by the teachers that students play the role of passive learners or recipients of knowledge transmitted from teacher's end rather than to be an explorer and interpreter by themselves. "It, therefore, seems sensible that teachers choose eclectically from among those approaches available, in line with the needs of learners, and always remembering the need to cater for individual differences in style. Teachers can also carry out their own observations and explorations to discover what students prefer and report as useful" (Hedge). She further suggests that learners will apply themselves better to the task of learning when they feel positive about the approaches used.

Teaching of English Grammar in the Indian Subcontinent

"English as a potent vehicle of communication serves as link language in a multicultural and multilingual society like India, and also as a global linguistic mediator" (Sarangi, 2005). However, as Sarangi further observes, "teaching of English suffers from the general malaise that afflicts the educational system of India". Sociolinguistic language contact usually results in an uneven distribution of language patterns among the groups involved. In India, "English and Indian languages co-exist in a dialossic relationship" (Parasher, 1977). The difficulties related to bilingualism in India stem from the complex interplay and variability of social, psychological and sociolinguistic factors, which determine individual conduct. The most important practical problem related to the teaching of English in India is the presence of a large number of learners as all the learners do not come from the same socio-linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds. It is practically impossible in Indian classrooms that the groups are approximately equal in ability and "Peer teaching", "role

play”, “group activities” are rare in L2 classrooms of India. In our classrooms, lecturers speak. The class listens passively. The learners are not encouraged to ask questions.

A detailed ethnographic study on teacher-learner behaviour and classroom processes conducted by Fauzia Shamim (1993) revealed that in classroom practices a distinction which was always made between doing a lesson and doing grammar. ‘Doing a lesson’ consists of the following stages:

- A text (the lesson) is read aloud by the teacher or pupils
- A text is explained by the teacher, often in Hindi or a local language
- The meaning of ‘difficult words’ is given in English, Hindi or a local language
- Pupils write follow-up exercises in their notebooks

Meanwhile ‘doing grammar’ consists of the following steps:

- The form of a grammar item is explained by the teacher.
- The pupils write sentences illustrating the grammar item.
- The teacher dictates an essay or letter or writes it on the blackboard to be copied by the pupils.
- Pupils memorize the essay or letter and reproduce it in the examination

As Aslam (2003) observes: “Most of our teachers remain largely ignorant of the changes taking place in English teaching/learning across the globe. They never bother to analyze why English is taught in schools and what is expected of them.” Thus, the attitudes of teachers here play a crucial role in classroom instructions.

Regarding the teaching of English grammar in India, National Focus Group of NCERT, in a position paper (2006), observes that in India “The term grammar seems to be understood in a variety of ways. We do not rule out the possibility of encouraging “parsing” skills or strategies (identifying sense groups to see how they fit into the sentence or inserting sense groups to expand a sentence) as a means of making input more comprehensible at earlier stages, especially in English-minimal environments. Some grammar (such as the appropriate use of prepositions) may more appropriately be termed the learning of vocabulary (including now under this term idiomatic or fixed expressions, for example, in time and on time)”. It has been further pointed out that “There is a persisting teacher concern that grammar is necessary for “accuracy” (as against “fluency”) in language. This presupposes

that the learner has had enough exposure to the language to produce it with sufficient systematic rules to allow the identification of recurrent errors.”

Different researchers in the Indian subcontinent have conducted many types of research on the position of English grammar in classroom practices. Tahira Kalsoom & Dr. Prof. Mumtaz Akhtar (2013) conducted a study in Pakistan (“Teaching Grammar: Relationship between Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices”). In this context, a doctoral thesis on ‘An Exploratory Study of the Interplay between Teachers’ Beliefs, Instructional Practices & Professional Development’ by Naashia Mohamed (2006) needs special mention. Her study primarily focused on grammar instruction in the context of English teaching in the secondary schools of the Maldives. It reveals the interconnections between teachers’ beliefs, their instructional practices, and professional development, by examining the extent to which the introduction of an innovative teaching approach impacts teachers’ beliefs and behaviour.

Indian Scenario

In India, in a study entitled “Teaching English Grammar: Teacher's Perception and Practice”, Shashirekha S. M. (2014) during her survey in the schools of Bengaluru, finds that all participant-teachers confessed that grammar instruction is very important in English language learning. But the classroom observation of the teaching conducted in the classrooms by the investigator showed that the teachers do not give much importance to grammar teaching. Again, Most of the teachers do not teach grammar regularly. The researcher observed that there were many opportunities to present grammar in a functional way but no teacher concentrated on functional grammar. Instead, the participant-teachers taught only formal grammar. All participants said that while teaching grammar they used the inductive method and that they presented grammar item in different ways and combinations. But in reality, only some of them created relevant situations, used charts, pictures, etc. and no participant provided an opportunity to students for explicit discussion of grammar rules. The researcher finally feels that the teachers’ perception is a base for their classroom practices. Based on their perception and practices it is essential to give some suggestions, which help to improve the grammar instruction and classroom practice. This should help the learner to learn the language in effective and efficient ways. So it is a prerequisite to know the English teachers’ perception and practice and suggest to them to incorporate suitable methods in their regular grammar instruction.

In another study entitled “Present Position of Teaching English Grammar in the High Schools of Assam - A Case Study” conducted on the teachers of Assam, the researcher Pranjal Saikia (2013) reveals that in 90% schools, “Grammar Translation” method is used by the teachers and in only 10% schools, somewhat proper methods of teaching English Grammar have been witnessed by him. He also noticed that there was no effort on the part of the English teachers to teach English grammar by creating real life (practical) situations. He, therefore, suggests that the attitudes of teachers towards English grammar should be changed and that for an effective classroom instruction a grammar teacher should teach grammar to the students by creating different types of communicative situations inside the English classroom, since only through communicative situations, one will be capable of using grammatical items in real life situations.

A Survey on the Place of Grammar in Classrooms of West Bengal

The present author had conducted a survey in 2015 for a dissertation purpose on some teachers of English from several districts of West Bengal in India. The survey was related to different attitudes of teachers about the role of English grammar in teaching and the place of grammar in actual classroom practices. The survey was comprised of structured open-ended interviews and non-participatory classroom observations. Structured open-ended interviews were conducted to elicit necessary information about teachers’ language learning background, their attitudes towards grammar as well as their teaching methodologies. Regarding their own grammar learning experiences, almost all the teachers admitted that they were taught English grammar through grammar translation method and that was done through class lecture mainly. As their classes were teacher-centered, they had to remain passive listeners. They were supposed to copy class works from the blackboard to their notebooks and to memorize all the rules without making any changes on the class works.

In response to the questions about their views on the place of grammar in English language learning, each teacher showed different attitudes towards the role of grammar according to his/her perception. According to a few teachers of the sample, grammar helps the learners to communicate in the target language with others. Some believed that grammar is the foundation of L2 which gives structure a solid base of the construction of language related concepts. However, it is evident from the interviews that the primary focus of the

teachers is to teach grammatical structures and rules rather than usages. It seems the teachers think that to speak grammatically accurate sentences, the form-based approach is the most suitable. Almost all the teachers also confessed great influences of their own grammar learning experiences on their attitudes towards grammar teaching and methodologies of teaching. Most teachers even admitted that they do not take recourse to any special kind of grammar activities in the classrooms. Rather they use textbooks, grammar books, and practice books exercise to teach grammar lessons. As this information is in agreement with the facts provided by the other researchers from other parts of the country, it may be assumed that it is the common picture of Indian classrooms. Thus, it seems that in India, the attitudes regarding the role of grammar in learning English as a second Language have remained almost the same across generations.

Through the non-participatory classroom observations, the present author found that grammar was actually taught explicitly. Almost all of them first wrote the grammar rules on the blackboard and explained the rules with the help of some examples. Most of the classes were teacher-centered and students were allowed to participate in class discussion in a restricted manner. The main focus was on the structure rather than on the usages. Filling the gaps with grammatical concepts and working in the changes as directed were the most widely used activities in the observed classes. During the classroom observation, it was found that most teachers at first wrote the structure on the blackboard before explaining it to the whole class. After that, examples were provided and to make the concept clearer, the strategy of comparison and contrast between different grammatical structures were also used frequently. In almost every class, students' grammatical errors on notebooks were corrected immediately. It was also noticed that 80% teachers of the sample did not at all use the strategy of oral-pattern practice drills in their grammar classes.

In response to a question in the structured open-ended interviews, the teachers of the sample also claimed that they follow inductive approach while teaching grammar. However, observations have made it clear that teachers first presented grammar rules directly on the blackboard and then explained them by giving examples without remembering the fact that the students are required to infer the rules from contextualized practice, or go through the process of "discovery learning" (Ellis, 2001). Actually, they are teaching grammar deductively though they seem to be under the false notion that they are practising inductive

approach. This approach may enable students to grab grammatical rules. But certainly they will be utter failures when the rules will have to be applied in writing or speaking.

Thus various studies in the area of teaching English grammar in Indian classrooms unveil the fact that in spite of several efforts on the part of governments and policy makers, most of the teachers are sailing in the same boat as their predecessors. Studies also revealed that there is a close relationship between teachers' attitudes regarding the place and role of grammar and their use of different instructional strategies in the classroom practices. It will be of much help to teachers if attempts are made to identify their different attitudes on grammar teaching. Crandall (2000) opined that as many detrimental attitudes may be held unconsciously by the teachers, in order to change which, teachers must first be made aware of them. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to know about their own attitudes regarding different aspects of grammar teaching. Regular feedbacks on the classroom practices as well as in-service orientation and refresher courses are the demands of the day for professional development. These steps may unveil several interesting facets which will aid school authorities, teachers and other stakeholders to plan for effective instructional designs in teaching and learning the grammar of English as Second Language. (ESL) Teachers need to continually bring about changes in their instructional practices of teaching grammar which is a prerequisite for the betterment of the present condition of grammar teaching in Indian schools. Teachers must also be provided enough opportunities "so that they can be encouraged to articulate and reflect on their beliefs". (Richards and Farrell, 2005) These steps can be real aids to get rid of the age-old detrimental methods of grammar teaching in favour of modern communicative approach in present day India.

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**Language Anxiety over EFL/ESL Oral exam/test Performance:
A View from Language Classrooms at Mehran University of
Engineering and Technology Jamshoro Sindh, Pakistan**

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Abstract

This study was conducted in order to highlight second/foreign language classroom anxiety over EFL/ESL oral exam/test performance at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Sindh, Pakistan. Study was based on quantitative approach. Participants of the study were 227 students, who were selected randomly. Students were given a questionnaire to answer, adopted by Horwitz and Cope (1987) based on five point Likert Scale. Scale is basically designed to measure Communicative Apprehension, Test/Exam Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation, while in this study in order to measure oral Exam/Test performance, the second portion of the Scale "Test/Exam Anxiety" was followed. Moreover the findings of the study concluded that a moderate level of anxiety was prevalent among undergraduates of MUET firstly. Secondly, findings of the study concluded that MUET undergraduates have moderate level of anxiety worrying how they could achieve good grades in each exam. Consequently findings of the study also direct us towards affective assessment of learners at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Sindh, Pakistan.

Key Words: Test/Exam Anxiety, speaking anxiety, oral performance, self-confidence, Communicative Apprehension

Introduction

The present study is designed to explain the foreign language classroom anxiety over EFL/ESL Oral exam/test Performance. Since anxiety is a major obstacle between learners and

their target. This study examines communication apprehension to determine language anxiety over EFL/ESL oral exam/test performance of undergraduates at MUET Jamshoro. Though there is much study done in the context of language anxiety in Pakistan, there is a significant need to highlight the anxiety and anxiety related problems at the university level in Sindh, Pakistan. Consequently, it provides a clear image of speaking anxiety during oral performance among undergraduate learners, to Pakistani researchers in particular and language teachers in general.

Literature Review

English language has been used as the most common language around the world and it is declared as lingua Franca, language to use or communicate globally. The most prominent characteristic of the language is communication, though there are different reasons behind the spread of the language, for instance, the colonization of the united states of America around the world, another reason is invention and use of the computer more than that the installation of English language as operating language on the computer. Consequently, English became the language of education, science, politics and technology. About fifty years back English language was limited to theoretical predictions but now it is used globally and it is no more any theoretical prediction. "A language gains a status as a global language when it has a special role that is recognized in every country in the world (Crystal, 1997, cited in Rohmah 2005).

People need to have a grip on the language to avail more and better opportunities; moreover, English language is not an interesting language to learn, it has no charm to learn it intrinsically. In fact it is extrinsically interesting to be master for instance having more opportunities in academic and professional careers.

In Pakistan English language is used as second language as it is declared as official language. Constantly it is due on everyone to master the language academically and professionally. On the road to mastering the language there come some ups and downs, for instance if one feels confident while learning the language the other one may feel demotivated, one may have positive and negative learning attitudes towards learning the language; likewise,

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among all other factors like attitude, motivation, aptitude, anxiety is the most researched factor which increases defecting elements in learning the language among learners.

Anxiety is defined by various researchers - one among them is by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986), "a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (P.128 Gopang et al. 2015).

Moreover, speaking anxiety has three components, introduced by Horwitz & Cope in FLCAS: (1) communication apprehension (2) test anxiety and (3) fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension refers to anxiety which students feel while communicating with others, test anxiety refers to fear of exams, and finally fear of negative evaluation which refers to the fear of being misunderstood by others. The viewed anxiety is a combination of the above three components; further it is divided into two major elements of anxiety, debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety. Debilitating anxiety concludes in abandoned learning and facilitating anxiety concludes in facilitating learning; it arises as a sense of worry towards learning which leads to struggles to achieve the target. Horwitz & Cope as illustrating anxiety arising in unique situation make sense to put language speaking anxiety in the category of situation-specific anxiety as well. Constantly Horwitz & Cope (1986) argues that language anxiety arises in specific situation. If talking about specific situations, learners might feel anxiety during speaking with fellows, teachers and native speakers, or learners might feel nervous during performing in class while giving presentations, dialogues and so on.

Researchers have suggested considering anxiety from a situation specific perspective. (Ellis, 2008; Horwitz 2001; Horwitz & Young, 1991; MacIntyre, 1999) Dornyei 2001 argued that language classroom students inherently face a threatening environment, where learners are expected to perform through the use of a severely restricted language code. This is the reason anxiety arises in specific situations which are uniquely threatening. Consequently learning environment affects learners on a different individualistic note. Some learners get anxious at high level and some get anxious at low level, especially during communicative activities. Reaction of

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the learners depend on their individualistic abilities, individual attitudes towards language and individual socio-educational background; learners and their performance in second/foreign language learning are generally evaluated on these grounds. However, Horwitz et al. (1986) argued, that "an individual's communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic or socio-cultural standards; second language communication entails risk-taking and is necessarily problematic" (P. 128).

Keeping all perspective in view it is quite problematic for learners to perform without feeling any problem. Above all what a learner thinks of himself has been found to be the most problematic factor. McIntyre and Gardner (1991) have argued that "anxious individuals think about their own reaction to a task in addition to the demands of the task itself" (P. 297). Weak input creates a sense of doubt about the ability of learner towards accomplishing the task, which becomes the concrete hurdle towards fluency of foreign language in classroom during a task. Researchers have also explored links between anxiety level and various aspects of speaking skills. Phillips (1992), for instance, examined the potential effects of anxiety on performance variables related to the quantity and quality of the oral output, she has found that students with high anxiety said less, produced shorter communication units, and used fewer dependent clauses and target structures than those whose anxiety level was lower. Constantly it can be estimated that weak output is one of the serious reasons for language anxiety.

Keeping in mind the previous theoretical grounds of language anxiety, this study has been designed to illustrate language anxiety over EFL/ESL oral exam/test performance at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Sindh, Pakistan.

Researches on Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

An uncountable number of researches has been done on foreign language speaking anxiety around the world and multiple challenges have been discovered by researchers caused by anxiety effecting learners strongly in debilitating or facilitating way.

One of the studies conducted in 2012 by Trang et al. at a university in Vietnam on the investigation of anxiety students experienced while learning English as a foreign language in order to find out whether anxiety is effected on their determination of studying English or not; the study concluded that students should be informed of the importance of learning English.

Another study conducted in 2015 at Lasbela University Pakistan by Gopang et al. suggested that mostly students feel nervous and avoid speaking English and students face speaking anxiety inside and outside of class, students feel more nervous while speaking with native speakers. Furthermore, the study declares speaking anxiety as a serious issue of undergraduate students in Pakistan.

Consequently, the study conducted by Smith & Schroth in 2014 at the University of Southeastern region of United states, reveals that students who remain normal, earn high grades. Results also indicate that outside factors like less amount of sleep and lack of preparation often contributed to anxiety. Study also reveals that speaking anxiety can affect classroom performance.

Present study is concerned with highlighting the role of foreign language learning students' anxiety and comparing the level of speaking anxiety in major - English students and other students not majoring in English at the University of Sindh, Jamshoro. The practical implications or benefits of the study are to create an awareness regarding the level of speaking anxiety experienced by learners during oral performance in different situations and to provide some suggestions to concerned teachers to tackle the problem.

Research Questions

Following is the major research question designed by researcher:

- To determine language anxiety over EFL/ESL oral exam/test performance of undergraduates at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Sindh Pakistan.

Focusing above main question the researchers answered the questions below:

1. What is the level of language anxiety over EFL/ESL oral exam performance among undergraduates at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Sindh Jamshoro?
2. How is oral exam performance of undergraduates at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Sindh Jamshoro?
3. How does language anxiety affect individualistic perspectives regarding oral performance in undergraduates at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Sindh Jamshoro?

Methodology

Participants

The learners participated in this study are 227 undergraduate Engineering students at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology, Jamshoro. Students are randomly selected to collect data from students who are studying Functional English and Communicative Skills.

Instrument

The instrument adopted for this study is Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCAS) originated by Horwitz & Cope. (1987) The FLCAS is based on the five point Likert scale. FLCAS measures the speaking anxiety at three parts, communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. This study only borrows and applies the second section "Test anxiety" which measures Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety in writing or tests and exams, performed in second/foreign language. Moreover the instrument is significantly valid and reliable or for used in multiple studies on foreign/second speaking anxiety worldwide.

Data Collection

Survey method is followed to gather data under consideration of all ethical issues concerned. Participants were given a time of 20 minutes to answer 33 statements provided in the questionnaire. Learners participated voluntarily and were informed that it does not affect their grades at any stage.

Data Analyses

Data is analyzed through SPSS, all the statements are individually analyzed to determine test/exam anxiety among Engineering undergraduates at MUET. Constantly by measurement of the variables all three research questions are answered.

Item No 2:

	Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	60	27.3	27.3	27.3
Agree	90	40.9	40.9	68.2
Disagree	61	27.7	27.7	95.9
Strongly Disagree	9	4.1	4.1	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.1 shows test anxiety among engineering undergraduates

Table 1.1 shows the consciousness of students towards making mistakes. It shows that 95.9% learners disagree on not feeling worried about making mistakes in class, which just 68.2% agree that they feel worried about making mistakes.

Item No 8:

	Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly agree	39	17.7	17.7	17.7
Agree	125	56.8	56.8	74.5
Disagree	45	20.5	20.5	95.0
Strongly Disagree	11	5.0	5.0	100.0

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Total	220	100.0	100.0
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Table 1.2 shows test anxiety among engineering undergraduates

Table 1.2 shows level of feeling easy with language tests in language classes. Again 95.0% learners disagree on feeling easy while 74.5% agree. It concludes that majority of learners do not feel easy during tests in language classes.

Item No 10:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	37	16.8	16.8	16.8
Agree	94	42.7	42.7	59.5
Disagree	63	28.6	28.6	88.2
Strongly Disagree	26	11.8	11.8	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.3 shows test anxiety among engineering undergraduates

Table shows that 88.2% learners disagree on feeling worries about failing consequences in language class, it can be estimated that the major concern of the learners is related with the moment of exam; they do not think about future loss that might be brought about by the failure in the exam. It shows low level of test anxiety in learners.

Item No 19:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	51	23.2	23.2	23.2
Agree	69	31.4	31.4	54.5
Disagree	79	35.9	35.9	90.5

Strongly Disagree	21	9.5	9.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.4 shows test anxiety among engineering undergraduates

Table shows fear of learners towards interference of teachers and pointing the mistakes learners are making. It shows that 90.5% learners disagree which concludes that students are not afraid as they believe mistakes are a part of learning.

Item No 21:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	29	13.2	13.2	13.2
Agree	47	21.4	21.4	34.5
Disagree	96	43.6	43.6	78.2
Strongly Disagree	48	21.8	21.8	100.0
Total	220	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.5 shows test anxiety among engineering undergraduates.

Table shows the level of anxiety in learners, it shows that 78.2% learners strongly disagree on feeling more anxious as they study. It concludes that learners do not get anxiety with more study.

Conclusion

Results show moderate level of test anxiety occurs in specific situations with positive influences of facilitating anxiety in MUET undergraduates during test/exam oral performance, learners find themselves able to control test anxiety level when preparing well for exams. The more they study the less they feel test anxiety. Less anxiety directs us towards their high level of

self-confidence concerning their achievement. The results also conclude why MUET undergraduates have good grades in each exam; it is due to their high level of confidence and low level of anxiety achieved with good preparations of tasks. Language anxiety does not affect learners negatively. Though majority of learners do not feel easy during tests or oral performance in language classes 95.9% learners disagree on not feeling worried about making mistakes in class.

Moreover 88.2% learners disagree on feeling worried about failing consequences in language class, it can be estimated that the major concern of the learners is related to the moment of exam; they have situation specific anxiety, they do not think about future loss that might be brought about by the failure in exam, because facilitating anxiety effects positively, students are not afraid as they believe mistakes are a part of learning. Simultaneously, 78.2% learners strongly disagree on feeling more anxious as they study; learners feel low level of anxiety when they prepare well for their task which is the reason behind getting good grades by undergraduates at MUET Jamshoro. Trang et al. at a university in Vietnam did an investigation on the anxiety students experienced during learning English as a foreign language, in order to find out whether anxiety has affected their determination of studying English or not; study concluded that students should be informed of the importance of learning English. Moreover, Gopang et al. (2015) suggested that mostly students feel nervous and avoid speaking English, students face speaking anxiety inside and outside of class, and students feel more nervous while speaking with native speakers; furthermore the study declares speaking anxiety as a serious issue of undergraduate students in Pakistan while findings of this study neglect the generalization of Gopang et al. (2015) Study proved MUET undergraduates do not feel high level of anxiety. Findings of this study also concluded that students should be well aware of their task. Study was also directed towards affective assessment of learners; by the results of this study we can estimate that learners have been provided enough teaching and practice followed by affective teaching plans; learners have been aware of how to study and how to prepare for tests and achieve well in the tests when keeping their anxiety at low level and their self-confidence at high level.

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Appendix Questionnaire

Participant's details.

Name: _____ **Class:** _____
Gender: _____ **Age:** _____
Department: _____ **Contact:** _____

1. I do not worry about making mistakes in language class.

(a) Strongly Agree (b) Agree (c) Disagree (d) Strongly Disagree

2. I am usually at easy during tests in my language class.

(a)Strongly Agree (b) Agree (c) Disagree (d) Strongly Disagree

3. I worry about THE consequences of failing my foreign language class.

(a)Strongly Agree (b) Agree (c) Disagree (d) Strongly Disage

4. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

(a)Strongly Agree (b) Agree (c) Disagree (d) Strongly Disagree

5. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in language class.

(a)Strongly Agree (b) Agree (c) Disagree (d) Strongly Disagree

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